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AN ANALYSIS OF LEADER ATTITUDES AND
BEHAVIOR: A PARADIGM FOR IMPROVING
LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

A Dissertation Presented

By

RONALD JAMES AREGLADO

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

May 1982

Education



Ronald James Areglado 1982

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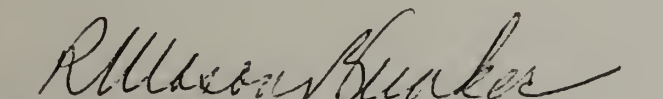
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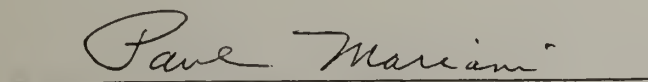
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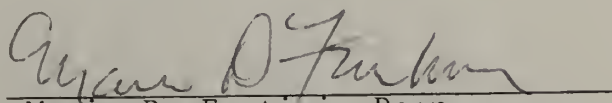
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ABSTRACT

An Analysis of Leader Attitudes and
Behavior: A Paradigm for Improving
Leadership Effectiveness

May 1982

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Purpose

The purpose of this study was to develop an effective and efficient method by which leaders might acquire information about both their attitudes and leadership behavior. The study sought to introduce Jung's theory of personality types to a sample of elementary school administrators and, through the use of personality type indicators or tests, determine their typology. The study also attempted to familiarize these administrators with Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) and to ascertain their leadership styles by means of the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) tests. Finally, the study examined the information based on these tests in order to explore the implications for improved leader effectiveness.

Methodology

To develop a method for improving leadership effectiveness, a design was conceived. First, the researcher performed a self-analysis of his personality type and leadership behavior. Testing for congruency, he established five hypotheses and determined that his findings compared significantly with the perceptions of his subordinates. Secondly, five case studies were developed utilizing test data and in-depth interviews. These cases were then used to assess the overall potential of the design with the purpose of improving leadership effectiveness.

Results

Congruency was found for four of five hypotheses tested in the self-analysis. These results established a basis for using similar test instruments with the five leaders whose personality types and leadership styles were examined as part of the case study presentations. In the second phase of the study the leaders indicated that the combined methods of testing and analysis were both effective and efficient, and that the overall process would help them improve their leadership effectiveness.

Conclusions

It was concluded that a moderate level of congruency existed between each of the leaders' personality types and the perceptions of their subordinates. An analysis of leadership style data revealed a high level of consistency between the leaders' alternate style range scores and those of their subordinates. All conclusions indicated that the model developed in this study was an effective and efficient method for improving leadership qualities.

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C H A P T E R I

INTRODUCTION

In a speech delivered before the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development's annual convention in 1979, Gordon Lippit remarked that leadership was "a performing art, not a science." Like all performing artists, our educational leaders and their actions are also subject to scrutiny. More often than not, however, the audience criticizes its leaders without that criticism ever reaching the leaders' attention in any clear, direct way. In education, this situation occurs because leaders in their daily work tend to be isolated and so do not receive the feedback from which they can learn and so change their professional behavior. It would appear therefore that there is a need for an effective and efficient process by which leaders can get that necessary feedback.

In order to establish such a process, it will first be necessary to examine the components of the process itself, a leader's attitudes and behavior, and then ascertain the relationships between the two. Research has already established that our attitudes influence our behavior. While several means exist for measuring human attitudes, these means do not specify behavioral

models for leaders. And while a variety of means already exist to measure leadership behavior in various contexts, attitude correlatives which affect behavior have not been adequately addressed. Yet it has already been shown that the attitude and behavior of leaders are theoretically related (Triandis, et. al., 1971, p. 5).

In the present study, a process will be developed which takes into consideration leaders' attitudes based on their personality types and their leadership behaviors or styles. Used in combination with one another, these attitudes and styles can enable leaders to examine how they perform as leaders. The special strength of this process appears to come about when feedback about leadership behavior is shared between leader and subordinate, especially when that feedback turns out to be quite different from the leader's own self-perceptions. When this happens, a situation arises whereby the leader's readiness to learn and/or change can occur. The end result of the process and the subsequent dialogue can then serve to improve leader effectiveness.

Statement of the Problem

During the past forty years leadership studies have resulted in the development of various theories of and models for leadership. Early studies concerning leadership traits postulated that certain personality traits could be attributed to leadership. Stogdill (1948) identified certain leadership traits and discovered in the process that individuals do not become leaders merely by possessing these traits alone. It was later discovered that leadership emerges when an individual's personal characteristics match favorably with situations requiring that individual's personality strengths, and that, as situations change, the role and responsibility of leadership must also change. In short, leadership was perceived in these studies as an interaction between personal and situational variables.

Starting from this theory of leadership traits, behaviorists examined various styles of leadership. The most significant work in this field took place at Ohio State University's Bureau of Business Research (Stogdill and Coons, 1957). What resulted was the Ohio State Model, which used the behavioral dimensions of "initiating structure" and "consideration" ranging from low personal involvement to high personal

involvement. Leadership styles were plotted within four quadrants. As emphasis on leadership styles developed, theorists began to investigate the specific situational context of the leader. Cartwright and Zander (1960), for example, stressed the significance of the situation for the role of the leader, asserting that a particular leader might possess skills which enabled him or her to perform important group tasks satisfactorily under certain conditions yet perform poorly under other conditions.

Accordingly, situational theories began to emerge out of the new research on leadership. What each of these theories did was to define a range of leadership styles and then establish which style was most effective in a given situation. One such theory, called Situational Leadership Theory (SLT), was developed and refined by Hersey and Blanchard (1969, 1977). Based as it was upon the Ohio State Model, SLT established that appropriate and effective leadership was predicated upon specific situations, a concept which had been initially advanced by William Reddin (1967). Using the terms "task behavior" and "relationship behavior," SLT suggested that there are four styles of leadership which can be placed on a two-dimensional grid: a vertical axis which indicates "relationship behavior" and a horizontal axis which indicates "task behavior" (as illustrated in Figure 1).

| | |
|--|---|
| Style 3 High Relationship and Low Task | Style 2 High Task and High Relationship |
| Style 4 Low Task and Low Relationship | Style 1 High Task and Low Relationship |

(Low) ←————Task Behavior————→ (High)

Figure 1. Four styles of leadership
according to SLT.
(Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 234)

A third dimension of leadership--leadership effectiveness--is also a part of SLT. This dimension indicates how a leader's response will be effective or ineffective depending upon the situation in which he/she uses task behavior and relationship behavior.

Hersey and Blanchard introduced a further situational variable, "task relevant maturity," which suggested that the behavior of subordinates itself ranged in levels of maturity from low to high (M1 to M4). Accordingly, a leader could adapt his/her leadership behavior or style to accommodate this maturity variable within the leader-subordinate relationship. Ideally, a leader's behavior should match the level of maturity exhibited by subordinates in the following ways:

Style 1 (HT/LR) = Low Maturity (M1)

Style 2 (HT/HR) = Low to Moderate Maturity (M2)

Style 3 (HR/LT) = Moderate to High Maturity (M3)

Style 4 (LT/LR) = High Maturity (M4)

To measure the range of styles and level of leadership effectiveness, Hersey and Blanchard (1977) developed a leadership inventory called the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD). LEAD could determine how a leader may respond to situations varying in task and relationship behavior. It is a test which can be

used by both leaders (LEAD/SELF) as well as by their subordinates (LEAD/OTHER). The important underlying principle of SLT, it should be remembered, is that leaders should adapt their behavior to match specific leadership situations.

However, there is disagreement among theorists concerning the ease with which leadership behavioral change can occur. Bass (1960), Etzioni (1972) and Sergiovanni (1979) all argued that leaders may not be able to change their behavior easily to accommodate significant situational variables as suggested by SLT. Bass (1960) discovered, for example, that leadership styles are actually manifestations of personality, and personalities are difficult things to change. Research conducted by Etzioni (1972) at the Columbia University Center for Policy Research revealed that "Persons have deep-rooted preferences in their work behavior that are very difficult to change," and he argued therefore that it might be "unethical to try to change them" (p. 47).

Fielder (1965) argued that changing leadership styles was "inappropriate," for if a leader's style was not appropriate to a given situation, then either the leader should be changed or the job changed to fit the leader's style.

What one can conclude from these arguments is that leadership behavior is inextricably linked to personality factors such as temperament, attitude, perception and judgment. These findings therefore underscore the theoretical relationship between attitude and behavior and imply that leaders must understand both their own personality characteristics and how those characteristics may affect their behavior. This is an important consideration because leaders may find the change in the way they behave in sharp conflict with their own personalities. A conflict within a leader may preclude behavioral change or in effect render such a change ineffectual. By knowing one's strengths and limitations, a leader can hope to focus on modifying his or her behavior within limitations or at least find another way to provide effective leadership.

In 1921, Carl Jung developed one of the century's most comprehensive theories of explaining human personality. In his theory of personality types he postulated that there are four basic mental processes common to everyone: sensing, intuition, thinking and feeling, though all four are not equally preferred and developed in each person. As Lawrence (1979, p. 5) explains, "Persons of each type are distinguished by their relative preferences for each of the four, and by the attitudes in which they use them."

In normal personality development, individuals are inclined to favor their chosen processes and, as a logical consequence, develop competency, characteristic habits, attitudes and traits associated with their own type. The process is of course dynamic and open-ended, and as individuals grow, they nurture and gain command over those other processes which were less developed early on. Everyone, however, appears to develop a major or dominant functional type which remains virtually unchanged throughout life. A secondary or auxiliary function is usually developed, but it does not displace the dominant function even when frequently used.

In an effort to order or determine the dominant function of an individual, Isabel Briggs Myers expanded Jung's theory to include a fourth set of preferences: Judging (J) and Perceiving (P), developing in the process the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), a 166-item questionnaire designed specifically to make it possible to test Jung's theory of types (McCaulley, 1977). By taking the MBTI one is able to identify those attitudes, perceptions, and judgments which tend to predominate over those others which tend to be inferior or underdeveloped. A shorter version of the MBTI, The Keirsey Temperament Sorter (KTS) was developed later by David Keirsey (1978).

Within the context of SLT, Jungian Typology has interesting implications for the relationship between attitude and behavior. This relationship can be better understood by examining the theory of the Johari Window. Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham (1955) developed a framework by which an individual could perceive how his/her attitudes, both conscious and unconscious, affected his/her behavior and interactions with others. The theory suggests that the more open an individual tends to be in disclosing pertinent information about himself or herself, the more accurate will be the feedback or response of others to that individual and the more open their relationship can be allowed to become. The concept of the Johari Window may be visualized in the following model:

| | | |
|----------------------|------------------|--------------------|
| | Known to Self | Unknown to Self |
| Known to Others | PUBLIC Q1 | BLIND Q2 |
| Unknown to Others | PRIVATE Q3 | UNKNOWN Q4 |

- Public-Quadrant 1 The area in which attitudes and behaviors are known to self and others.
- Blind-Quadrant 2 The area in which attitudes and behaviors are known only to others.
- Private-Quadrant 3 The area in which attitudes and behaviors are known only to self and are not shared with others.
- Unknown-Quadrant 4 The area in which attitudes and behaviors are unknown to self and others.

Figure 2. The Johari Window.
(Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 238)

As the processes of disclosure and feedback occur, an individual's Johari Window changes shape. For example, the more open an individual becomes, the larger his/her public area (Q1) becomes, thereby reducing the size of the other three quadrants and so opening the window. Conversely, the less one shares of his/her private area (Q3), the larger that area becomes, thereby reducing the size of the other three quadrants and so closing the window. When the Johari Window Theory is applied to leadership situations, researchers have found that there tends to be a high correlation between the openness of a leader's public area and his/her effectiveness (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977).

A summary of the three theoretical positions advanced in this study is as follows:

1. Leaders need to adapt their style to accommodate changes in leadership situations or delegate authority to another whose skills are more compatible with the situation.
2. Personal qualities in a leader, such as attitude, judgment, and perception, directly influence one's behavior.

3. Leader effectiveness is positively related to the degree of openness in the leader-subordinate relationship. The leaders' level of effectiveness is enhanced by the interactive processes of disclosure and feedback in that relationship.

Given these theoretical positions, the goal of this study was to develop an efficient and economical process by which to improve leader effectiveness.

The Johari Window illustrates whether communications between a leader and his/her subordinates are open or closed. The use of the window can be enhanced by information which leaders can obtain from a review of both their personality types and their leadership styles. By examining his/her attitudes and preferences, a leader may better understand the forces which shape his/her leadership behavior. Type theory used in combination with SLT is the method which can create this greater awareness. The Johari Window will illustrate the degree of openness in the leader-subordinate relationship.

The strengths of the method may be assessed in two ways. First, if a high level of openness exists in the relationship between leader and subordinate, there is a good possibility that the leaders are effective (Hersey

and Blanchard, 1977). In this instance, the method may serve to illustrate the reasons for a positive leader-subordinate relationship. Secondly, if the process reveals that leader-subordinate communication is limited or closed, this information could provide a catalyst for change in the leader's behavior. Such a desire for change may be viewed in terms of Force Field Analysis developed by Kurt Lewin (1947). Force Field Analysis assumes that in any situation there are two forces: a driving force and a restraining force. The driving force is that which affects a situation and moves it in a certain direction. The restraining force, on the other hand, acts to restrain or decrease the driving force. Equilibrium is reached when the sum of the driving force equals the sum of the restraining force. Figure 3 illustrates an example of Force Field Analysis as it relates to an open leader-subordinate relationship.

The level of openness can be raised or lowered by changes in the relationship between driving and restraining forces. For example, a leader changes his or her leadership style and thus upsets the equilibrium by increasing the driving forces (that is, by being autocratic and keeping continual pressure on subordinates) in order to complete a task. In so doing, however, new restraining forces develop, such as increased hostility

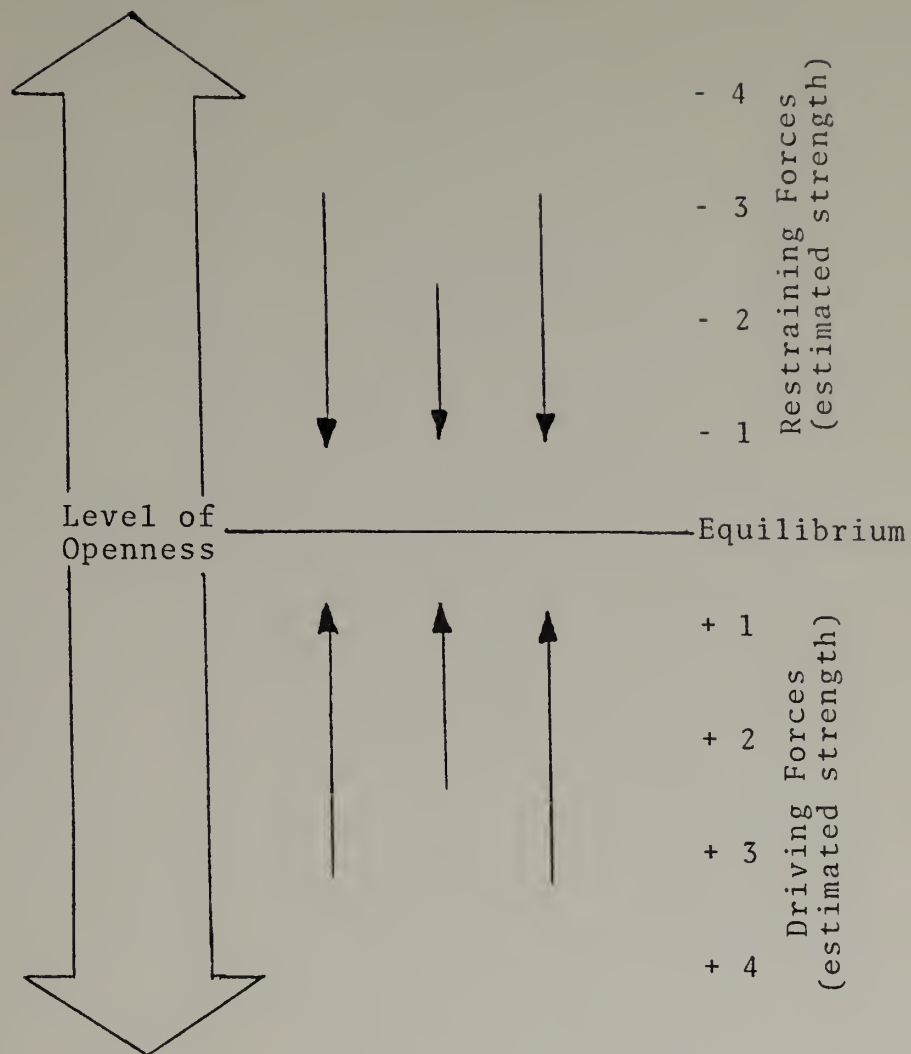


Figure 3. Driving and restraining forces in equilibrium.

and resentment. The results may manifest themselves in lower productivity, indifference, or other restraining forces. If a leader and subordinates communicate about the leader's behavior so that changes in the leader's style occur, a possible reduction in both driving and restraining forces may result until the relationship is once again balanced.

Obviously, if the leader is aware of his/her behavior and is willing to share the reasons for changes in leadership styles, then the process of changing behavior to restore equilibrium and to improve leader effectiveness will be less difficult. On the other hand, if a leader's behavior is rooted in either the subconscious arena (Q4 of the Johari Window) or their private arena (Q3), then determining attitudinal preferences or personality types will increase the possibility that the leader may learn how one's typology affects one's style. If there is an imbalance, a leader will be faced with the task of disclosing more information to subordinates (Q1 of the Johari Window) in order to initiate feedback and self-disclosure, restore equilibrium, and improve effectiveness.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study has been to develop an effective process by which leaders may acquire information about both their attitudes and leadership behavior in order to improve leadership effectiveness. The study has sought to do the following:

1. Introduce Jungian Typology to a sample of elementary school administrators or leaders and, through the use of personality type indicators, determine their typology.
2. Familiarize these leaders with SLT and ascertain their leadership styles by means of the LEAD instruments.
3. Examine the combined information discovered in these tests in order to explore the implications for leader effectiveness.

In order to determine whether the process developed has been effective and efficient, this study has also sought to answer the following questions:

1. Is the combined process of integrating and testing for type theory and SLT effective?

2. Is the combined process of integrating and testing for type theory and SLT efficient?
3. Is the combined process as perceived by leaders helpful to their leadership task?

Methodology

To develop a process to improve leader effectiveness, a design was first conceived. The theoretical relationship between attitude and behavior has already been established in the preceding pages. A decision to use Jung's theory of personality types and SLT in combination was made after a review of compatible instruments. A two-part design was then established.

First, the researcher self-administered the MBTI and reviewed the findings with a clinician trained in interpreting the results. Predictions about his leadership style were made, and a LEAD/SELF instrument was completed. Next, the following five hypotheses were developed and validated on the basis of personality type assessments and leadership style results which were obtained from the researcher's twenty-eight subordinates:

1. Hypothesis A: There will be a direct and statistically significant relationship between the researcher's E-I preference

and his subordinates' perceptions of his E-I preference.

2. Hypothesis B: There will be a direct and statistically significant relationship between the researcher's S-N preference and his subordinates' perceptions of his S-N preference.
3. Hypothesis C: There will be a direct and statistically significant relationship between the researcher's T-F preference and his subordinates' perceptions of his T-F preference.
4. Hypothesis D: There will be a direct and statistically significant relationship between the researcher's J-P preference and his subordinates' perceptions of his J-P preference.
5. Hypothesis E: There will be a direct and statistically significant relationship between the researcher's LEAD/SELF scores and his subordinates' LEAD/OTHER scores.

Statistical analyses were applied to the results in order to test the five hypotheses and to determine levels of significance. To the extent that the hypotheses were supported, the researcher concluded that the findings

offered statistical justification to use the test instruments with others.

The second phase of the study used the aforementioned theories to develop an effective and efficient process by which to improve leader effectiveness. Modified personality type indicators and the LEAD tests were used with five practicing administrators. Five case studies were developed using both test data and in-depth interviews. These cases were used to assess the overall potential of the design to increase leader effectiveness.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are used frequently in this study. For purposes of clarity the following definitions of these terms are offered.

Attitudes: ". . . internal, private events whose existence we infer from our own introspection of from some form of behavioral evidence when they are expressed overtly in word or deed." (Zimbardo, Ebbeson, Maslach, 1977, p. 20).

Behavior: An overt action or verbal response.

Jungian Typology: A theory of personality developed by Carl Jung that establishes the manner in which an individual perceives his/her world and the way he/she

makes judgments. The typology is described (McCaulley, 1977, p. 4) in terms of four bipolar preferences: E-I, S-N, T-F, or J-P.

- | | | |
|--|----|--|
| E. The extraverted attitude in which energy and interest are directed mainly to the world of actions, objects and persons. | or | I. The introverted attitude in which energy and interest are directed mainly to the world of concepts and ideas. |
| S. Sensing perception concerned with observing what is real, immediate and practical in experience. | or | N. Intuitive perception interested in seeing possibilities, meaning and relationships of events. |
| T. Thinking judgment which is a rational process of reaching conclusions objectively, logically and analytically. | or | F. Feeling judgment which is a rational process of weighing values to decide the importance of issues to oneself and others. |
| J. The judging attitude in which the aim is to plan, organize and control one's environment. | or | P. The perceptive attitude in which the aim is to understand, experience and adapt to one's environment. |

Leadership: "The process of influencing the activities of an individual or group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation." (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 84).

Leadership Effectiveness: The extent to which a leader succeeds in motivating his/her subordinates to achieve organizational goals.

Leadership Adaptability and Effectiveness Description

(LEAD): A test instrument which enables the respondent to determine his/her pattern of leadership behavior (LEAD/SELF), or the pattern of leadership behavior exhibited by his/her subordinate (LEAD/OTHER).

Method: A systematic plan followed in presenting material for instruction.

Process: A series of actions or operations leading to an end or result.

Situational Leadership Theory (SLT): An analysis of leadership behavior which takes into account the need for varying styles of leadership aimed at varying situations in the leader-subordinate relationship. These styles are based on two modes of behavior, task orientation and relationship orientation which can yield four leadership styles:

Style 1, High Task/Low Relationship

Style 2, High Task/High Relationship

Style 3, Low Task, High Relationship

Style 4, Low Task, Low Relationship

Typology Assessment Indicator (TAI): A test instrument used to elicit the personality traits of someone as perceived by another.

Limitations

The results of this study will be limited by both populations and instrumentation in the following ways:

1. The focus of the researcher was limited to one school superintendent, five principals (including the researcher) and their subordinates who work in rural elementary school settings. The study should be replicated in other leadership/subordinate settings before the results can be generalized to other populations.
2. The study was concerned with developing an effective and efficient process for improving leadership effectiveness. The process grew out of a combining of test instruments based on Jung's theory of personality typology and Hersey and Blanchard's theory of situational leadership. Cross-validation studies between the instruments used in this research may be an area of future investigation.
3. While the LEAD instrument has received wide attention and use in assessing leadership behavior, more extensive reliability and

validity studies will be helpful in proving the LEAD's effectiveness as a significant indicator. .

4. The MBTI is not an exact outgrowth of Jung's work. Isabel Briggs Myers expanded Jung's theory to include the Judging-Perception (J-P) preferences as a way to determine an individual's dominant function. The result was the development of the MBTI. While her work is not directly based on Jung, her theory is not in conflict with the basic tenets of his work. Therefore, the researcher has chosen to accept the work of Briggs Myers without reservation.
5. David Keirsey developed the KTS on the principles of the MBTI. His abbreviated version of the test makes the KTS easier to administer and score. Given this modification, however, there is a loss of precision in interpreting KTS results, and the need may exist to use the MBTI if findings based on the KTS prove inconclusive.
6. The present study does not evaluate leaders' effectiveness prior to or after this study. Rather, it uses the

testimony of those who participated in the study and their reaction to the process as indicators of possible effectiveness in improving leadership.

The Significance of the Study

This study attempts to develop an effective and efficient process by which leaders may examine their attitudes and leadership behavior for the purpose of improving effectiveness. It brings together test instruments which are used in a unique combination. It enables leaders to examine their personality types and styles of leadership both separately and in relation to one another, using self data as well as subordinate data. With this information, leaders may identify areas of weakness, capitalize on strengths, utilize the talents of others within an organization, and adapt their behavior to meet the situational demands they will surely confront in their leadership roles.

The findings of this study may be applicable to a broader setting. The process of identifying attitudes and leadership behavior can be applied because this study provides a framework by which leaders can learn more about their personalities and preferences for certain kinds of leadership behavior. As more information

emerges, it will likely provide a situation whereby leaders can learn from self-analysis and the perceptions of their subordinates. Discrepancies in perceptions may well be a catalyst for change in the behavior of leaders.

This study should be significant in the field of leadership theory. Substantial research has revealed how inextricably attitudes are related to behavior. Any considerable and lasting change in behavior is predicated upon changes in attitude. Situational Leadership Theory postulates that leaders adapt their behavior to accommodate changing or emerging situations within an organizational framework. However, relatively little consideration has been given to the need for changes in attitude or to the dynamics of personality which are affected in the process of change, especially when equilibrium has been upset in the leader-subordinate relationship. Through the dynamics of self-disclosure and feedback, leaders may open communication between themselves and others, modify their behavior as necessary, and possibly improve their overall effectiveness.

In summary, then, this study brings together two theories, Jungian Typology and Situational Leadership Theory, for the purpose of developing an effective and efficient process to improve leadership effectiveness.

Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter I: Introduction. This chapter includes a statement of the problem, a definition of terms, the purpose of the study, its methodology and its limitations. A synopsis of the literature already available on the relationship between attitude and behavior is presented, as well as a recapitulation of the major theories used in developing a rationale for the formulation of an effective and efficient process for improving leadership effectiveness. A review of the literature on the theory of communication is given to explain how the process shown here promotes self-disclosure, feedback and impetus for behavioral change.

Chapter II: Review of the Literature. This chapter reviews three major theories as they relate to this study. These are: selected theories of personality, leadership theory, and the theory of the Johari Window. The review of personality theory will culminate in an explanation of Jung's type theory.

In examining leadership theory, the emphasis is on Situational Leadership Theory (SLT). The chapter concludes with an explanation of how the theories form the foundation for the process developed in the following chapters.

Chapter III: Methodology. This chapter explains the method to be used in the design. It includes a review of test instruments, a description of the self-analysis completed by the researcher, the results of the findings, and the implications for using the process with other leaders. The self-analysis component explains in detail the use of Jungian Typology and SLT as the process for self-disclosure and feedback and formulates the basis for the design to be employed in Chapter IV.

Chapter IV: Case Presentations. Five case studies are presented in this chapter. The purpose of each case study is to test the method in terms of its overall effectiveness and efficiency. The chapter includes demographic information, a review and critique of the process, its findings, and the implications for each of the participants in terms of leadership effectiveness.

Chapter V: Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations. The final chapter reports the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study. The purpose of this chapter will be to share the findings of an interview protocol completed by the study participants, to examine the implications of that protocol, and to offer recommendations for future research.

C H A P T E R I I

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review selected theories of personality, the theory of leadership, and the theory of the Johari Window. The chapter is divided into four sections: first, a review of the relationships between attitude and behavior; second, an examination of selected personality theories including several test inventories; third, a study of Situational Leadership Theory; and fourth, a review of the Johari Window concept in terms of how leaders may expand their ability to communicate with their subordinates. The chapter concludes with a summary and explanation of how these theories can serve as the basis for developing an effective and efficient design for leaders which can create the feedback necessary for their role as leaders.

Attitudes and Behavior

As part of their personalities, individuals possess sets of attitudes and behaviors. It is an accepted maxim that attitude affects behavior and extensive research supports such a belief (Steinfatt and Infante, 1976). Triandis (1971) has discovered that attitudes can be

learned and Swanson (1972) has established a visual paradigm to show how knowledge can affect one's attitudes, which in turn can shape one's subsequent behavior (see Figure 4).

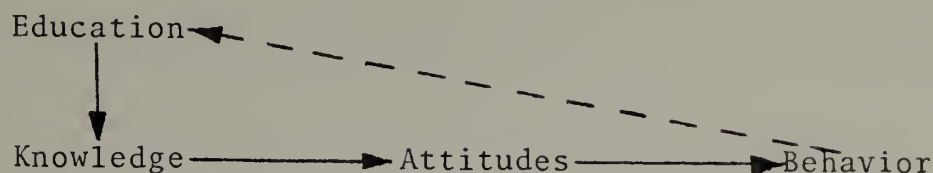


Figure 4. Knowledge and attitude effects upon behavior (Swanson, 1972, p. 363).

Fazio and Zanna (1978) later found that attitudes too may predict behavior. Studying 141 undergraduate students at Princeton University, they concluded that "direct experience produces a well-defined and certain attitude [which can] enhance that attitude's capacity to predict later behavior" (p. 405).

The preceding studies emphasize the relationship between attitudes and behavior, which are themselves the components of the human personality. Figure 5 illustrates this interconnection.

An analysis of leadership behavior is central to the design of the present study, which has as its purpose the creation of a method to help leaders improve their effectiveness. This process may help leaders understand

that there may be a need to change or modify their behavior if they are to become more effective managers.

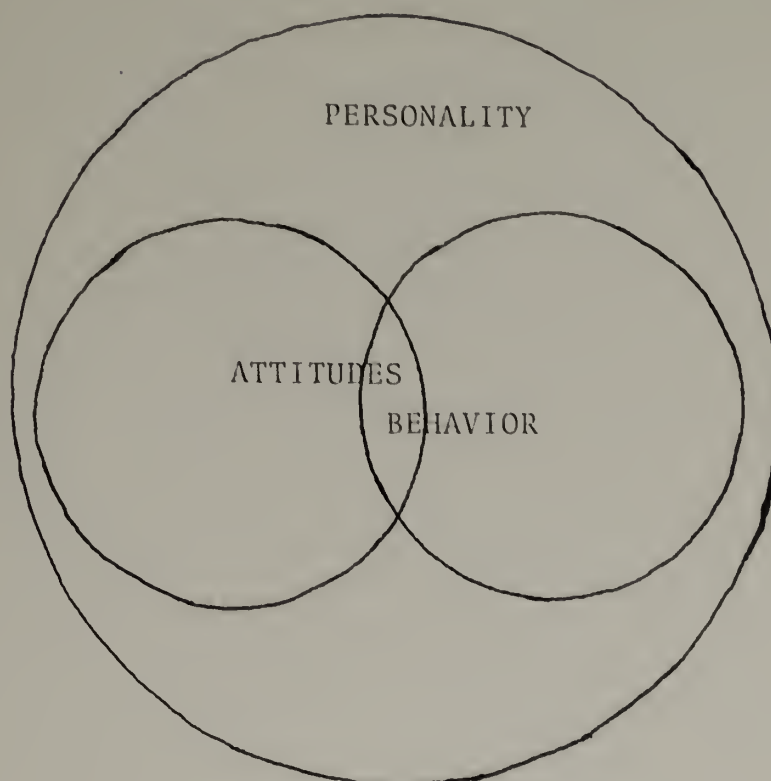


Figure 5. Attitudes and behaviors as they relate to personality.

It is assumed that if leaders develop a strong knowledge of their attitudes, they may then be able to understand their behavior in leadership situations better. Through a process of feedback and disclosure with subordinates, the stimulus for this change in behavior may be created. It is important to remember, however, that if a

perceived change is to occur and is to have any lasting impact, leaders will first have to experience a change in their attitudes.

Because attitude and behavior are both integral to an individual's personality, an examination of selected personality theories is outlined here as a general theoretical framework before we consider how attitude and behavior are related to the role of leadership.

Selected Personality Theories

Attitudes, judgments, perceptions and behaviors are all part of the network of characteristics which fall into the category of personality theory. Psychologists have developed many complex theories dealing with the growth and development of personality to help explain human behavior. The oldest of the personality theories for which there is written account is Temperament Theory, a theory that has had the greatest influence over the centuries (Allport, 1964). Allport (1961, p. 34) defines temperament as:

The characteristic phenomena of an individual's emotional nature, including his susceptibility to emotional stimulation, his customary strength and speed of response, the quality of his prevailing mood, and all peculiarities of fluctuation and intensity in mood, these phenomena being regarded as dependent upon constitutional make-up, and therefore largely hereditary in origin.

Allport's definition does not imply that temperament remains unchanged throughout life. Like other aspects of physical and intellectual growth, temperament too may change, but such changes are not unlimited. This theory serves, then, as a useful beginning point.

Temperament theory has been traced back to the ancient Greek belief ascribed to Empedocles in the fifth century B.C. which held that all of nature is composed of four elements: air, earth, fire and water. Around 400 B.C. Hippocrates claimed that this formula for nature must logically be reflected in the constitution of humans, who were part of nature. He concluded, therefore, that these same four elements were present in the human body in the form of four "humors" (cf. hormones). If one humor predominated over another in the body, one would expect to find a corresponding predominance of a particular temperament. This precept was expanded by the Roman physician Galen six centuries later. Galen saw the humors as the source, not only of human temperament, but also of disease as well. An excess of phlegm might, for example, cause apathy; too much yellow bile might cause fever.

Allport (1964, p. 37) offers a concise summary of the thinking at that time:

Table 1. A summary of early temperament theory.

| Cosmic Elements | Their Properties | Corresponding Humors | Corresponding Temperaments |
|---------------------------|------------------|--|----------------------------|
| Empedocles, Cir. 450 B.C. | | Hippocrates, Cir. 400 B.C. Galen, Cir. A.D. 150 | |
| Air | Warm and Moist | Blood | Sanguine |
| Earth | Cold and Dry | Black Bile | Melancholic |
| Fire | Warm and Dry | Yellow Bile | Choleric |
| Water | Cold and Moist | Phlegm | Phlegmatic |

Whether by chance or experimentation, the ancient theorists established relationships between body chemistry and emotions. Current medical research tends to support the theory that temperament, the emotional groundwork of personality, is conditioned, in large part, by body chemistry (Allport, 1964). This modern understanding has contributed to the longevity of temperament theory. Another more compelling reason, however, is that the four characteristic humors fit into almost any modern dimensional scheme for classifying temperament. Each of the corresponding temperaments has come to evoke an emotional response: sanguine means optimistic; melancholic, sad; choleric, irascible; and phlegmatic, indifferent.

Diamond (1957, p. 129) developed a model to indicate the range of emotional responses scaled to the paradigm of

the temperaments:

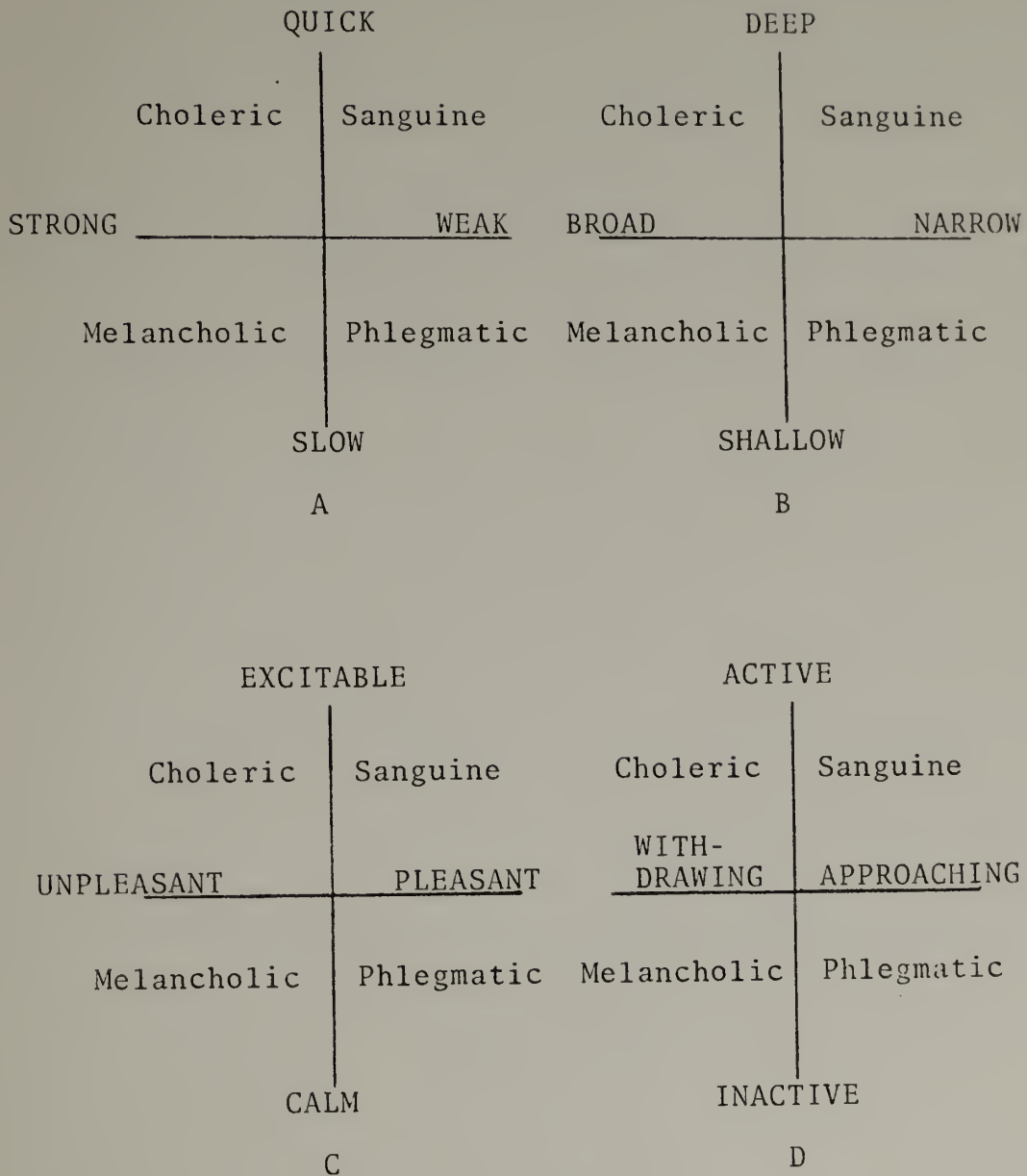


Figure 6. The four temperaments fitted to various dimensions of emotional response.

Temperament theory has endured over the centuries with roots linked to medicine, the fine arts, the world of literature, and the physiological and psychological development of humans. While its merits rest both in its recognition of body chemistry and its flexibility, fitting as it does several logical dimensions of analysis, it fails to cover individual differences. For instance, sanguine types can also be melancholic, and phlegmatics can be choleric. Hence, the facts of biochemical individuality make it difficult to accept this typology for any specific individual (Allport, 1964).

Since the beginning of the twentieth century, emerging theories of personality development have evolved as an outgrowth of temperament theory. The field of constitutional psychology initiated by Kretschmer (1925) is an example of this expansion. Sheldon (1940, p. 2) offers this definition of constitution:

It refers to those aspects of the individual which are relatively more fixed and unchanging -- morphology, physiology, endocrine function, etc. -- and may be contrasted with those aspects which are relatively more labile and susceptible to modification by environmental pressures, i.e., habits, social attitudes, education, etc.

Kretschmer began by trying to work out the relationship between personality factors in mental illness and physiological structure and developed his theory of personality. His theories were criticized, however, because

he had no accurate way of measuring physique and because he overlooked the factor of age in his classifications. Sheldon (1940) and his associates refined Kretschmer's work by developing a highly sophisticated system of classifying physiological structure and then correlating it to personality trends. While later theorists have attempted to diminish Sheldon's findings on the grounds that he minimized the capability of individuals to modify their behavior; nonetheless, because of the rigor of his research and the practical impact of his theories, Sheldon's pioneering work is assured a place in posterity. Whatever its limitations may be, it has led to findings which are still being felt (Hall, Lindzey, 1978).

In an effort to group major theorists according to their specific interests within the overall field of personality theory, Taft (1960) came up with the idea of cluster analysis. One of the five main clusters which he developed is called Constitutional Personality Structure. Those theorists whose work, in part, reflects aspects of constitutional psychology include Allport, Cattell, Eysenck, Sheldon, and of course, Freud and Jung. For the remainder of this section, it is Jung's theory of personality types which we will examine, along with the implications of that theory and the development of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.

Jung's theory of personality types postulates that an individual possesses two opposing attitudes toward life, extraversion and introversion, and four basic psychological processes: sensation, intuition, thinking, and feeling (Jung, 1921). The basic processes are divided into two mental processes and two judgmental processes. Sensation and intuition are opposing ways by which an individual perceives the world; just as thinking and feeling are opposing ways by which an individual judges the world.

The extravert in Jung's system, moves toward the external, outer world; whereas the introvert moves rather towards an inner, subjective world (Jung, 1921).

Jung determined that sensation and intuition are two opposing kinds of perceptions. Sensation is the function or process by which an individual becomes aware of reality directly through one or more of the five senses. The process of intuition is an indirect perception which comes to an individual by way of the unconscious, that is, a person will seem to "sense" or "hunch" an awareness.

Thinking and feeling are the two opposing kinds of judging what one has perceived. Thinking is a logical process directed at an impersonal conclusion. Feeling is a process involving subjective values and personal consideration toward what one has perceived. With respect to

the four functions, Jung (1931, pp. 540-1) concluded that they produced

. . . a kind of totality. Sensation establishes what is present, thinking enables us to recognize its meaning, feeling tells us its value, and intuition points to possibilities as to when it came and whether it is going in a given situation. In this way we can orient ourselves with respect to the immediate world as completely as when we locate a place geographically by latitude and longitude.

Taking the two processes of perception and judgment together, an individual will tend to develop one function over the others. If the dominant process is judgment (either thinking or feeling) then the secondary or auxiliary process will be perception (sensation or intuition). Between the two functions of the dominant judging process, one will emerge as stronger. Likewise, one function will emerge as stronger in the auxiliary perceiving process. The third developed function will be the opposite of the auxiliary process. Finally, the fourth or inferior function will be the opposite of the dominant process. Typically, the inferior function is least developed and unconscious.

In normal personality growth, balance is achieved by the development of an effective secondary process. If the dominant process in an individual is perception, the auxiliary process will be judging. Thus, the functions of the auxiliary process, thinking and feeling, will

assist the individual in supplying him/her with material for his/her perceptions. If the dominant process is judgmental, the auxiliary process will be perceptive so that the functions of this auxiliary process, sensation and intuition, will give continuity of purpose.

Table 2. An example of personality type function when the judgment mode is dominant.

| TYPE FUNCTIONS | |
|--|--------------------------|
| PERCEIVING MODE | JUDGING MODE |
| Intuition (N) Auxiliary | Thinking (T) Dominant |
| Sensing (S) Auxiliary Opposite (Recessive) | Feeling (F) Inferior |

The auxiliary process also provides balance between the basic attitudes of extraversion and introversion. The dominant process gets deeply absorbed in whichever of the two worlds the individual prefers. Thus, the dominant process is difficult to separate from the individual's interests. For example, the dominant process of an extravert is concerned with the outer world of people and things. If that person is to have a developed inner life, the auxiliary process will have to be developed. Other-

wise, that person will become extremely extraverted and appear superficial to those with better balanced processes. Conversely, the dominant process of an introvert is directed towards the inner world of concepts and ideas, and the auxiliary process attempts to order his/her outer life. Without a functioning auxiliary process, the introvert's outer life will appear awkward, tentative and uncomfortable.

An introvert is difficult to understand because his/her dominant process is hard to see. Since the dominant process of introversion is directed toward the inner world, the auxiliary process is what the outer world observes. On the other hand, an extravert's dominant process is easier to see because it is directed toward the outer world. As a result, unless others really get to know and understand the introvert, they will have no sense of the introvert's real strengths. Others will be able to know and understand the extravert easier because of the nature of his/her dominant process.

An observer may be confused by the introvert's behavior. When his/her dominant process is perception (sensing or intuition), the introvert appears to be judgmental. Inner feelings are not observable until a situation arises which is of import to the introvert's inner world. When this happens, the introvert's reaction may

actually appear startling to outsiders. For example, if the dominant process is judgmental (thinking or feeling), then the introvert appears to be perceptive, which is actually his or her auxiliary process.

Preference between extraversion (E) and introversion (I).

Jung (1926) postulated that there are two basic attitudes or orientations to life: extraversion (E) or introversion (I). One of these attitudes is to be preferred. For the extravert, one's interests are found in the outer world of people and things. For the introvert, one's interests are mainly in the inner world of concepts and ideas. The extravert will tend to direct both perception and judgment upon his/her outside environment, while the introvert prefers to direct both attitudes upon ideas. No one is limited exclusively to either the inner or the outside world. While a well-developed extravert can work effectively with ideas, he/she works best in the world of actions. Similarly, a well-developed introvert can work effectively in the outer world, but his/her best work will be in the inner world of ideas using the processes of reflection or contemplation. However, the preferred attitude remains as such, in the way most people are either left or right handed. This results in the development of one attitude over the other.

Jung hypothesized that the E-I preference is independent of the four functions, sensation (S), intuition (N), thinking (T), and feeling (F), in spite of the fact that these attitudes are used in combination with the judging and perceiving functions. This concept is important in order to prevent confusion or stereotyping. For example, since an E type tends to react to the outer world, one might conclude that he/she also possesses a dominant F function. However, the extravert, in this case, may have a dominant T function to go along with his/her E attitude. Similarly, an I type has a natural tendency to be more reflective and contemplative. This preference may lead one to believe that the introvert may also possess a dominant T function, but the introvert's dominant function may well be F.

All the combinations of perception and judgment may occur with extraverts and introverts. Table 3 illustrates the possible combinations.

The perception and judgment functions. Jung (1926) theorized that the psychological processes used to acquire knowledge and to order the world rest with the ways an individual perceives and judges. Perception is the process of becoming aware of the world, including people, objects, events, or ideas. The judgmental process is the making of determinations about what has been perceived. Together,

Table 3. Type combinations and application.

| TYPE | | APPLICATION |
|------|--|--|
| ENF | Extraversion with Intuition and Feeling | Sociable, responsive, empathetic, and enthusiastic |
| INF | Introversion with Intuition and Feeling | Friendly, quietly forceful, and conscientious |
| EST | Extraversion with Sensing and Thinking | Matter of fact, practical, can be a bit insensitive to others |
| IST | Introversion with Sensing and Thinking | Quiet, organized, practical and task-oriented |
| ESF | Extraversion with Sensing and Feeling | At ease with the environment, reliance on experience, and has a sympathetic awareness of people |
| ISF | Introversion with Sensing and Feeling | Possesses depth and concentration, attends to detail, and has a capacity for devotion and sympathy |
| ENT | Extraversion with Intuition and Thinking | Aware of possibilities, is decisive, and demands efficiency |
| INT | Introversion with Intuition and Thinking | Original, insightful, analytical, and can offer impersonal, critical opinions |

perception and judgment comprise a considerable part of an individual's mental activity. Hence, they dictate an individual's outer behavior, perception determining what is seen in a situation and judgment determining what will be done in regard to what is perceived.

Jung believed that people possess two distinct and sharply contrasting ways of perceiving: by sensation and by intuition. In sensing, one acquires knowledge through the five senses: seeing, smelling, touching, tasting, and hearing. Intuition describes the function by which indirect perceptions come through the unconscious to the conscious level. While one may use both functions, there is a tendency for a given individual to develop one of these functions more than the other. With those who prefer sensing, considerable energy is expended listening for as much detail concerning an issue as possible. Those who prefer intuition are more interested in possibilities rather than the actualities of a situation. A similar distinction occurs in the judgmental process. The thinking function uses a logical approach to arrive at an impersonal or "objective" conclusion. The feeling function reflects a process of appreciation, liking, or valuing what is perceived.

The preference for either sensation or intuition is independent of the preference for either thinking or

judgment. Since the perceiving and judging acts are part of a single process, though independent, four combinations logically result: Sensing plus Thinking; Sensing plus Feeling; Intuition plus Thinking; and Intuition plus Feeling.

It was Jung's contention that individuals with like combinations of preferences will be more compatible since their interests and values will be similar. Conversely, those with opposite combinations of preferences will be less compatible since their interests and values will be dissimilar. Yet, because of the importance of the opposite function's development, opposite types are both attracted to and threatened by each other.

Briggs Myers (1976) offers a succinct review of the effects of the four combinations of perception and judgment in Table 4.

Preference between judgment and perception. Jung's theory of personality types established choices between the basic attitudes of extraversion and introversion, the two perceptual processes of sensation and intuition, and a third and final choice between the two judgmental processes of thinking and feeling. He believed that there is a developmental sequence to ordering the four processes whereby one will be dominant, one auxiliary, one third or recessive and one fourth or inferior. In an attempt to

Table 4. Effects of the combinations of perceptions and judgments.

| | ST | SF | NF | NT |
|---|---|--|--|--|
| <u>People who prefer:</u> | SENSING + THINKING | SENSING + FEELING | INTUITION + FEELING | INTUITION + THINKING |
| <u>focus their attention on:</u> | Facts | Facts | Possibilities | Possibilities |
| <u>and handle these with:</u> | Impersonal analysis | Personal warmth | Personal warmth | Impersonal analysis |
| <u>Thus they tend to become:</u> | Practical and matter-of-fact | Sympathetic and friendly | Enthusiastic & insightful | Logical and ingenious |
| <u>and find scope for their abilities in:</u> | Technical skills with facts and objects | Practical help and services for people | Understanding & communicating with people | Theoretical and technical developments |
| <u>for example:</u> | Applied science Business Production Construction Etc. | Patient care Community service Sales Teaching Etc. | Behavioral science Research Literature & art Teaching Etc. | Physical science Research Management Forecasts & analysis Etc. |

determine this order, Isabel Briggs Myers (1962) elaborated upon the theory to include a fourth attitudinal choice between the perception process (either sensation or intuition) or the judgmental process (either thinking or feeling) as a way of life or a method of dealing with the world. While both functions must be used, they cannot be used at the same time. Thus, an individual will alternately use either function. One, however, will be dominant and the other will be the auxiliary or secondary function.

There is a basic difference between the two attitudes. When one's preferred attitude is perceptive,

judgment is disregarded temporarily. This individual has a tendency to postpone a decision because all pertinent facts may not be in. Continually open to new ideas, he or she is willing to change a decision quickly given new insights. Typically, such persons are viewed as procrastinators. On the other hand, if a person's preferred attitude is judgmental, then it is perception which will be disregarded temporarily. In this instance, an individual tends to make decisions with limited facts. New or supplementing information is considered irrelevant and unnecessary. Once a decision is made there is no wavering. People who possess the judgmental attitude are seen as decisive and ordered.

The judgment-perception preference is directed outward toward the world. In the extravert, the attitude toward the outer world will be established by the dominant process. Because the introvert's dominant process is directed inward, his/her auxiliary process is the one which the outer world observes. The consequence for the introvert is that casual observers see and react to his/her secondary or lesser developed process. Therefore, considerable potential exists for the introvert to be misunderstood because his/her dominant process will not be readily perceived.

Through analysis of an individual's preferred attitudes, judgments and perceptions, his/her dominant and auxiliary processes can be determined. The following examples will illustrate this point. If an extravert with sensing and feeling processes responds to a given situation with a judging attitude (ESFJ), the dominant process will be the judgmental function of feeling (F), and the auxiliary function will be sensing (S). If an introvert with sensing and feeling processes responds to a given situation with a judging attitude (ISFJ), the judgmental function of feeling (F) will be auxiliary and the dominant process will be the perceptive function, in this case, sensing (S). If an extravert with intuition and thinking processes responds with the perceptive attitude (ENTP), the dominant process is his/her perceiving function of intuition (N) and the auxiliary function is thinking (T). In the case of an introvert with intuition and thinking processes with a perceptive attitude (INTP), the auxiliary process will be intuition (N) and the dominant process will be thinking (T).

For the extravert, the J-P preference determines the dominant process (N-S or T-F). For the introvert, the J-P preference determines the auxiliary process (N-S or T-F). When Briggs Myers added the judgment or perception preference, the determination of an individual's type

preference was expanded from Jung's original three preferences to four. A summary of the preferences appears in Table 5.

Table 5. Preference and how it affects choice.
(Briggs Myers, 1962, p. 63)

| Preference Between | | Affects an Individual's Choice As To |
|--------------------|------------------------------|--|
| E-I | Extraversion or Introversion | Whether to direct perception and judgment upon the environment or the world of ideas |
| S-N | Sensing or Intuition | Which of these two kinds of perception to rely on |
| T-F | Thinking or Feeling | Which of these two kinds of judgment to rely on |
| J-P | Judgment or Perception | Whether to use judging or perceptive attitude for dealing with the environment |

In combination, the four preferences yield sixteen personality types listed as follows:

| | | | |
|------|------|------|------|
| ISTJ | ISFJ | INFJ | INTJ |
| ISTP | ISFP | INFP | INTP |
| ESTP | ESFP | ENFP | ENTP |
| ESTJ | ESFJ | ENFJ | ENTJ |

(see Appendix A for a description of each of the types).

Each of the sixteen types has a unique description rooted in Jungian Typology theory. That theory concludes that people create their "type" by determining their preferred use of perception and judgment. Individuals who choose the same preferences have in common whatever qualities result from the choice of these preferences. The habits of mind, values, interests, and traits which result tend to produce a recognizable kind of person. Therefore, one can, in part, describe an individual on the basis of his/her type preference, such as ENFP.

Because any theory of personality development is not exact, one can reasonably expect an individual who possesses an ENFP type preference to be different from others with a similar preference. Consequently, in interacting with an ENFP, it is important to respect not only that individual's ability to develop along lines of his/her own choice, but also the concrete ways in which he/she both is and prefers to be different from others.

What Briggs Myers developed in the MBTI was an enduring and comprehensive theory of temperament. Specifically, the instrument was developed to make possible the implementation of Jung's theory of type. Prior to the publication of the MBTI in 1962, Isabel Briggs Myers and Katherine C. Briggs spent twenty years collecting data which showed understandable and predictable differences

in academic aptitude and achievement in students ranging in scope from junior high school through medical school. These findings were confirmed by the MBTI's publisher, Educational Testing Service (McCaulley, 1974). In addition, research supporting the use of the MBTI has been reaffirmed by researchers at Auburn University, the University of Florida, and elsewhere.

The MBTI is structured as a 166-item forced response test. Its purpose is to establish the type differences of people which result from both their preferences for perception and judgment and their attitudinal choices (McCaulley, 1977). The test generates sixteen possible personality types on the basis of identifying each of the following four bi-polar preferences: E-I, S-N, T-F, and J-P. In combination these preferences yield the personality types discussed earlier.

By taking the MBTI, one is able to identify those attitudes, perceptions, and judgments which tend to be predominant and those which tend to be less developed. Hence, information obtained from the MBTI allows an individual the opportunity to analyze those personal qualities which are likely to be expressed in exhibited behavior.

A modified version of the MBTI was developed by David Keirsey (1978). The Keirsey Temperament Sorter (KTS) is

designed after the MBTI with the difference that there are seventy items so that the test can be administered in less time. For the purpose of this study, both the MBTI and the KTS were used to enable a leader to examine his/her attitudes in relation to his/her behavior. More extensive review of the tests' validity and reliability will follow in subsequent chapters.

Selected Situational Leadership Theories

In determining effective leadership patterns, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957) examined the forces a leader should consider in deciding how to lead. Three of particular importance to the present study are:

- Forces in the leaders.
- Forces in the subordinates.
- Forces in the situation.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt acknowledge that a leader's behavior in any given situation will be significantly influenced by multiple forces operating within an individual's personality. A process for examining these personality factors has been established through the works of Jung and Briggs Myers.

The forces in subordinates can be examined from the point of view of their maturity level, that is, their ability to assume responsibility, their own need for

independence, and their personal qualities. In cases where high levels of maturity and past successes are evident, subordinates may demonstrate the ability to assume greater responsibility and will demand less direction and structure from their leader.

The final considerations determining leadership patterns are concerned with the forces present in a given situation. Considerations for the leader to address are: the nature of the organization, the effectiveness of the group, the nature of those problems which emerge, and the constraints of time.

In Chapter I, a brief overview of leadership theory was presented. But among the more current and acceptable theories are those which consider situational variables. Of the four situational theories developed to date, Fiedler's Contingency Theory (1967) and Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory are the most appropriate to the present study and will be reviewed here.

Contingency theory. In developing his Leadership Contingency Model, Fiedler (1967) asserts that three situational variables determine leader effectiveness: a leader's personal relations with his/her group members (leader-member relations), the structure of the task

itself, and the power inherent in the leadership position. Fiedler's model considers eight possible combinations utilizing each of these situational variables. In the optimum situation for a leader to influence his/her group, there are good leader-member relations, a high task structure, and a high position of power. On the other end of the scale, the most ineffective situation will consist of poor leader-member relations, low or unstructured task variables, and low position power. Having thus classified the group situation, Fiedler sought to determine the most effective leadership style. He concluded that:

- A task-oriented leader tends to function best in group situations which are either very favorable or very unfavorable to him/her.
- A relation-oriented leader tends to function best in group situations that are intermediate or moderate in favorableness.

Figure 7 illustrates the range of leadership style in relation to the situational variables.

Fiedler's theory suggests that there are two basic behavioral styles for leaders, the task-oriented and the relationship-oriented leaders, both of which appear on a single continuum. Applied to leadership situations, Fiedler argues that leadership styles are subject to only limited modifications and that "it would seem more

promising to teach the individual to recognize the conditions under which he can perform best and then to modify the situation to suit his leadership style (1967, p. 255).

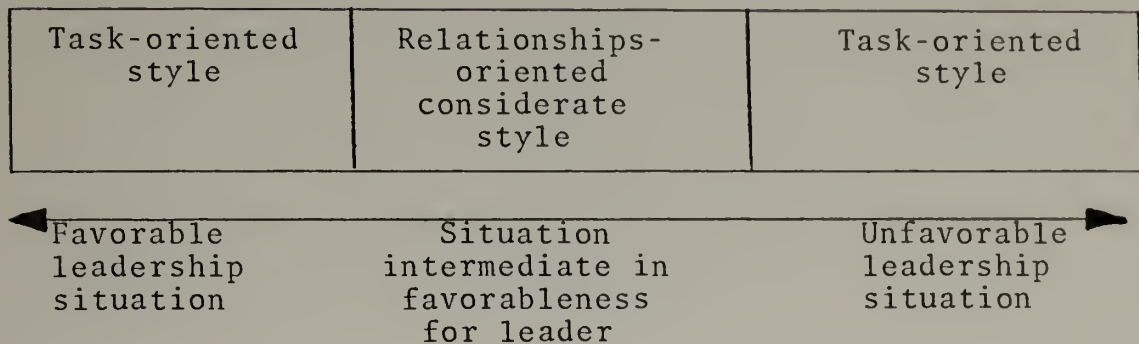


Figure 7. Leadership styles appropriate for various group settings (Fiedler, 1967, p. 14).

Changing the leader-subordinate relationship means that the leader will have to diagnose both his/her leadership style and the situational variables accurately. If the situation warrants, a leader may have to move to another and more compatible situation rather than initiate personal changes which, in Fiedler's argument, may be too difficult to achieve.

Not unexpectedly, Hersey and Blanchard (1977) questioned aspects of this contingency theory. They maintain that the dimensions of task-orientation and relationship-orientation are not uni-dimensional, but may exist in combinations ranging from low to high. Secondly, they

feel that Fiedler has over-emphasized the inability of a leader to increase his/her style range and adaptability. As supporting evidence, there is the study of Filley, House, and Kerr (1976, p. 246), which holds that Fiedler's "theory is in actuality an empirical generalization and not an explanation of relationships between leader behavior, situational factors, and group factors."

Situational leadership theory (SLT). Initially developed as Life Cycle Theory (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969), SLT examines leadership styles in a two-dimensional structure: task behavior and relationship behavior. These two dimensions are ranged from low to high and, when used in combination, will yield four basic styles of leader behavior. Both behaviors are then placed on a two dimensional grid, task behavior being located on a vertical axis, relationship on a horizontal axis. Each behavior in combination is depicted in Figure 8.

A third dimension, "effectiveness" (Reddin, 1967), was added to SLT in order to illustrate that a variety of styles may be effective or ineffective depending on a given situation. Hersey and Blanchard have used the effectiveness dimension to integrate the concept of leadership styles in combination with the situational demands of a specific environment. They note that leader

effectiveness may not be directly related to the leader's actual behavior, but to the appropriateness of his/her behavior within the environment in which it is used. In essence, the third dimension is the environment because it is the interaction between one's basic style and the environment which will actually determine a leader's effectiveness and ineffectiveness. Hersey and Blanchard call this third dimension "effectiveness" because most organizations are inclined to use performance criteria to measure a leader's success or failure.

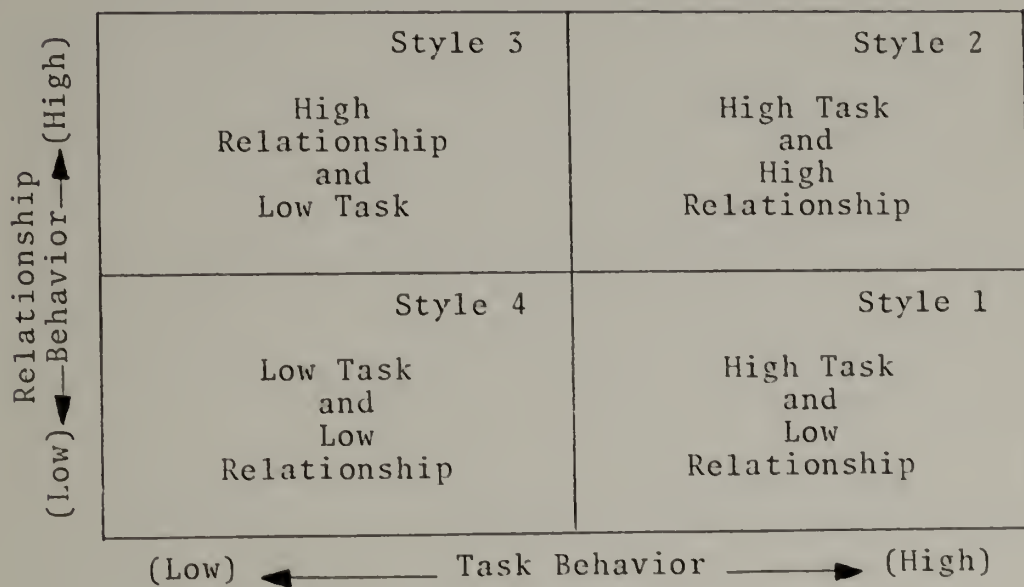


Figure 8. Four styles of leadership according to SLT (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 234).

The application of effectiveness in SLT is perceived as a continuum. The range varies from the extremely effective to the extremely ineffective with multiple variations of what might be considered effective based upon the combinations of task and relationship behavior. This concept is illustrated in the diagram of the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model presented in Figure 9.

From this model, one can see that a leader's perceived style may be regarded as effective or ineffective based upon the perceptions of his/her subordinates in relation to the environment in which that leadership is exercised. Table 6 describes one of the ways in which each style may be seen as either effective or ineffective.

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) in assessing the impact of subordinates' maturity level on leadership behavior, found that as the level of maturity of subordinates rises, so does the level of achievement. As maturity level rises, the leader should decrease his or her task behavior and increase relationship behavior. As task maturity continues to rise among subordinates, a leader should reduce both task and relationship behavior. Conversely, if subordinates' maturity level sharply drops, a leader will have to increase task behavior and decrease relationship behavior.

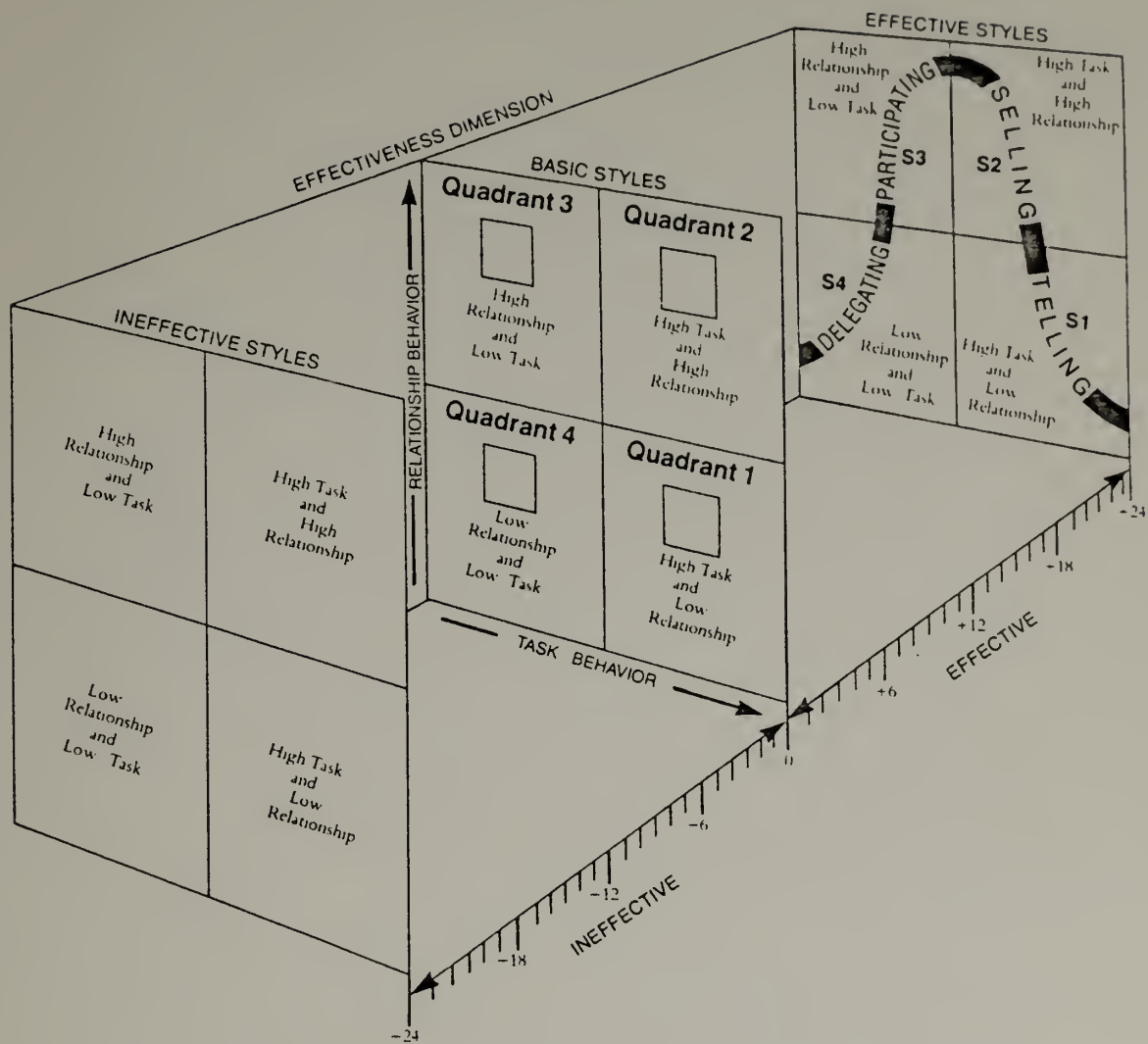


Figure 9. Tri-dimensional leader effectiveness model (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 106).

Table 6. How the basic leader behavior styles may be seen by others when they are effective or ineffective (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 107).

| Basic Styles | Effective | Ineffective |
|---------------------------------|---|--|
| High Task and Low Relationship | Seen as having well-defined methods for accomplishing goals that are helpful to the followers. | Seen as imposing methods on others; sometimes seen as unpleasant, and interested only in short-run output. |
| High Task and High Relationship | Seen as satisfying the needs of the group for setting goals and organizing work, but also providing high levels of socioemotional support. | Seen as initiating more structure than is needed by the group and often appears not to be genuine in interpersonal relationships. |
| High Relationship and Low Task | Seen as having implicit trust in people and as being primarily concerned with facilitating their goal accomplishment. | Seen as primarily interested in harmony; sometimes seen as unwilling to accomplish a task if it risks disrupting a relationship or losing "good person image." |
| Low Relationship and Low Task | Seen as appropriately delegating to subordinates decisions about how the work should be done and providing little socioemotional support where little is needed by the group. | Seen as providing little structure or socioemotional support when needed by members of the group. |

Essentially, relationship behavior refers to the socioemotional support a leader gives his or her subordinates. It does not mean that a leader is either "friendly" or impersonal. Subordinates with high levels of maturity will not need the leader to provide socioemotional inducements to maintain their level of maturity. In fact, they may see high relationship behavior as a lack of confidence in their ability to work independently of the leader. On the other hand, subordinates who are operating at a low level of maturity are in need of direction and low relationship behavior. Without high task behavior from the leader, the group may founder, thereby escalating the loss of productivity and thus raising their own anxiety level.

Thus, SLT focuses upon the effectiveness of leadership styles accorded to the task-relevant maturity of subordinates. Figure 10 illustrates how varying levels of maturity affect a leader's style.

SLT has received wide attention from leaders in many fields including education. Since it suggests how a leader should behave in a variety of situations, its theory is prescriptive. But it is also developmental in that the theory claims that, as subordinate task-maturity increases, a leader's style should change accordingly. While on the face of things the validity of SLT would

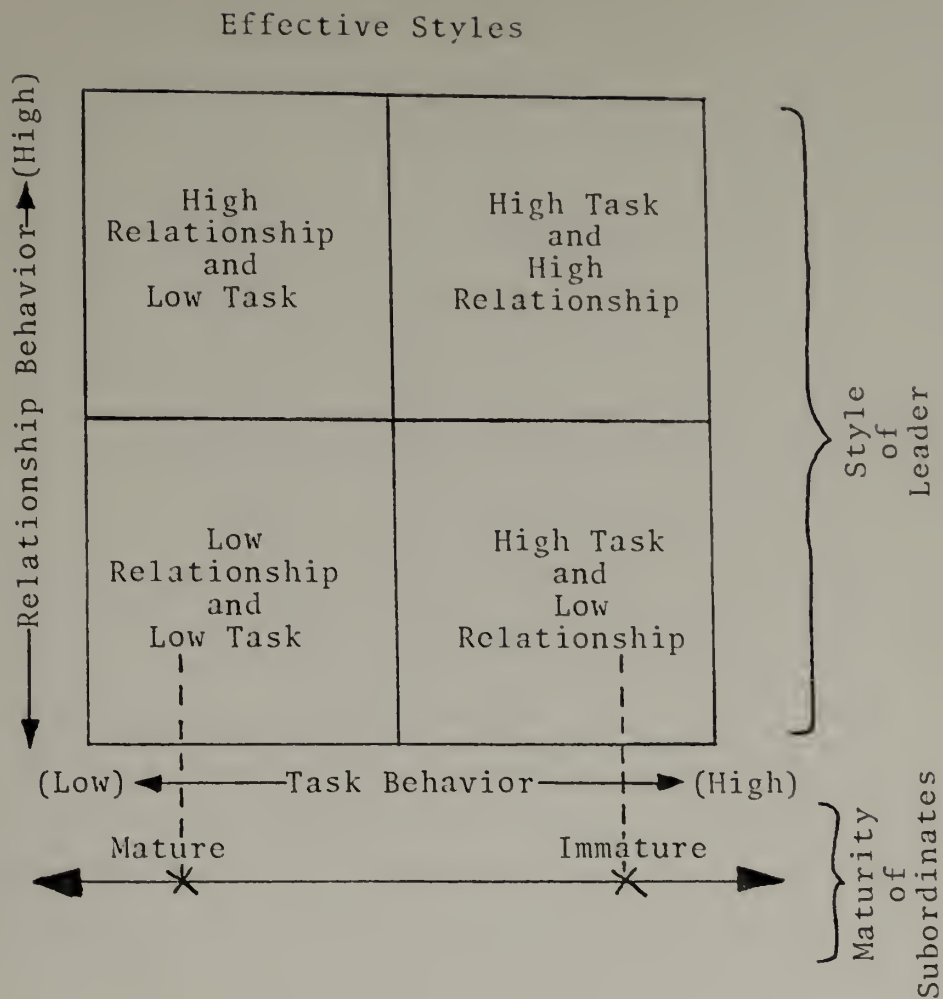


Figure 10. Determining an appropriate leadership style (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 165).

appear to be strong, its validity has not yet been established through research (Beck, 1978).

One final concern of the effectiveness of SLT for the present study is the problem of the ease with which a leader may change his/her behavior or style to meet

shifting situational needs within an organization. Likert (1961), Fiedler (1964, 1967) and others have argued that an individual's leadership style cannot change without considerable alteration of his/her personality structure, and Hersey and Blanchard (1977, p. 149) support this position.

Fielder's (and Likert's) point is well taken. It is indeed difficult to effect changes in the styles of managers overnight. It is not completely hopeless, but, at best, it is a slow and expensive process that requires creative planning and patience.

In spite of this precautionary tone, however, they steadfastly maintain that their work with managers in a variety of settings has indicated that leaders can, when motivated to do so, expand their adaptability.

The present researcher has determined that the differences between the positions of Fiedler and Likert and Hersey and Blanchard are essentially related to the degree of change in leader behavior or style called for by a situation. If the required change is a lasting one, a fundamental restructuring of one's basic attitudes, judgments or perceptions, then Fielder and Likert are supported in their more conservative position by Jung's theory of personality types, as reviewed earlier. However, if the changes are superficial and do not require major personality changes, then the SLT Model will enhance leader effectiveness.

The important issues for the leader are the ways in which he/she can diagnose effectively both his/her own personality traits and leadership style as they relate to the organization's current needs. If the situational demands of the organization are compatible with the individual's attitudes and leader behavior, then chances are good that he/she will prove effective as a leader in that situation. But if the organization's needs require the individual to undertake significant personality changes and leadership behavior, then the likelihood that he/she will be successful will be remote. In many ways, this condition explains the Peter Principle in which an employee tends to rise to his/her level of incompetence. It may be that the employee's personality traits and leadership style are not appropriate for a particular position of responsibility, or that a clear diagnosis of the situation in terms of the new leader was not made. With proper training and experience, however, it is possible for an individual moving up in the organization's hierarchical structure to avoid the phenomenon of the Peter Principle.

Earlier, the MBTI and KTS were presented as strategies for analyzing one's personality type. But there is another instrument which will allow a leader to examine his/her leadership behavior or style in connection with SLT. This is the Leadership Effectiveness and

Adaptability Description (LEAD), an inventory instrument developed at the Center for Leadership Studies at Ohio University by Hersey and Blanchard (1974). This test was designed to measure three components of leader behavior: style, style range, and style adaptability. It can be self-administered (LEAD/SELF), or it can be used by subordinates to assess their perceptions of the leader's style (LEAD/OTHER). Given twelve situations, the respondent must select from four alternative actions. Each of the options reflects one of the four combinations of task and relationship behavior. With the selection of an alternative action for each situation, the respondent thereby identifies his/her range of leadership styles.

A respondent's adaptability or effectiveness is determined by assigning a weight to each of the twelve options chosen. This weighting ranges from +2 to -2 and is based on SLT. The leader behavior with the highest probability of success based on the alternatives offered in the given situation is assigned a value of +2. The behavior with the lowest probability of success is weighted -2. Therefore, the maximum effectiveness score for the twelve situations will be +24, and the lowest ineffective score will be -24 (see Figure 9).

Of the data obtained from the LEAD, the least important score is total effectiveness. Hersey and Blanchard

(1977) found no correlation between the score which leaders received on the LEAD and their actual effectiveness as leaders in their respective positions. The most significant data, then, are in the areas of leadership style and style range scores. By examining these scores, a leader may analyze patterns for his/her high success probability as well as for low success probability. A leader can use this information to examine those situations in which he/she tends to be effective and/or ineffective, and thus improve his/her leader effectiveness.

The Johari Window

Jung's theory of personality types postulates that an individual's attitudes and modes of judging and perceiving will affect his/her preferences and behavior. SLT establishes an approach whereby a leader can identify his/her leadership behavior or style, the range of that style, and leader effectiveness or adaptability. The relationship between an individual's attitudes and leadership behavior is an important dynamic in leader effectiveness because a major part of a leader's personality may have a marked impact relative to the kinds of behavior perceived by others (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977).

Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham (1955) developed a model, the Johari Window, for soliciting and giving feedback

concerning the manner in which an individual's attitudes and behavior are disclosed and perceived by others. The purpose of the model, therefore, is to see ourselves as others see us. The theory of the window suggests that a positive relationship exists when what an individual discloses corresponds to how others perceive that individual.

In the framework of the Johari Window, an individual's behavior is graphed in four quadrants. Figure 11 reintroduces the Window as illustrated in Chapter I.

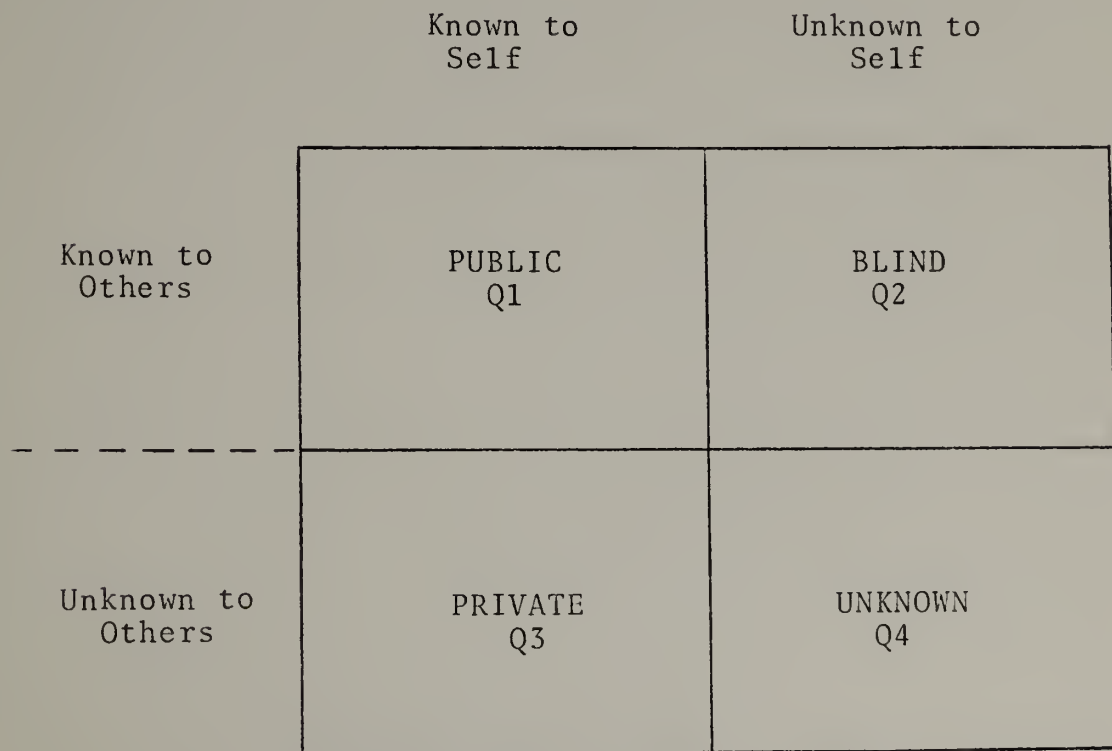


Figure 11. The Johari Window
(Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 238).

An analysis of the Window reveals that Q1 and Q3 represent information which is known to the self. Q2 and Q4 represent what is unknown to the self. The information in all quadrants is not static, however, and will change depending on the level of mutual trust and the exchange of feedback exhibited between the individual (in this case, the leader) and his/her subordinates.

Quadrant 1, the Public area, contains information evident to both others and the self. It is information thus shared freely. In other words, this area of a leader's behavior is evident to everyone. An increase in the size of this quadrant will be determined by the level of trust between the leader and his/her group and the subsequent willingness of the leader to share relevant information about himself or herself.

Quadrant 2, the Blind area, contains that knowledge about the leader's attitudes and behavior which is known to others but not to the self. Here a leader communicates information of both a verbal and non-verbal nature to the group without being aware of the impact that information is making on the group. Unless the leader gets feedback from the group, he or she may find that information either stated or implied is not consistent with the group's understanding of that information. Consequently, misunderstanding often arises.

Quadrant 3, the Private area, is characterized by information known only to the self and not shared with others. In this instance, the leader may be reluctant to provide the group with additional insights about his/her attitudes and behaviors, determining that the knowledge is not pertinent to the group. The leader may also fear the group's reaction to this information were it known, or he/she may withhold information in order to more easily manipulate the group.

Quadrant 4 is the Unknown area. This is the area in which attitudes and behavior are known neither to the self nor to others. In Freudian terms, this is the unconscious area of human personality. Often, the motivations for behavior may be so far below the surface of understanding that the self may never become aware of why he or she acts in a particular way. Such unconscious motivations may include past memories, latent potentialities, and unrecognized resources (Hanson, 1973). Through the process of disclosure and feedback, however, some of these motivations may become part of one's conscious. When they do, they can increase the size of the Public Quadrant (Q1).

For example, by disclosing pertinent information about oneself such as one's attitudes, preferences, or judgments, a leader decreases the private area of his or her Window and at the same time increases his or her

Public area. When that information is shared with others who then offer the leader feedback, the Blind area can also decrease. Figure 12 illustrates how the processes of disclosure work.

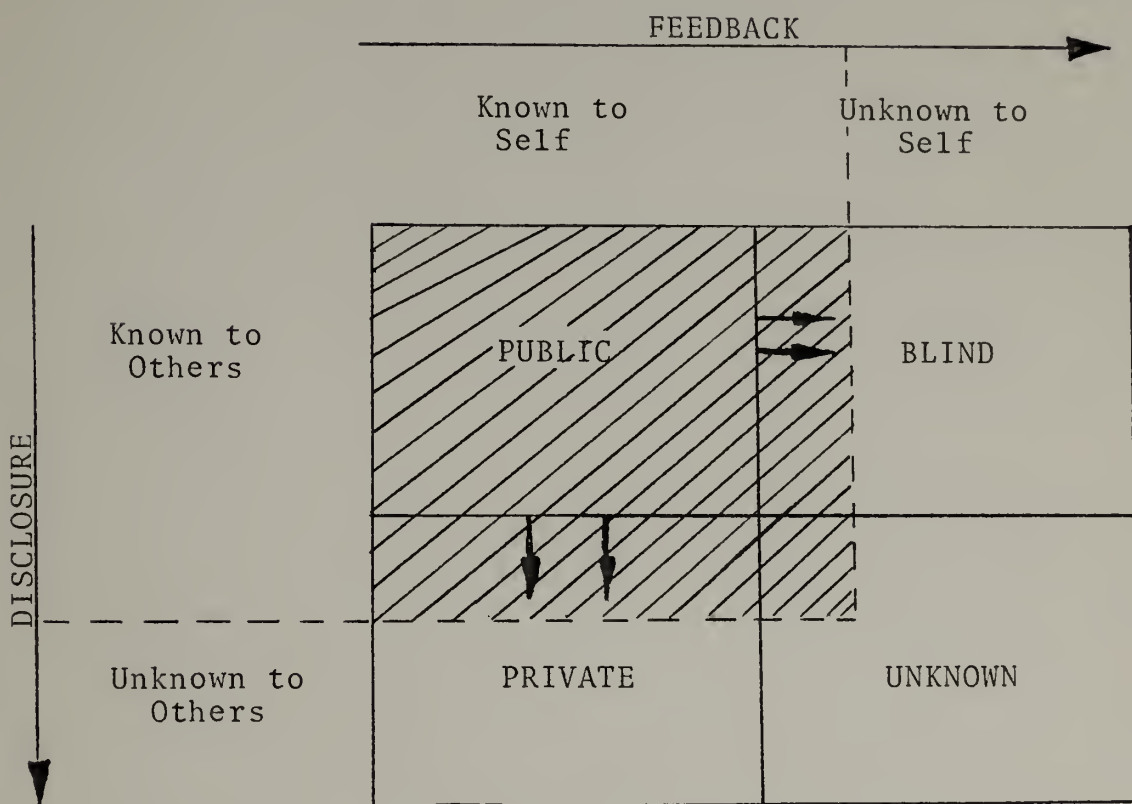


Figure 12. Effects of feedback and disclosure on the Johari Window (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 240).

A number of behaviorists maintain that the relationship between attitude and behavior precludes a leader's ability to adapt his or her leadership behavior to meet the situational demands of one's subordinates. These behaviorists argue that the leader should either change a situation to conform to his or her own leadership style or relinquish the position of leader in that setting.

Given these two opposing positions, the concept of leadership style adaptation may be viewed along a continuum which suggests that if major personality changes are required of the leader, then he or she may adopt Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Theory. At the other extreme, if the behavioral changes are more superficial in nature, then Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory deserves a leader's serious consideration.

The major issues with respect to leader effectiveness are the ability for a leader to accurately diagnose or analyze his or her attitudes and leader behavior, next to see how these qualities are perceived by subordinates, then to determine to what extent self-disclosure and feedback can occur. By using the theories of Jung in conjunction with Hersey and Blanchard, together with the test instruments described above which are based on these theories, a leader and his or her subordinates can make

the assessments described above. These findings may then be examined using the Johari Window and Force Field Analysis as compatible extensions of these theories (see Chapter I). Finally, the results of the total process may well help a leader improve his or her leader effectiveness.

The purpose of this study has been in fact to develop an effective and efficient process to help a leader improve his or her leadership effectiveness. Chapters III and IV will describe this process in detail and evaluate its effectiveness and efficiency as a means of improving leadership skills.

C H A P T E R I I I

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In the area of leadership training, Sergiovanni (1979) has observed that most leadership training programs oversimplify complex matters and emphasize style rather than substance. Essentially, he maintains that training programs must capture more fully the complexities of leadership effectiveness, thus inferring that underlying personality factors play an important role in determining the extent to which leaders can adjust their styles of leadership. Inherent in what Sergiovanni illustrates is the need to examine more carefully the myriad conditions which affect leadership and so in turn establish ways to improve the real diagnostic abilities of leaders. Chapters III and IV address this latter issue.

Chapter III includes a rationale for selecting the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, the Keirsey Temperament Sorter, the Typology Assessment Indicator, and the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Inventory. In addition, the researcher utilizes a process by which his personality traits and his leadership behavior could be analyzed using Jungian Typology and Situational Leadership Theory. The purpose of this process was to

identify possible areas in which he could improve his own leadership effectiveness. Written as an autobiographical account, the remaining parts of the chapter include the development of hypotheses which focused upon the relationship between the researcher's attitudes and leadership behavior, which were then placed against the perceived attitudes and behaviors as determined by his subordinates. Also included are a review of the statistical data and a summary of findings. For clarity and ease of style, the use of the first person pronoun is used where appropriate.

Instrumentation

Of five personality assessment tests considered for use in this study, three were examined in detail. These were the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (GZTS), the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) and the Myers-Briggs Indicator (MBTI).

The Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey. The GZTS, developed and published in 1949 by Joan S. Guilford, Wayne S. Zimmerman and J.P. Guilford, contains 300 items, thirty for each of ten personality traits (Stephenson, 1953). Items are marked true, false or indifferent. A high score indicates that the person taking the test has many socially desirable qualities. The traits include:

| | |
|-------------------------|------------------------|
| G - General Activity | O - Objectivity |
| R - Restraint | F - Friendliness |
| A - Ascendance | T - Thoughtfulness |
| S - Sociality | P - Personal Relations |
| E - Emotional Stability | M - Masculinity |

Guilford (1975) developed a hierarchical model of personality which regards the ten GZTS traits as forming another class:

- (1) Social Activity
- (2) Emotional Stability
- (3) Paranoid Disposition
- (4) Extraversion-Introversion

The reliability of the instrument is acceptable with coefficients varying between .75 and .85 for each of the ten traits (VanSteenberg, 1953). Validity studies have been mixed, some yielding highly significant correlations, some yielding nothing (Saunders, 1959) due to the wide span of scales or traits found in the test.

The advantages of the GZTS include ways to measure a broad range of personality traits, each with important correlatives (Rowe, 1980), ease of administration and scoring of the test, and an application for managerial personnel. The major disadvantage of the GZTS is that it requires a psychologist experienced in using and analyzing the GZTS. The major drawback for the present study was summarized by Rowe (1980, p. 405):

Expectations for GZTS relationships depend primarily on common-sense interpretations of the traits' meanings and do not imply causal mechanisms or genetic factors. From the vantage of pure assessment, this may not present

a problem . . . , but for those hoping to find a theory of behavior, Guilford's temperaments may be disappointing (emphasis mine).

Because of complexities with interpretation and the lack of a sound basis for a behavioristic study such as the present one, the GZTS has not been used here.

The California Psychological Inventory. In 1956, Harrison Gough published the CPI. This test contains 468 statements, twelve of which appear twice for a total of 480 items. It takes approximately one hour to administer, and the response to the items is either true or false. CPI measures socially relevant personality characteristics in healthy individuals. The CPI is usually scored for eighteen scales that Gough divided into four groups as follows (Megargee, 1972, p. 6):

Class I

Dominance
Capacity for Status
Sociability
Social Presence
Self-Acceptance
Sense of Well-Being
(These scales measure poise, ascendancy, self-assurance, and interpersonal adequacy)

Class II

Responsibility
Socialization
Self-Control
Tolerance
Good Impression
Communality
(These scales assess socialization, maturity, responsibility, and intrapersonal structuring of values)

Class III

Achievement via Conformance
Achievement via Independence
Intellectual Efficiency
(These scales measure achievement potential and
intellectual efficiency)

Class IV

Psychological Mindedness
Flexibility
Femininity
(These scales assess intellectual and interest
modes)

Cronbach (1959) found the overall quality of the CPI to be of a high order. Reliability data reported by Hase and Goldberg (1967) are also reasonably high. Their findings of short-term coefficients ranged from .71 to .90 with a median of .83. Validity studies on the CPI are quite diverse. While they tend to support the test, it is difficult to gain a clear sense of the specific validity reports. Similarly, Cronbach (1959) found difficulties with determining the validity of the CPI because of problems establishing correlations between the scales. He maintains that it would have been wiser for the researchers of validity studies for the CPI to report meticulously a smaller number of well-substantiated findings than to invite misinterpretation by reporting too much too casually.

Shaffer (1959), Kelly (1965), and others support the use of the CPI. Its overall development is based on many

empirical studies and the evidence of its professional acceptance and impact on personality research is strongly documented (Kelly, 1965). Overall, the CPI has been standardized more than have many personality inventories. Its importance as a measure of social functioning as opposed to clinical orientation is valuable in management and personnel selection.

For all its strengths, however, the CPI was not chosen for this study. Cronbach (1959, p. 98) offers the most compelling reasons:

The variables describe character in value-loaded terms. Teachers and principals very likely will approve this, but the inventory seems to encourage the idea that there is just one ideal type. Such scale titles as Responsibility, Tolerance, and Socialization have a pronounced ethical overtone which suggests that low scores reflect faults, rather than symptoms of needs, skills, and cultural pressures. Because of this implicit conflict with modern views of personality, it would be deplorable if CPI profiles were interpreted by principals, teachers, parents, or students without guidance from a psychologically trained person.

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. The MBTI was initially developed in 1943 by Katharine C. Briggs and Isabel Myers. It is a forced-choice, self report inventory used with normal subjects and is based on Jung's theory of psychological types. The 166 test items require approximately one hour to answer. Coan (1978) found that the MBTI

achieves its design goal to a fair degree, but that it is subject to further refinement, particularly with respect to item content.

The reliability of the MBTI was established by using the split-half procedure on samples of senior high school students in Massachusetts and students attending Brown University (Myers, 1962). The Spearman-Brown prophecy formula was applied to the correlation for reliability. Correlations on each of the dimensions, E-I, S-N, and J-P had a median reliability score of .83. Thus, Myers (1962, p. 206) concluded:

It would therefore appear that the user is warranted in reposing as much confidence in the type categories as he would in any critical score or cutting-point on any personality test with similar reliabilities.

Mendelsohn (1970) found considerable reliability and validity data available for the MBTI. His findings revealed an internal consistency reliability for each of the scales ranging from .75 to .85, with a low coefficient score of .44 appearing for the T-F dimension. Generally, Mendelsohn concluded that the reliability of the test is about equal to similar inventories.

Concurrent validity was established by comparing the MBTI with inventories having similar scales. Most notably, the Gray-Wheelwright inventory proved to be the most relevant measure of concurrent validity. The

phi-coefficients for the type combinations were all significant at the .05 level or better. While Mendelsohn (1970, p. 1126) was critical of the validity of the MBTI, he concluded that the instrument

has considerable potential utility. Type scores relate meaningfully to a wide range of variables, including personality, ability, interest, value, aptitude, and performance measures, academic choice and behavioral ratings. . . . There are better predictors for particular tasks, [but] few instruments appear to provide as much information as can be derived efficiently from the MBTI.

Because the MBTI's theoretical framework has a reasonably strong interpretive value and because its development is based upon a comprehensive theory of human behavior, the researcher chose to use both the MBTI and its offshoot, the Keirsey Temperament Sorter, to assess personality type.

The Keirsey Temperament Sorter (KTS). The KTS was developed in 1978 by David Keirsey. The seventy item forced choice test identifies personality type in the same manner as the MBTI. While no detailed investigations concerning reliability and validity have been conducted, the researcher did learn in a telephone conversation with Dr. Keirsey that a content validation study involving 300 people revealed that type performance matched significantly with results obtained from the MBTI. The

ease of administering, scoring, and interpreting the KTS and its fairly accurate predictive value are strong reasons for using this test. Thus, the researcher chose to use the KTS with other leaders as part of his process in identifying personality traits.

Typology Assessment Indicator (TAI). The researcher developed the TAI as an informal way of having a leader's personality type assessed by his/her subordinates. Respondents read a description of each attitude, perception and judgment (E-I, S-N, T-F, and J-P) and then indicated how they viewed their leader. The purpose of the TAI was to elicit subordinates' perceptions of each leader in the case study section. Neither the MBTI nor the KTS is structured to include that capability.

The Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD). Two forms of LEAD were developed by Hersey and Blanchard in 1973. These are the LEAD/SELF and the LEAD/OTHER, each of which contains twelve items for which there are four alternative responses. An individual's answer is used to establish a leadership style range and a leadership-effective dimension. The LEAD/SELF data indicates how the leader perceives him/herself. The LEAD/OTHER data indicates how others perceive the leader. The tests are easy to administer and score. Overall, the test

has enjoyed wide popularity as a diagnostic and training instrument.

Greene (1980) reported that the LEAD/SELF was standardized on the responses of 264 managers constituting a North American sample. The twelve item validities for the style adaptability score ranged from .11 to .52. Eleven coefficients were significant beyond the .01 level and one was significant at the .05 level.

The stability of the LEAD/SELF was moderately strong. Greene (1980) found the contingency coefficients were both .71 and each was significant (probability .01). The correlation for the adaptability scores was .69 (probability .01). Based upon these findings, the LEAD/SELF is deemed to be an empirically sound instrument. No data was available for the LEAD/OTHER.

The researcher chose the LEAD instruments because of their compatibility with Situational Leadership Theory, the ease in administering and scoring the instruments, and clarity of interpretation. In addition, both the LEAD/SELF and LEAD/OTHER pose the same situational variables which provide a commonality with respect to the issue of style adaptability and effectiveness under consideration.

Self Process for Assessing Personality Traits
and Leadership Behavior

In 1976, I attended a leadership conference at which David Champagne, Professor of Education at the University of Pittsburg, introduced Jung's theory of Personality Types as a strategy for understanding and improving the supervisory function. His lecture convinced me that Jung's theory was equally applicable to leadership effectiveness. Coincidentally, I had just participated in Kenneth Blanchard's class on Situational Leadership Theory. While the concept of style adaptability intrigued me, I was uncertain as to just how easy such behavioral changes might be. After listening to Champagne's lecture, the emerging pattern of how one's attitudes, perceptions, and judgments affect one's behavior became clearer to me. I began to investigate Jung's theory and soon found that Isabel Briggs Myers had developed the MBTI which could identify not only an individual's type, but also provided a comprehensive explanation of each of the sixteen possible types.

I saw that it would be helpful for me to establish my own personality profile and I located a counselor trained in administering and interpreting the MBTI. As a result of that analysis session, I predicted that my personality profile would be positively related to my

leadership behavior. Upon comparing and contrasting the results from the MBTI (see Appendix B for the MBTI scoring report) and KTS (see Appendix C) and LEAD/SELF (see Appendix D), I found that a positive relationship did appear to exist. But I realized how valuable it would be to me if I could learn if those with whom I worked could also see me in a way similar to the way I saw myself. I then obtained evaluative data from my subordinates by using the TAI (see Appendix E) for judging personality type and the LEAD/OTHER (see Appendix F) for judging leadership style.

Test population. Erving Elementary School is located in rural Western Massachusetts. School programs are provided for 176 students in Pre-Kindergarten through Grade 6. The twenty-eight staff members who participated in the study include both professional and non-professional staff. 78.6 percent of the group are women and 21.4 percent are men and the average length of tenure at the school is seven years. Of the nineteen professional staff, 63.2 percent hold an advanced degree beyond the Baccalaureate. The group's median age is thirty-four.

As principal, I have been at Erving since 1971. This has been my first public school administrative position, supplemented by a two-month experience as Acting Superintendent of Schools within the five town school district in 1974.

Personal data. The results of my MBTI scores indicated that I was an Extraverted, Intuitive, Feeling, Perceptive type; an ENFP (for a comprehensive understanding of each type, please refer to Appendix G). An ENFP type is characterized as highly enthusiastic, more concerned with people, and adept in handling them. Relationships which an ENFP develop fall into a pattern of enthusiastic anticipation accompanied by larger personal investments of effort and emotion. An ENFP may vigorously pursue causes where there is a chance to better the human condition, but will retreat if the causes fail to have deep, lasting significance.

Setting extraordinary goals for oneself is one trait of an ENFP. The motivation here appears to be rooted in striving for self-actualization. Often, an ENFP will set too many of these goals and may passionately pursue creative solutions, but he or she may become an "intellectual butterfly," merely flitting from idea to idea.

As a leader, an ENFP has the ability to draw out the best in people. The ENFP's focus is on people within the organization and his/her commitment to them is typified by a conscious attempt to help them in both career development and personal growth. Consequently, the ENFP's primary managerial task is to develop the potentialities of his/her staff, with development of an organizational

network seen as secondary. This heavy investment of time and energy in others often leave an ENFP exhausted and with little time left for him/herself.

An ENFP tends to be highly verbal and can be an enthusiastic spokesperson for his/her organization. The ENFP also appreciates the efforts of others and has the capability of making appropriate comments at the right time. This personality type allows others' needs or wishes to take precedent over his or her own personal needs. Consequently, an ENFP must periodically review his or her goals and priorities to keep from splintering.

More than any other temperament, the ENFP has the capacity to perceive how a liability can be turned into an asset. Feelings of negativism are quickly replaced by a spirit of optimism which can be easily conveyed to others both within and outside the organization.

Because the ENFP leader offers considerable appreciation and encouragement, he or she in turn needs similar socioemotional support if he or she is to continue at a high level of productivity. Without it, the ENFP will either seek to have those needs met outside the system or leave the system altogether for an environment which allows him or her the opportunity to be appreciated.

The same concern which an ENFP leader has for others can also be detrimental to him or her because that concern

creates a strong imbalance between others' needs and one's own. Consequently, an ENFP often finds little time left for the handling of administrative tasks, or finds those tasks must be done at the expense of recreational or personal time. Similarly, an ENFP may make administrative decisions based upon his/her personal affiliations with others rather than upon the organization's needs which are based more on impersonal and objective criteria. An ENFP leader's penchant for supporting others' feelings may also place that leader in a situation where each opposing faction may perceive him or her as supporting the position of the other faction. Consequently, either group may feel betrayed if a decision made by the ENFP leader goes against them. If both groups are under criticism from higher authoritative sources, the ENFP manager may internalize the groups' failures as personal failure and this may lower his or her self-confidence.

While an ENFP leader fosters an organizational climate of initiative, autonomy, and freedom, two situations may arise that can adversely affect him or her. First, if goals are not met, he or she may assume the brunt of the responsibility with the result that the ENFP may both jeopardize his/her upward mobility while trying to avoid the unpleasant task of confronting difficult situations in the leader-subordinate relation. Secondly, because the

ENFP is highly involved with the lives of those under his/her supervision, he or she may often build an unintentional but nevertheless strong dependency relationship. Hence, increased energy will be spent in sustaining the psychological needs of others, even though the ENFP leader may be trying to remain independent of those individuals.

In terms of my personality profile, I learned that I had a well-developed sensing function. Therefore, my abilities to order, direct, and make decisions were reasonably sound. Overall, my typology suggested that my behavior as a leader would be marked by strong interpersonal relations with subordinates together with an equally high task orientation. While I might advocate participatory decision-making, my combined affinity for personal interaction and involvement might restrict me from delegating full responsibility to others.

The LEAD/SELF results determined my alternate style range as reviewed in Table 7.

The results of the MBTI and LEAD tests suggested a strong positive relationship between my personality and my leadership behavior. The next part of the process was to establish five hypotheses and test them in relation to my subordinates' perceptions of both my personality

Table 7. Alternate style range ranked from high to low.

| QUADRANT | SCORE | DESCRIPTION OF STYLE PREFERENCE |
|----------|-------|---------------------------------|
| 2 | 6 | S2 High Task/High Relationship |
| 3 | 4 | S3 High Relationship/Low Task |
| 1 | 2 | S1 High Task/Low Relationship |
| 4 | 0 | S4 Low Relationship/Low Task |

type and leadership style. Accordingly, the five hypotheses developed were:

1. Hypothesis A: There will be a direct and statistically significant relationship between the researcher's E-I preference and the perceptions of his subordinates.
2. Hypothesis B: There will be a direct and statistically significant relationship between the researcher's S-N preference and the perceptions of his subordinates.
3. Hypothesis C: There will be a direct and statistically significant relationship between the researcher's T-F preference and the perceptions of his subordinates.

4. Hypothesis D: There will be a direct and statistically significant relationship between the researcher's J-P preference and the perceptions of his subordinates.
5. Hypothesis E: There will be a direct and statistically significant relationship between the researcher's LEAD/SELF scores and his subordinates' LEAD/OTHER scores.

Subordinates' data. Using the TAI, twenty-eight staff members under my supervision determined their perceptions of my personality type. Table 8 illustrates the data collected from this test.

Table 8. Subordinates' perceptions of leader's personality type

| FUNCTION | | NUMBER OF RESPONSES (N=28) |
|---|-----|----------------------------|
| Extraverted | (E) | 28 |
| Introverted | (I) | 0 |
| Sensing | (S) | 9 |
| Intuitive | (N) | 19 |
| Thinking | (T) | 0 |
| Feeling | (F) | 28 |
| Judging | (J) | 12 |
| Perceiving | (P) | 16 |
| Subordinates' Average Perception = ENFP | | |

The LEAD/OTHER inventory which the staff used indicated their perception of my leadership style. Table 9 summarizes the results.

Table 9. Subordinates' perceptions of leader's alternate style range ranked from high to low (N=28).

| QUADRANT | RAW SCORE | AVERAGE SCORE | DESCRIPTION OF STYLE PREFERENCE |
|----------|-----------|---------------|---------------------------------|
| 2 | 183 | 6.5 | S2 High Task/High Relationship |
| 3 | 83 | 3.0 | S3 High Relationship/Low Task |
| 1 | 51 | 1.8 | S1 High Task/Low Relationship |
| 4 | 19 | .7 | S4 Low Relationship/Low Task |

Analysis of Data

In an effort to add objective and quantifiable significance to the causal relationships of my personality type and leadership behavior, each of the aforementioned five hypotheses were tested. By determining that the probability of both subordinates' combined scores and my combined scores were beyond chance, I tested for the significance of proportion over chance factors. In other

words, I determined that the probability of my sample of twenty-eight subordinates' responding in a certain way was beyond the element of chance and, as a result that there would be a statistically significant relationship which would support or refute each of the hypotheses.

Hypotheses A, B, C, and D were examined first. The probability (P) factor for each of these four hypotheses was found to be significant at the .68 level. Because the choices on the TAI were limited to one or two responses, a high confidence interval was necessary to assure that subordinates' choices were significant. Therefore, a score of 19 or more (67.8 percent) is significant. Conversely, a score below 19 is determined to be not significant. Table 10 illustrates the findings. Data analyses supported hypotheses A - C.

The same formulae were used for testing hypothesis E. However, because of the wide variability in alternative scores, the confidence interval was lowered and the probability factor was similarly lowered to be significant at the .39 level. Therefore, a score of 11 or more or 39.2 percent is significant. A score below 11 is not significant. Table 11 indicates the scores. In all but one instance, there were significant findings which supported hypothesis E.

Table 10. Comparison of the leader's personality profile with subordinates' perceptions.

| HYPO- THESIS | LEADER'S TYPE PREFERENCE | SUBORDINATES' PERCEPTIONS | RAW SCORE | PER- CENTAGE | SIG- NIFI- CANT |
|-----------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------------|
| A | E | E | 28 | 100.0 | Yes |
| B | N | N | 19 | 67.8 | Yes |
| C | F | F | 28 | 100.0 | Yes |
| D | P | P | 12 | 42.8 | No |

An analysis of my effectiveness dimension revealed a disparity between my score of 17 and the staff's average score of 9.5. First, the 9.5 effectiveness dimension score is not a truly accurate statement of leader effectiveness, for it represents the extent to which a leader is able to vary his/her style in response to the demands of a given situation and thus gives the leader an indication of the probability of success in situations comparable to the twelve situations found in the LEAD (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977). Because both the raw scores by quadrant and style range (Tables 6 and 8) for my own perceptions and those of my staff were markedly similar, I questioned these scores. As a result, I introduced

Table 11. Comparison of the leader's style with subordinates' perceptions: Hypothesis E
(P = 11, N = 28).

| SITUATION BY QUADRANT | NUMBER OF THOSE WHO AGREE | PERCENTAGE | SIGNIFICANT |
|-----------------------|---------------------------|------------|-------------|
| Q1 = HT - LR | | | |
| 1 | 27 | 94.4 | Yes |
| 5 | 15 | 53.6 | Yes |
| 9 | 15 | 53.6 | Yes |
| Q2 = HT - HR | | | |
| 2 | 14 | 50.0 | Yes |
| 6 | 22 | 78.6 | Yes |
| 10 | 21 | 75.0 | Yes |
| Q3 = HR - LT | | | |
| 3 | 14 | 50.0 | Yes |
| 7 | 12 | 42.3 | Yes |
| 11 | 14 | 50.0 | Yes |
| Q4 = LR - LT | | | |
| 4 | 4 | 14.3 | No |
| 8 | 14 | 50.0 | Yes |
| 12 | 19 | 67.9 | Yes |

another way of analyzing the data which was a modification of the LEAD scoring format.

Because the term "effectiveness" is linked with the appropriateness of each response to the twelve situations, I established a score entitled, "Appropriate Response Style Range." This score is based on the respondent's

choice of situations by quadrant and multiplied by a weighted score. For example, the most appropriate response received a +2 score, the somewhat appropriate response was assigned a +1 score, the somewhat inappropriate response received a -1, and the least appropriate response a -2 score. The scores were then added together which yielded a combined response score for each of the four quadrants.

Re-examining my style range based on this approach revealed differences in my preferred style range and that perceived by my subordinates. Tables 12 and 13 highlight this difference. Yet, this analysis revealed a strong level of consistency in terms of both subordinates' and my own appropriate response to the situations presented on the LEAD instrument. The difference in terms of effectiveness scores, therefore, was concluded to be in terms of a positional shift in the appropriate response scores and not an inconsistency in leadership style scores.

In an effort to demonstrate the effectiveness dimension's impact on the communication process between a leader and his/her subordinates, I modified the Johari Window. By adding the LEAD's range of effectiveness/ineffectiveness scores to the Window and by assigning a narrative quality to the scale, I was able to graphically illustrate a comparison of effectiveness scores (see Fig. 13).

Table 12. Appropriate response style range by quadrant.

| QUADRANT | LEADER'S SCORE | SUBORDINATES' SCORE (N=28) | SUBORDINATES' AVERAGE SCORE |
|----------|----------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1 | 5 | 113 | 4.0 |
| 2 | 6 | 111 | 3.9 |
| 3 | 5 | 36 | 1.3 |
| 4 | 1 | 12 | 0.4 |

Table 13. Appropriate response style range ranked high to low.

| LEADER'S STYLE RANGE | SUBORDINATES' PERCEIVED STYLE RANGE |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| S2 High Task/High Relationship | S1 High Task/Low Relationship |
| S1 High Task/Low Relationship | S2 High Task/High Relationship |
| S3 High Relationship/Low Task | S3 High Relationship/Low Task |
| S4 Low Relationship/Low Task | S4 Low Relationship/Low Task |

Implications of Findings

The findings on my MBTI profile were, in large part, supported by my subordinates' perceptions of my personality type. In all instances but one, this perception was statistically validated. Similarly, my LEAD/SELF inventory matched favorably with my subordinates' LEAD/OTHER results. However, an internal inconsistency emerged when the effectiveness dimension was evaluated. The difference is explained in the scores developed around the Appropriate Response Style Range scores.

Because the MBTI profile is more comprehensive, I was able to understand the reason for the effectiveness differential. Typically, a strong Sensing (S) function suggests the qualities of completing tasks in a practical, ordered way. My MBTI revealed that I possessed that trait. The staff perceived a strongly expressed Judgment (J) function in my personality type which is characterized by wanting to get things done with a minimum of process. In combination, these attitudes convey a strong sense of task orientation. Their perceptions here are explainable in terms of an expressed S function which may appear as a Judging function.

The feeling (F) function was strongly established in both self and staff perceptions. Thus, it is not

surprising that my relationship behavior is high. It is important to note that in SLT parlance, "relationship behavior" is seen as providing others with socioemotional support in response to their job-related needs. A leader may have personal relationships with subordinates, but in situations requiring direction, he or she may minimize socioemotional support while maintaining a relationship with them in a different context.

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) indicate that leadership behavior preference is developed ideally in each of the four styles cited earlier. However, they have found that most leaders develop a two-style preference. For example, in my case I tended to perceive my alternate leadership style range as S2 (HT-HR) and S3 (HR-LT). My preference suggests that I possess the skills to deal effectively with moderately mature subordinates, but need to learn to delegate more responsibility to mature group members (S4 [LT-LR]) and to be more directive with less mature individuals (S1 [HT-LR]). On the other hand, my Appropriate Response Style Range indicates that I possess a wider style range but still need to focus upon fostering independence and delegating responsibility to mature, self-directed individuals.

Subordinates' perceptions, however, suggest a different pattern in regard to my Appropriate Response Style

Range. In this instance, they see my two-style preference as S1 (HT-LR) and S2 (HT-HR). Their view of my leadership pattern indicates that I tend to be directive and involved extensively in the decision-making processes. The consequence of this style can limit the group from making decisions independent of me. Hence, they may become reliant upon my direction or support which may limit their ascendance to personal and professional fulfillment. Given this situation, my need then is to identify more mature group members and exhibit S3 (HR-LT) and S4 (LT-LR) behavior with them.

The process of identifying both my attitudes and my leadership behavior has been beneficial to the self-evaluation of my role as school principal. Because I enjoy interacting with people, I find myself available to them to a fault. For example, I will stop what I am doing to talk with staff members almost routinely. Consequently, I must spend more of my personal time doing school-related work. Secondly, I now understand that my "friendly interactions" reinforce a sense of my personal need to control or be involved in virtually all aspects of decisions made at the school. This condition conflicts with my personal desire to foster independence in subordinates. Because the vast majority of staff at the school are responsible

and mature individuals, it will be necessary for me to develop in the S4 (LT-LR) range.

My MBTI profile has helped me realize that I need to develop my Thinking (T) function. Because I appear to rely heavily upon my Feeling (F) mode, I tend to become too subjective and personal. I need to effect a better balance in my T-F judging process so that I can add more impersonal, objective, and analytical capabilities to my leadership behavior. The benefits of doing this will enable me to become less personal and involved with subordinates, thereby giving me more time to attend to the organization's needs and to create an atmosphere which will enhance independence.

C H A P T E R I V

CASE PRESENTATIONS

Introduction

A modification of the process used in Chapter III by the researcher was applied to five other leaders and/or administrators who agreed to participate in the study. The analysis of their attitudes and leader behavior forms the substance of Chapter IV. The organization of the remainder of this chapter includes a defense of case study methodology, a description of the population, a review of how data were collected on the individuals in the studies, and the presentation of each of the five cases under consideration.

The Case Study Method

The case study has been extensively used in many professional disciplines, yet social and behavioral scientists have minimized its value because, they argue, a case study is not rigorous enough, involving as it does an N of 1, and uses no central group (Goodstein, Lubin, and Lubin, 1979). Yet for all its advantages, the experimental design which they favor overlooks both the process of what actually occurs as the study unfolds and the psychology of the individual. Valuable insights a

subject might share with the researcher are rarely considered in a statistical report. Furthermore, his or her remarks and other interactions are lost in the "hard data" of an experimental/quantitative study. These arguments are raised not to denigrate the value of formal scientific inquiry but to point out that the case study is a legitimate, alternative method of understanding one's environment.

Walton (1972) noted that the case study serves two basic purposes. First, it facilitates the inductive development of new theory and, secondly, it facilitates the refinement and further specification of existing theory. For instance, the use of the case study method makes it possible to build theory and to develop hypotheses that can be tested experimentally.

A strong case study is comprised of description and analysis. It is important to achieve balance between them. Description alone leaves too much interpretation to the reader and analysis alone leaves the reader at the mercy of the author's judgment and interpretive skills. The difficulty in differentiating between the two is a potential limitation of the case study. Furthermore, because most case studies are written by a participant/observer who has a vested interest in the development and findings of the case, a reader may have difficulty

distinguishing opinions from facts, assumptions from data, and inferences from behavior. Rather than dismiss the important value of case study inquiry, however, it would be better to utilize the process while realizing its limitations and biases.

Stake (1977, p. 9) said of the case study method in social inquiry:

Its best use appears to me to be for adding to existing experience and humanistic understanding. Its characteristics match the 'readiness' people have for added experience. . . . Intentionality and empathy are central to the comprehension of social problems but so also is information that is wholistic and episodic. The discourse of persons struggling to increase their understanding of social matters features and solicits these qualities. And the qualities match nicely the characteristics of the case study.

Demographic Profile

Overview. The study was conducted in the Erving Union #28 School District which is made up of five towns: Erving, Leverett, New Salem, Shutesbury and Wendell. Each town has its own elementary school except New Salem and Wendell which share one school. There are, therefore, four schools, all of which are rural in character with an average population of approximately 146 students in grades Kindergarten through six. Each school has its own principal and core facility and is thus relatively

autonomous. One superintendent serves as the executive officer for all four schools. A major part of his role is to coordinate instructional programs and administrative responsibilities between and among the four principals and their respective schools wherever and whenever possible. The four principals and superintendent meet on a scheduled basis and work as an administrative team to enhance the overall operation of the district in general and of their own schools in particular.

Administrators' profile. The five administrators have a median level of administrative experience in the district of just under three years. Of the five, three are new to their positions. Two have had prior administrative experience in other situations and the other person has had nine years' teaching experience in the district. Each has at least a Master's degree, and two have their doctorates. Two of the five are women. Their median age is forty-three. In an effort to conceal the identities of the individuals, pseudonyms will be used. Each case will substantially represent backgrounds and findings for each individual.

Subordinates' profile. There are 102 people who work in the four schools within the district for an average of twenty-six per school. Of this total, 62 percent are

professional staff (both full and part-time) and 38 percent are non-professional. Sixty-one percent of the total population participated in the study which represents an average of 64 percent for each school. Of the participants in the study, 84 percent were female and 16 percent were male. The average number of years they have worked in Union #28 is six. Their median age is thirty-four years. Forty percent of the group has attained a degree beyond the baccalaureate.

Data collection. The data were collected for all administrators in several ways. First, the researcher met with all five administrators and administered to them the Keirsey Temperament Sorter (KTS) and the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD)/SELF. Then he met with each leaders' respective subordinates and had them respond to both the Typology Assessment Indicator (TAI) and the LEAD/OTHER. Finally, after sorting and tabulating the results, the researcher met with each leader individually and conducted an analysis of the findings. The average time spent in each session was approximately three hours. The process included having them answer an interview protocol (see Appendix H) at the conclusion of the session. The composite information which the researcher collected on each individual

is the basis for the five case studies which follow.

Case Analyses

Case one. Ann was recently hired as a principal. Although she was new to her position, Ann had considerable experience as both a teacher and administrator in other educational settings. For a number of years she has lived in the general area of the school which she now heads. Hence, she had a strong sense of both the politics and educational issues concerned with the school. Her selection as principal was overwhelmingly supported by both school staff and community residents. In addition, she had a chance to hire several new staff members who reflected her own educational philosophy and desirable personality traits.

The analysis session was characterized by Ann's enthusiasm and openness. She was eager to learn of the findings, particularly those of her own staff. Ann had prior experience with Situational Leadership Theory and the LEAD instruments so that she was most comfortable with the leadership style analysis. While she had no experience with Jung's theory of personality types, Ann undertook this aspect of the analysis with cooperation and ease.

Using the KTS instrument, Ann's type preference was determined as reported in Table 14.

Table 14. Ann's KTS profile.

| FUNCTION | RESPONSE PATTERN |
|------------------------------|------------------|
| Extraverted (E) | 4 |
| Introverted (I) | 6 |
| Sensing (S) | 12 |
| Intuitive (N) | 8 |
| Thinking (T) | 13 |
| Feeling (F) | 7 |
| Judging (J) | 14 |
| Perceiving (P) | 6 |
| Ann's Self-Perception = ISTJ | |

Ann's subordinates responded to the TAI. Thirteen of her staff members viewed her personality type as shown by Table 15.

In the analysis session, Ann and the researcher discussed the discrepancies between her perceptions and those of her staff. Ann was not surprised to learn that the staff saw her as an extravert because of her concerted efforts to interact regularly with her staff. Often, many people see this form of behavior as a quality of extraverts even though in theoretical terms such may not be the case. Ann agreed that the substance of her interactions did not reveal her true self. She felt, rather, that her conversations focused upon work-related issues

Table 15. Subordinates' perceptions of Ann's personality type.

| FUNCTION | RESPONSE PATTERN (N=13) |
|---|----------------------------|
| Extraverted (E) | 13 |
| Introverted (I) | 0 |
| Sensing (S) | 11 |
| Intuitive (N) | 2 |
| Thinking (T) | 1 |
| Feeling (F) | 12 |
| Judging (J) | 1 |
| Perceiving (P) | 12 |
| Subordinates' Average Perception = ESFP | |

and "amicable chats" which avoided deep feelings. Because her E-I preference indicated a strong balance between the two, Ann felt the staff's perceptions were accurate based upon the type of interaction which Ann sought to create. However, Ann felt that she tended to be more of an I type. This behavior emerged in situations in which she knew people better and felt less constrained to be her "true self."

Ann smiled when she learned how strongly the staff responded to the sensing preference of her personality. She remarked how important it was for her to establish routines and procedures in her new role as principal. It

was her feeling that an immediate need existed in the school to develop and utilize systems or processes which existed to a lesser degree under previous administrations. While her S preference was perceived to be her auxiliary function by the staff, it is, in fact, Ann's dominant trait. She strongly agreed with this insight and explained how her work with her staff in procedures may have strongly influenced their perceptions of her E-I preference.

Ann felt more inclined to agree with her subordinates' choice of her T-F preference as her more utilized method for making decisions. She indicated that her responses to questions directed at establishing her T-F preference were based largely on the way she would like to make decisions, rather than the way she actively operated, which was to use her F process more regularly. As she discussed this observation, she became aware that her potential to use her T function was restricted by her feelings of how others might respond to her. She felt the need to develop her T function because she felt it would allow her to react more objectively to problem-solving situations.

The final function in Ann's profile was her Perceptive-Judging preference. Her subordinates viewed Ann's preferred choice as P, while Ann saw herself more as a J type. Given the explanations for both processes,

Ann was confused by the disparity. In theoretical terms it was explained to her that her J-P preference ordered which of the two sets of functions, S-N or T-F, was dominant and which was her auxiliary trait. Because her staff saw her as an ESFP, the overall effect was that her S function was dominant. On the other hand, Ann perceived herself as an ISTJ. The outcome of this perception resulted in her declaring her dominant trait to be S. In an earlier chapter, we saw how Introverted types show their auxiliary trait to their outer world and keep their dominant function within themselves and reveal their true preference only to a select few.

In Ann's case, because she was utilizing a considerable amount of her E trait, the staff saw her well-defined S trait with ease. Furthermore, because she was seeking to establish a close and personable working relationship with her staff, her interactions were typically characteristic of a SF type who is seen by others as warm, accepting and practical. Because Ann agreed that she really used her F mode more than her T mode, the differences between her preferences and those of her subordinates were reconciled. Therefore, while the results of both the KTS and TAI were different, the clear pattern of Ann's S and F processes emerged. Both the staff and she recognized that her S function was dominant even though for an I type the

dominant function is not always readily apparent. In Ann's circumstances, however, her strong desire to establish procedures in clear and practical ways revealed her S trait.

Ann resolved the difference between her T-F preference when she realized her own ambivalence in this area. For Ann, it became clear that she felt the need to develop more of her T function in order to bring more objectivity and impersonal analysis to her decision-making session. In this regard, Ann found the analysis session both informative and helpful in addressing an issue which had perplexed her in the past. She recognized her self-doubt and began to discuss ways to add balance to her T-F preferences.

The analysis of Ann's KTS and TAI results helped her define her own type more clearly. On the basis of discussing the theory, its explanations, and the data which indicated that she was an ISFJ type, Ann concurred with the findings (a detailed description of well-developed adult types appears in Appendix G).

The second phase of the assessment process addressed leadership style. Ann, who had prior experience with Situational Leadership Theory (SLT), was interested in addressing her leadership style in relation to her personality type. Ann completed the LEAD/SELF instrument and

her staff took the LEAD/OTHER test. Table 16 illustrates Ann's alternate style range.

Table 16. Ann's alternate style range ranked from high to low.

| QUADRANT | SCORE | DESCRIPTION OF STYLE PREFERENCE |
|----------|-------|-----------------------------------|
| 3 | 6 | S3 High Relationship/ Low Task |
| 2 | 6 | S2 High Task/High Relationship |
| 1 | 0 | S1 High Task/Low Relationship |
| 4 | 0 | S4 Low Relationship/ Low Task |

According to SLT, Ann's two-style preference indicated she possesses a style profile 3 and 2. In this respect her style was characterized by her ability to work well with people of average levels of task maturity, but she may experience difficulties managing immature subordinates and also delegating responsibility and authority to more mature subordinates.

A review of Ann's subordinates' perceptions of her alternate style range revealed the following data detailed in Table 17.

Table 17. Subordinates' perceptions of Ann's alternate style range ranked from high to low. (N=13)

| QUADRANT | RAW SCORE | AVERAGE SCORE | DESCRIPTION OF STYLE PREFERENCE |
|----------|-----------|---------------|-----------------------------------|
| 3 | 87 | 6.7 | S3 High Relationship/ Low Task |
| 2 | 53 | 4.1 | S2 High Task/High Relationship |
| 1 | 8 | .6 | S1 High Task/Low Relationship |
| 4 | 8 | .6 | S4 Low Relationship/ Low Task |

Ann's subordinates perceived her alternate style range in exactly the same way that she perceived herself. Ann explained that she felt her commitment to considerable instructional and administrative tasks may have been interpreted as high task to the exclusion of a high relationship orientation. However, after reviewing her personality type profile, Ann recognized that her relationship orientation and her commitment to task completion were addressed in her leadership style (S2). In addition, an analysis of her appropriate response style range underscored her feelings about task commitment

in relation to both her relative newness to her position at the school, her own feelings about her treatment of ranges in staff maturity, and her relationship with her staff (see Tables 18 and 19).

Table 18. Appropriate response style range by quadrant.

| QUADRANT | ANN'S SCORE | SUBORDINATES' SCORE (N=13) | SUBORDINATES' AVERAGE SCORE |
|----------|-------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1 | 3 | 6 | .5 |
| 2 | 2 | 35 | 1.9 |
| 3 | 5 | 54 | 3.3 |
| 4 | 1 | 27 | 2.1 |

Table 19. Combined appropriate response style range ranked high to low.

| ANN'S STYLE RANGE | SUBORDINATES' PERCEIVED STYLE RANGE (N=13) |
|--------------------------------|--|
| S3 High Relationship/Low Task | S3 High Relationship/Low Task |
| S1 High Task/Low Relationship | S2 High Task/High Relationship |
| S2 High Task/High Relationship | S4 Low Relationship/Low Task |
| S4 Low Relationship/Low Task | S1 High Task/Low Relationship |

Ann's appropriate response style range scores revealed a style profile of 1 and 3. This profile is characterized by either viewing people as in need of considerable task structuring with little socioemotional support or providing people with a high level of socioemotional support and little task orientation. These profiles are rooted in a leader's perceptions to the degree of task relevancy maturity which subordinates possess. Judgments of their maturity are regarded in "either/or" terms. Consequently, moderately mature individuals receive S3 behavior from a leader while less mature individuals receive S1 behavior.

In Ann's case, the staff saw her as possessing a basic style profile of 2 and 3 while Ann's profile changed from a 2 and 3 on the alternate style range (Table 16) to a 1 and 3 profile (Table 19). Ann felt that the score difference reflected her attempts at providing structure (S1) while trying to be friendly with her staff (S2). At the same time, it became apparent that the staff did not perceive her leadership behavior as either highly structured or lacking in socioemotional support. What Ann was able to discern was that her structuring of tasks was being done in less direct ways and, in most cases, she offered a high degree of socioemotional support. What Ann concluded was a need to evaluate her perceptions of staff maturity, to determine whether tasks are, in fact, being

completed to her satisfaction, and to begin examining strategies to provide S4 behavior where appropriate.

The final information obtained from the LEAD data is the effectiveness scores for Ann. It must be remembered that these scores do not measure effectiveness in terms of identifying successful leaders. Rather, they indicate the extent to which a leader is capable of diagnosing various situations accurately and then utilizing the appropriate type of leadership behavior. Figure 14 illustrates Ann's effectiveness score. Figure 15 represents the average effectiveness score of Ann's staff.

The data revealed a reasonably close score on the effectiveness dimension as perceived between Ann's subordinates and herself. What was inferred by this finding was that Ann appeared to be diagnosing situations and adapting her leadership style in ways consistent with staff reactions to her response to similar situations. Hence, it appears that Ann's interactions with her staff concerning her leadership style are reasonably open. The modified Johari Window shown in Figure 16 represents the degree of openness in Ann's leader/subordinate reactions.

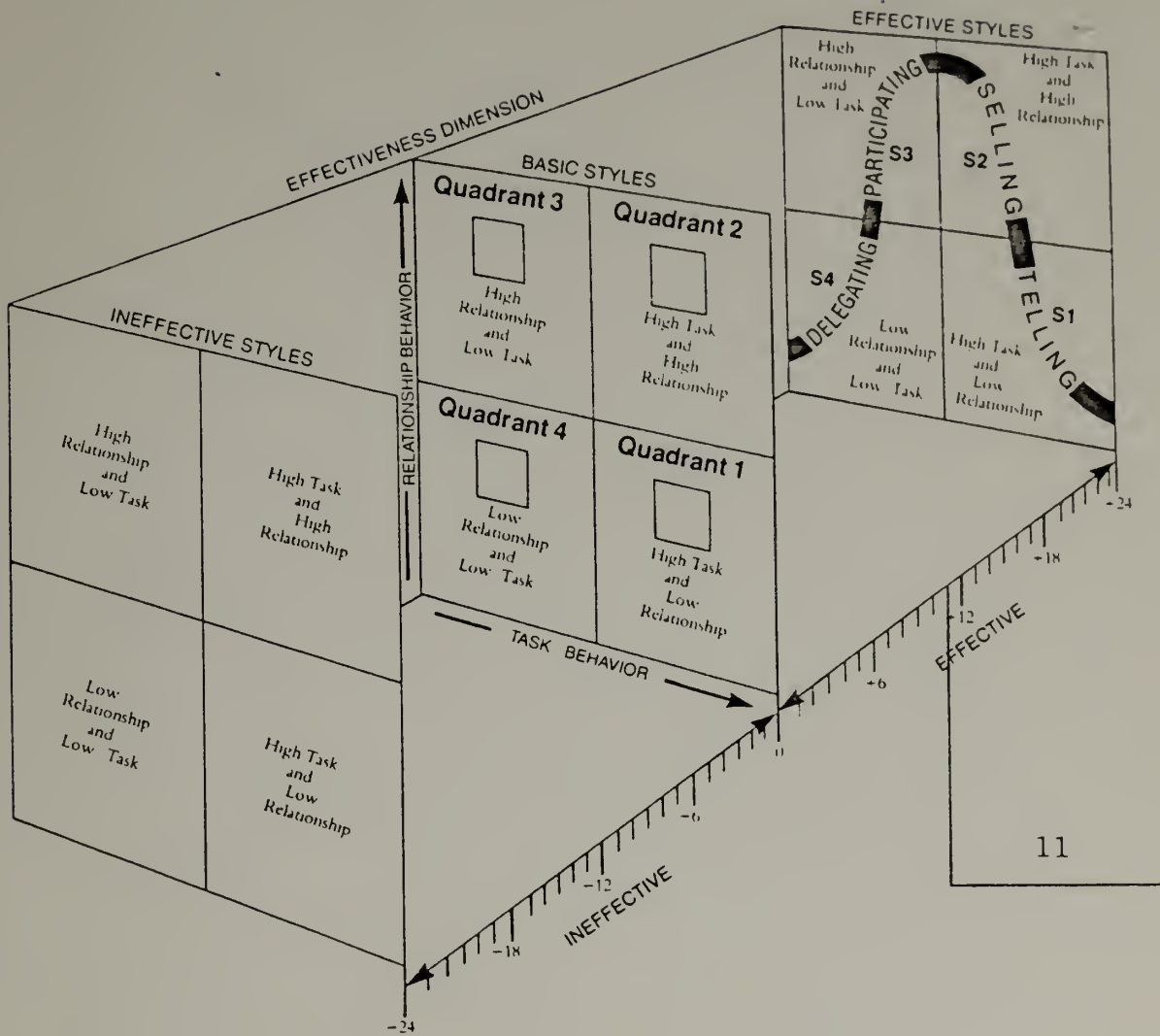


Figure 14. Ann's effectiveness score.

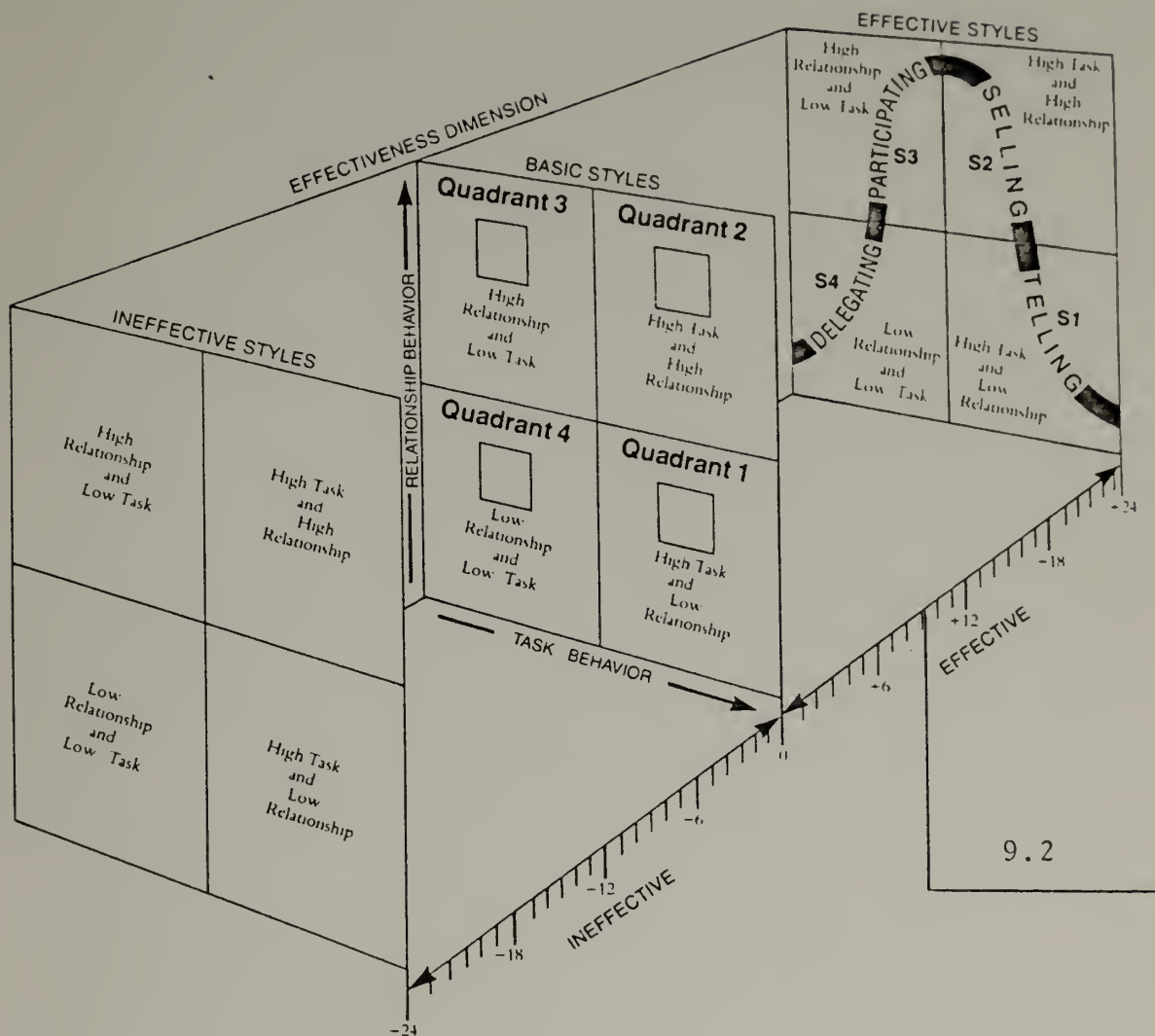
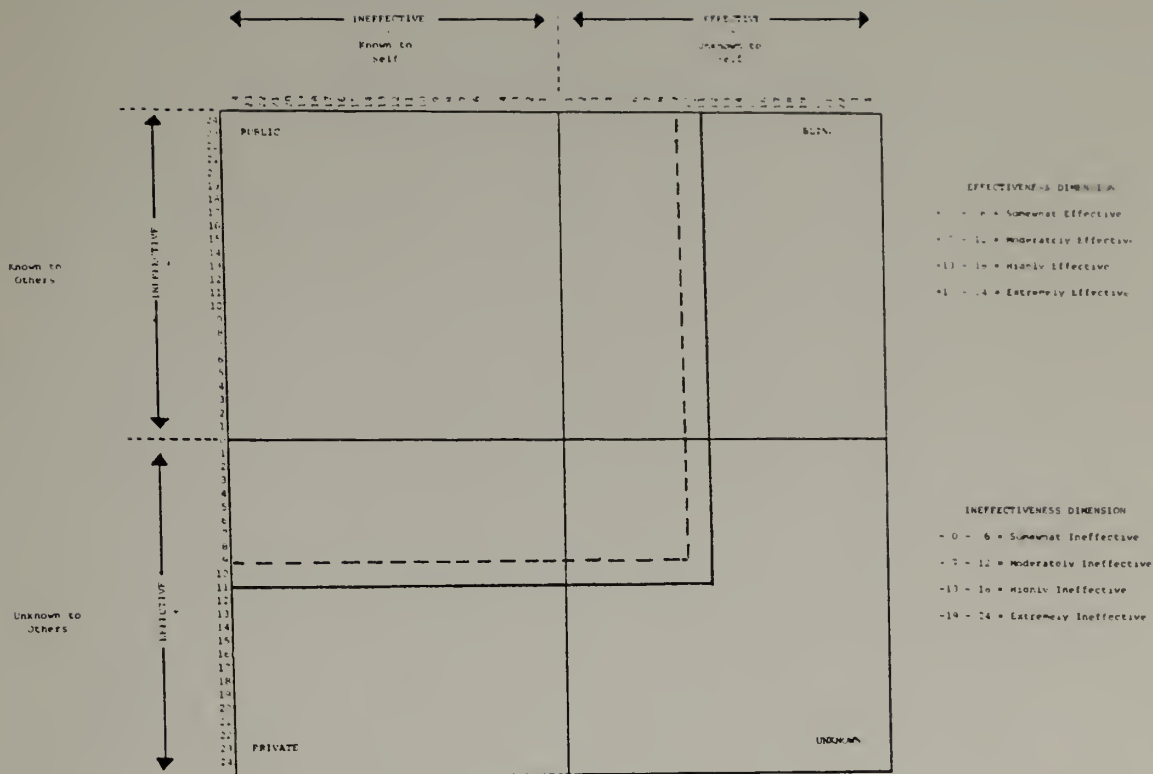


Figure 15. Ann's effectiveness as perceived by her staff.



KEY:
 Ann (—) = 11
 Other (--) = 9.2
 Difference = 1.8

Figure 16. A comparison of Ann's effectiveness using the Johari Window.

Implications of findings. Ann found the complete analysis session highly beneficial to her. In terms of her personality typology she recognized that she could utilize less developed aspects of her personality type to appropriately address situations in the leader-subordinate relationship. She discovered her need to develop her T function in order to add more objectivity and impersonal analysis to her decision-making abilities. To a large extent, Ann found the results of her personality profile to be accurate and the analysis session of comparing and contrasting her preferences with the perceptions of her subordinates revealing. While it appeared that disparities existed in their respective results, Ann was able to discover that the "image" of what she felt the staff desired and felt comfortable with was a style of personality type which she could provide without subjugating her true personality. In fact, Ann remarked, "The findings will help me understand and adapt my style as necessary and as a part of an ongoing process of self-evaluation and professional growth." Ann's prior experiences with both SLT and the LEAD instruments allowed her to assess more critically this aspect of the analysis session. She found that the results were highly indicative of her leadership style. Ann remarked that she saw "the need to become better able to respond to the needs of people in

quadrants 1 and 4--those less like my style." She stressed how important it was for her to communicate with her staff more clearly about her style and its impact on how decisions are made. She found the leadership assessment meaningful in clarifying her leadership style. However, she stressed that the theory might have more meaning if situations identified in her actual environment could be examined. This, she believed, would assist her in truly improving her work relationship with her staff. Ann felt that the process of self-examination should be ongoing in order that she might continue to look carefully at situations and decisions and to check others' perceptions with her own.

Ann's basic SF personality type emerged clearly in her concluding remarks about the most beneficial aspects of the entire process. "I believe," she said,

that it is crucial for school administrators to be able to match or complement the needs and styles of their constituency--parents, staff, students, community members and School Committees if they are to be truly effective The ability to assess these needs and adjust accordingly is an important skill for an administrator and this process is an important and effective way to develop such a working relationship.

Case two. Tom had been principal of his school for five years at the time he agreed to participate in this study.

A quiet, thoughtful man, Tom has had a variety of educational experiences on both an international and local level. He assumed the principalship after having taught in the school for a brief period of time. His selection as principal had the strong endorsement of both community and staff members. Given a mandate for unifying a somewhat divided staff and developing coherent instructional programs in a recently opened school, Tom's role was a considerable challenge. In addition, he had an extremely diverse and vocal community to appease. Because the school serves two towns, one of which may be perceived as a typical and traditional New England town and the other as a more liberal and, in some instances, even a radical community, Tom's ability to adapt was tested severely.

As with the other principals in the school district, Tom had considerable input in hiring virtually all his staff. As principal, he has created a strong, independent staff which has successfully addressed many educational, social and political problems. With little theoretical training in personality development and leadership in his background, Tom was interested in exploring the issues treated in this study. Of concern to him, however, was his staff's perceptions of his leadership which he felt, at times, was either inadequate or altogether

lacking. Consequently, Tom was anxious in proceeding with the analysis, but nonetheless willing to do so.

As Tom completed the KTS instrument, it was clear that he was having problems choosing what he felt to be appropriate responses to his personality type. Frequently he asked clarifying questions about the statements on the test and commented on how difficult the test had been for him. Table 20 details Tom's type preference.

Table 20. Tom's KTS profile.

| FUNCTION | RESPONSE PATTERN |
|------------------------------|------------------|
| Extraverted (E) | 2 |
| Introverted (I) | 8 |
| Sensing (S) | 16 |
| Intuitive (N) | 8 |
| Thinking (T) | 15 |
| Feeling (F) | 5 |
| Judging (J) | 15 |
| Perceiving (P) | 5 |
| Tom's Self-Perception = ISTJ | |

Nineteen of Tom's subordinates completed the TAI. Their scores are shown in Table 21.

Table 21. Subordinates' perceptions of Tom's personality type.

| FUNCTION | RESPONSE PATTERN (N=19) |
|---|----------------------------|
| Extraverted (E) | 7 |
| Introverted (I) | 12 |
| Sensing (S) | 11 |
| Intuitive (N) | 8 |
| Thinking (T) | 3 |
| Feeling (F) | 16 |
| Judging (J) | 5 |
| Perceiving (P) | 14 |
| Subordinates' Average Perception = ISFP | |

At the outset of the analysis session, Tom reiterated his difficulty in completing the KTS instrument. Initially, he could not explain why this was so, but after reviewing the results of his data together with his staff's data and the reviewer's narrative interpretation, he saw finally where the initial difficulties had been. When Tom saw his own scores and heard the interpretation of them, he agreed that his I and S scores appeared accurate, but that the T and J scores were really not how he truly perceived himself. In combination, Tom felt the qualities of an ISTJ did not reflect what in

fact he believed about himself. He saw that he did not possess the single-minded concentration strongly characteristic of ISTJs. Furthermore, he rejected other aspects of ISTJs which underscore the tendency to ignore the views and feelings of others who disagree with them. At this point Tom asked to review his staff's perceptions of him. When their scores and the interpretation of them were analyzed and indicated that he was an ISFP, Tom strongly agreed with their perceptions as the way he truly saw himself.

In the ISFP profile strong consideration is given to reliance upon personal feelings as the criteria for judgment. Loyalties and ideals rule the lives of such people. Yet they seldom reveal their deepest feelings which are concealed by their quiet reserve. Another characteristic we can infer about ISFPs is their desire to have their work contribute to the advancement of human understanding or happiness at the expense of materialistic gains. In fact both he and the researcher remarked how, on several occasions, Tom had rejected salary increases because he felt the money should go to staff or instructional supplies for his students.

An additional quality of an ISFP type which helped Tom determine his actual type preference was how ISFPs consistently underestimate and understate themselves.

Tom expressed how this trait was so characteristic that it had caused him considerable worry at times. When he was reminded of his initial concerns about having his staff assess his leadership, he smiled and realized clearly the basis for his reaction. It was these insights, Tom discovered, which explained his responses to and difficulties with the KTS. His feelings of uncertainty compelled him to respond as the "hard-headed" realist he felt he should be as an administrator. He revealed now how threatened he had felt expressing his true feelings (a characteristic of a true ISFP) on the test. It was only through the analysis session and his trust in the researcher that he could discuss the personal assessments of his personality type. Tom's openness and sensitivity throughout the analysis of his personality type enabled him to become more comfortable with the second part of the analysis, his leadership style. Prior to presenting the data, the researcher explained the theory of SLT to Tom. Afterwards, Tom reviewed this data as outlined in Table 22.

Tom's two-style preferences were shown to be 2 and 3. Like Ann, Tom's alternate-style range was characterized by his ability to work well with individuals possessing average to moderately average task relevance maturity. His leadership style with both highly mature and less

Table 22. Tom's alternate style range ranked from high to low.

| QUADRANT | SCORE | DESCRIPTION OF STYLE PREFERENCE |
|----------|-------|---------------------------------|
| 2 | 7 | High Task/High Relationship |
| 3 | 3 | High Relationship/Low Task |
| 1 | 1 | High Task/Low Relationship |
| 4 | 1 | Low Relationship/Low Task |

mature groups was least developed.

A review of Tom's subordinates' perceptions of his leadership style is shown in Table 23.

Tom's subordinates perceived his alternate style range in a somewhat different way. But in terms of Tom's two-style preference, both Tom and his staff agreed. Given their view of Tom's personality type, specifically his F function, Tom was not surprised by their response. However, Tom felt that both sets of scores did not convey his sense that his leadership behavior varied a great deal more. He wondered to what extent his staff's perceptions were determined by the three hours per week the staff and he spent together in faculty meetings

Table 23. Subordinates' perceptions of Tom's alternate style range ranked from high to low. (N=19)

| QUADRANT | RAW SCORE | AVERAGE SCORE | DESCRIPTION OF STYLE PREFERENCE |
|----------|-----------|---------------|---------------------------------|
| 2 | 100 | 5.2 | High Task/High Relationship |
| 3 | 87 | 4.6 | High Relationship/Low Task |
| 4 | 24 | 1.3 | Low Relationship/Low Task |
| 1 | 17 | .9 | High Task/Low Relationship |

at times when he exhibited his greatest degree of task orientation and decision-making. In response to Tom's feelings, we reviewed the data obtained from his appropriate response style range as seen in Tables 24 and 25.

Tom's appropriate response style range supported his belief that he utilized a wide variability of leadership styles, but with emphasis upon a two-style preference of 2 and 1. This profile is highlighted by a leader's ability to increase and decrease his or her relationship behavior while he or she continues to provide structure and direction. The advantage of this style of leadership

Table 24. Appropriate response style range by quadrant.

| QUADRANT | TOM'S SCORE | SUBORDINATES' SCORE (N=19) | SUBORDINATES' AVERAGE SCORE |
|----------|-------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1 | 5 | 32 | 1.7 |
| 2 | 6 | 53 | 2.8 |
| 3 | 3 | 71 | 3.7 |
| 4 | 4 | 26 | 1.4 |

Table 25. Combined appropriate response style range ranked high to low.

| TOM'S STYLE RANGE | SUBORDINATES' PERCEIVED STYLE RANGE (N=19) |
|--------------------------------|--|
| S2 High Task/High Relationship | S3 High Relationship/Low Task |
| S1 High Task/Low Relationship | S2 High Task/High Relationship |
| S4 Low Relationship/Low Task | S1 High Task/Low Relationship |
| S3 High Relationship/Low Task | S4 Low Relationship/Low Task |

is seen in situations of crisis or where the time allowed to complete a goal is limited. However, once the pressures of such constraints are removed, the leader may be

unable to direct and/or facilitate moderate and mature subordinates toward becoming more independent. As Tom thought about this information he acknowledged how much he had been the one setting goals, albeit with his staff's input, without seriously considering ways to delegate authority to mature staff members. On the other hand, Tom's staff saw his leadership style in nearly the same way as their assessment of his appropriate response style range. They still perceived considerable socioemotional support from him. Yet, they also felt he used little S4 (LR-LT) behavior.

While the data on Tom's alternate style range were quite similar to his subordinates' scores, a wide discrepancy existed between the results found in their appropriate response style range scoring. This difference was illustrated in the effectiveness dimension scores as seen in Figures 17 and 18.

In Tom's case, his effectiveness score supported his position that he did utilize a wide variety of leadership styles. In addition, he demonstrated the ability to diagnose accurately situations requiring style flexibility. However, Tom's subordinates perceived less flexibility in Tom's role as principal and responded accordingly. To a moderate degree, Tom has neither clearly demonstrated nor communicated his full leadership style to his staff.

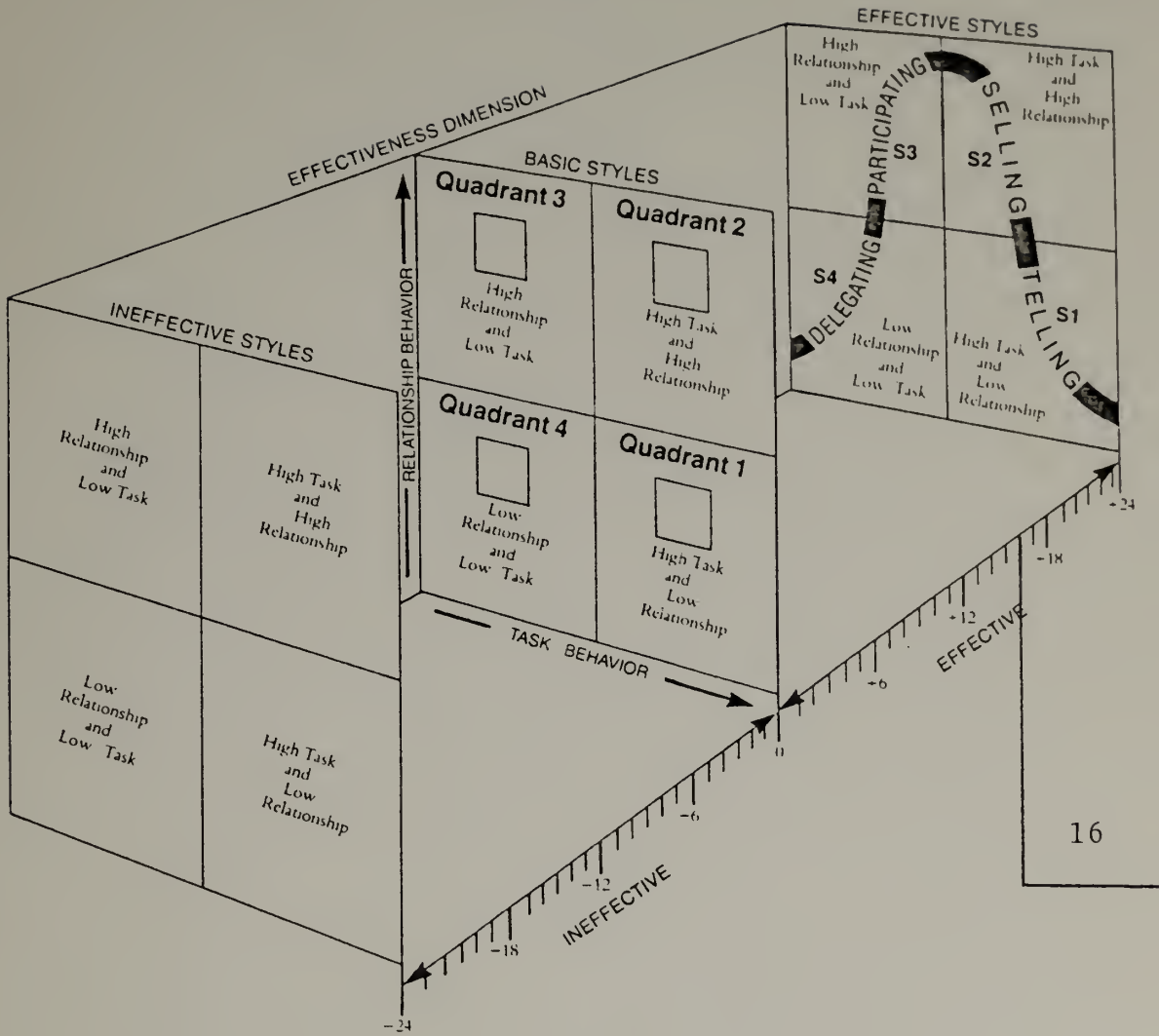


Figure 17. Tom's effectiveness score.

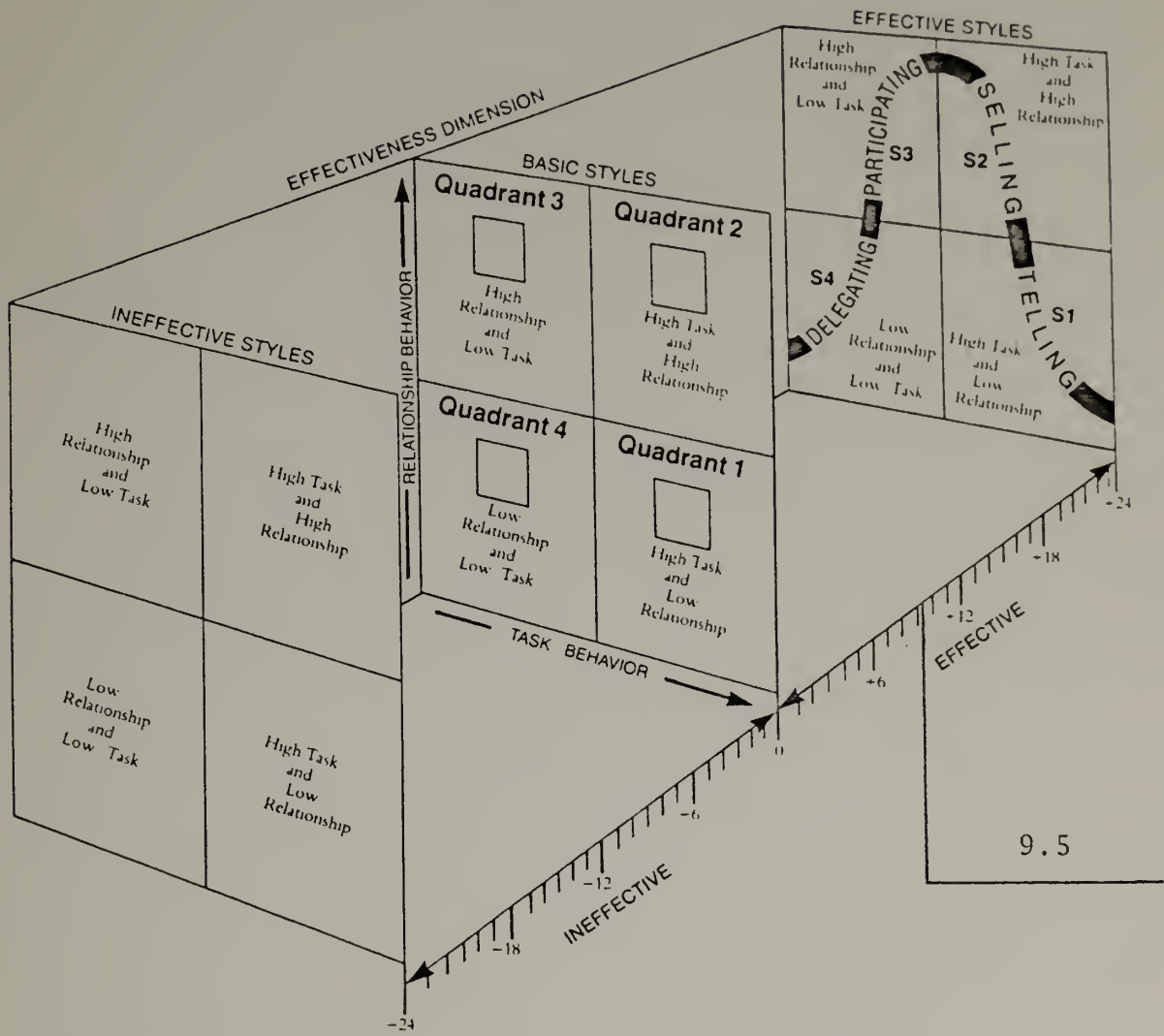
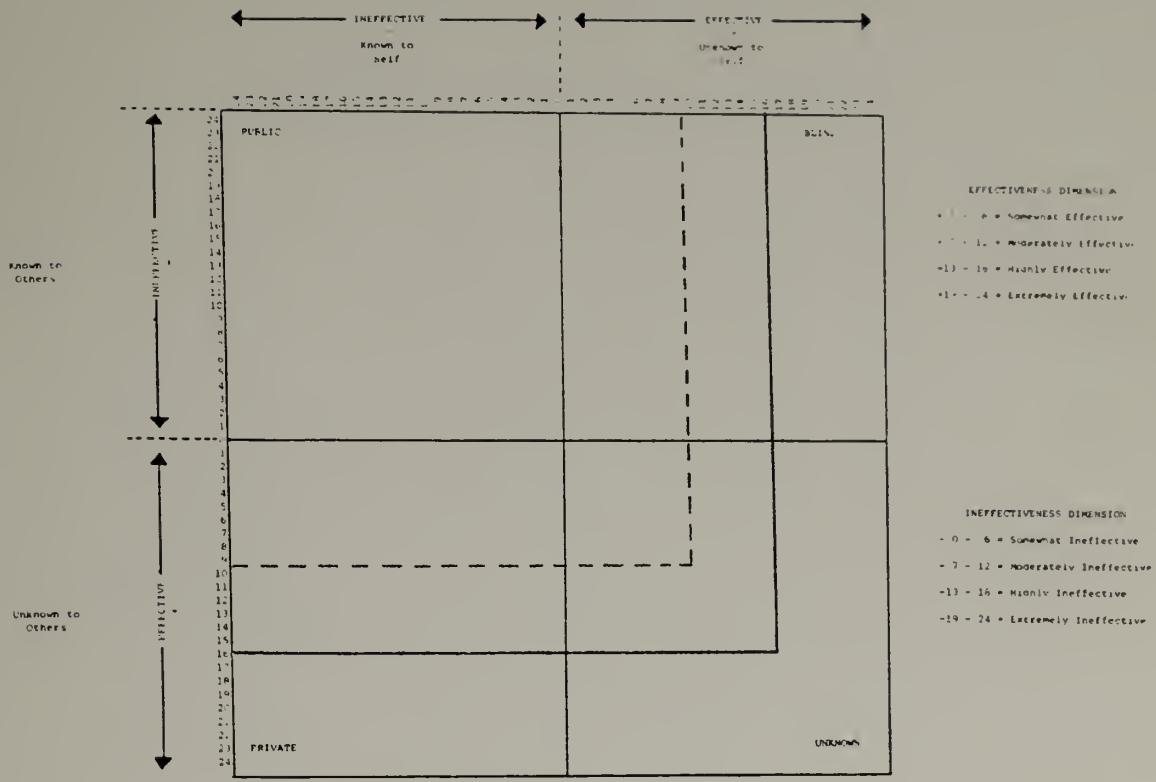


Figure 18. Tom's effectiveness as perceived by his staff.

Hence, the feedback he has received on the basis of the LEAD/OTHER data reflects a strong 2 and 3 style preference. The use of the Johari Window reflects this communication difference as depicted in Figure 19.

Implications of findings. While the KTS did not reveal what Tom felt to be his actual personality type, it did provide him with an opportunity to express traits he felt he needed to be a more complete leader. His recognized need to become more objective about making decisions with both firmness and impersonal detachment was revealed in choosing a T function as part of his personality type. By adding more balance between his avowed F function, Tom felt his judgment of people and their performance would be enhanced.

With respect to his J-P mode, Tom indicated how tentative he can be in making decisions, often seeking more information and then changing his mind again and again. This feeling of indecisiveness bothered Tom because he somehow felt that his inability to make hard decisions was due at times to his ineffectiveness as a leader. But such is not the case in Tom's situation. In fact, when he was reminded how he had overcome rather difficult administrative issues in his school, he commented that he hadn't really looked at it that way.



KEY:
 Tom (—) = 16
 Others (--) = 9.5
 Difference = +6.5

Figure 19. A comparison of Tom's effectiveness using the Johari Window.

As he continued to analyze the traits of an ISFP, he was inclined to agree that he was, indeed, a practical, caring individual who dealt with concrete problems in an expeditious way. He agreed that he adapted easily to change and even welcomed it. While Tom concurred that he did have the ability of his type to ascertain where breakdowns occurred in his organization, he also felt that while he could offer remedies, he often did not bring closure to the problem. Rather, his tendency was to address the current demands of his school while forgetting past issues. Such qualities epitomize the ISFP. As he examined these inconsistencies in his self-analysis, he understood why his staff might perceive him as being less task oriented (S3) than he saw himself.

Tom felt strongly that his personality type matched his leadership style to a very great extent. He saw himself as a person who cared about his subordinates, but who felt a compelling responsibility to carry out the responsibilities attendant on his role as principal. These feelings emerged more accurately, he felt, in the review of his appropriate response style range. He determined, however, that he needed to communicate his true feelings to his staff more clearly because, as he aptly stated, "It's important to me personally and, I believe, to the morale and effective functioning of

the staff that my self-perceptions be in line with those of the staff."

Case three. Karen had nearly completed her first year as principal of her school at the time of this study. However, she had served as interim principal of the school for a half-year prior to her permanent appointment. A woman with diverse and considerable training, Karen brought an extensive background of theoretical and practical experience to her position although this was her first administrative position in an elementary public school. Karen is a thoughtful, intelligent person. She exhibits a quiet confidence in her abilities and she proved to be a distinct asset to this investigation.

Karen succeeded an eminently popular principal, Beth, who had the unswerving loyalty of virtually all her staff. Beth had assumed her role at a time when the school's staff lacked coherence and a sense of purpose. She had unified the staff through personnel changes and by fostering an esprit de corp among the group. It was during Beth's half-year absence that Karen became interim principal. During this time, Karen had the opportunity to get to know the staff, but she accurately perceived herself as a "gate keeper." When Beth resigned, however, Karen became the unanimous staff and administrative choice

for principal.

Karen spoke candidly about the difficulties of assuming the permanent position. In the interim position, she had a chance to get to know the staff both as individuals and as professionals working under a philosophy of another administrator. She discussed how it was difficult at times to work under these conditions because she thought it inappropriate to implement her philosophy knowing that she would be leaving in a short time. Now she recognized that assumptions about her leadership and philosophy might have been made by the staff which might not be accurate. As a result, she would need to express her views gradually and in a way which would not be stressful to her subordinates. Consequently, she wanted to know how the staff had responded to her leadership during the past year.

Karen completed the KTS with minimal difficulty. During the beginning of the analysis session, she offered interesting comments about the instrument and her reactions to it. The findings of the test caused Karen to smile for she felt they did provide an accurate profile of her typology. Table 26 details her results.

The results of the seven members of Karen's staff who responded to the TAI are reported in Table 27.

Table 26. Karen's KTS profile.

| FUNCTION | RESPONSE PATTERN |
|--------------------------------|------------------|
| Extraverted (E) | 6 |
| Introverted (I) | 4 |
| Sensing (S) | 8 |
| Intuitive (N) | 12 |
| Thinking (T) | 13 |
| Feeling (F) | 7 |
| Judging (J) | 8 |
| Perceiving (P) | 12 |
| Karen's Self-Perception = ENTP | |

Table 27. Subordinates' perceptions of Karen's personality type.

| FUNCTION | RESPONSE PATTERN (N=7) |
|---|---------------------------|
| Extraverted (E) | 4 |
| Introverted (I) | 3 |
| Sensing (S) | 7 |
| Intuitive (N) | 0 |
| Thinking (T) | 1 |
| Feeling (F) | 6 |
| Judging (J) | 1 |
| Perceiving (P) | 6 |
| Subordinates' Average Perception = ESFP | |

During the analysis of her own scores, Karen remarked that the descriptions unique to the ENTP type described her quite well. As the traits indicate, Karen saw herself to be independent, analytical and critical of her ideas. She agreed that her imagination, initiative and impulsive energy were strong hallmarks of her personality. Unlike a true ENTP who tends to be more impersonal, Karen felt her relationships with people were personal, but that they could change when goals or the completion of tasks were at stake.

Karen spoke with assurance about her ability to understand people and to use their knowledge to motivate and direct them toward completing their tasks. Much of this discussion included interesting vignettes of her past experience which only reinforced how well Karen knew herself. She admitted how her independence had created problems for her in the past and how she had come to realize the importance of compromise and acquiescence.

As she examined her staff's perceptions, she said, "My subordinates' perceptions are based on my behavior at school--behavior based on what I deem necessary in the situation but not characteristic of me. So, in a sense, it is situationally accurate." As she elaborated on this point, Karen explained how important it was for

her staff to have an F type leader at this point in their professional lives. She believed they would have had a difficult time adapting to a less personalized style. She expressed some concern about them developing a dependency relationship as a result. But for now it appeared to be the appropriate response to their needs.

She was also cognizant of how she emerged as an S type to the group. One problem which she saw with respect to the staff was their general inability to meet deadlines. Karen wanted to change that situation and so had become firm on this issue "on principle." She concluded the first part of the analysis by stating that the findings were consistent with her perceptions of herself.

The second phase of the analysis focused upon Karen's leadership style. When asked about her knowledge of SLT, Karen recalled having some experience with the theory, but was vague in remembering its specific points. As the researcher explained the theory to her, she began to reconstruct her experience with it and was able to integrate her recollections with the information being presented. Table 28 outlines Karen's responses to the LEAD/SELF test.

Table 28. Karen's alternate style range ranked from high to low.

| QUADRANT | SCORE | DESCRIPTION OF STYLE PREFERENCE |
|----------|-------|---------------------------------|
| 2 | 6 | High Task/High Relationship |
| 3 | 5 | High Relationship/Low Task |
| 1 | 1 | High Task/Low Relationship |
| 4 | 0 | Low Relationship/Low Task |

Karen's two-style preferences were determined to be 2 and 3. It is the style which is used typically with subordinates who possess average levels of maturity. Karen felt that her scores reflected her style of leadership to a great extent but she also added that she thought she had used more style 1 (HT-LR) in her work to date. She explained that on a variety of issues she has had to set goals, monitor performance closely, and limit socioemotional support for a number of the staff because several individuals had not demonstrated clearly a high level of task relevant maturity. At this point, Karen asked to compare the staff's perceptions. These are

outlined in Table 29.

Table 29. Subordinates' perceptions of Karen's alternate style range ranked from high to low. (N=7)

| QUADRANT | RAW SCORE | AVERAGE SCORE | DESCRIPTION OF STYLE PREFERENCE |
|----------|-----------|---------------|---------------------------------|
| 2 | 37 | 5.3 | High Task/High Relationship |
| 3 | 32 | 4.6 | High Relationship/Low Task |
| 1 | 10 | 1.4 | High Task/Low Relationship |
| 4 | 5 | .7 | Low Relationship/Low Task |

Karen's subordinates' perceptions matched her scores exactly. Karen was somewhat surprised to learn that the results did not reflect her use of S1 (HT-LR) behavior. The review of the appropriate response style range data found in Tables 30 and 31 helped clarify this issue.

The appropriate response style range scores yielded a two-style range of 1 and 2 for Karen and 2 and 1 for her subordinates. This style, effective with low to moderate levels of subordinate behavior, characterized Karen's feelings about the style of leadership which she

Table 30. Appropriate response style range by quadrant.

| QUADRANT | KAREN'S SCORE | SUBORDINATES' SCORE (N=7) | SUBORDINATES' AVERAGE SCORE |
|----------|---------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1 | 5 | 21 | 3 |
| 2 | 4 | 27 | 3.8 |
| 3 | 2 | 20 | 2.8 |
| 4 | 4 | 6 | .8 |

Table 31. Combined appropriate response style range ranked high to low.

| KAREN'S STYLE RANGE | SUBORDINATES' PERCEIVED STYLE RANGE (N=7) |
|--------------------------------|---|
| S1 High Task/Low Relationship | S2 High Task/High Relationship |
| S2 High Task/High Relationship | S1 High Task/Low Relationship |
| S3 High Relationship/Low Task | S3 High Relationship/Low Task |
| S4 Low Relationship/Low Task | S4 Low Relationship/Low Task |

felt compelled to use with her staff at this point in her tenure as principal. It was assuring to her to see in the data that she felt her perceived style of interaction

with her staff was validated by their perceptions. Karen maintained that for her the appropriate response style range was more meaningful to her than the alternate style range data to the extent that the former reflected more accurately her present leadership style.

The nearly parallel scores which were obtained from both Karen and her staff suggested that Karen's diagnosis of leadership situations and use of appropriate leadership style were consistent with the perceptions of her staff. A look at the effectiveness dimension found in Figures 20 and 21 scores reinforce that observation.

Karen had been able to communicate successfully her leadership style to her staff. Likewise they have provided her with adequate feedback with respect to her behavior. It became evident to Karen that although the style of leadership behavior she has utilized is not her preferred style, she has been able nonetheless to adapt to her perceived judgment of what kind of style is necessary and to implement that style in clear ways. Figure 22 notes the level of effective communication between Karen and her subordinates.

Implications of findings. The analysis revealed how well Karen was able to call upon alternative functions of

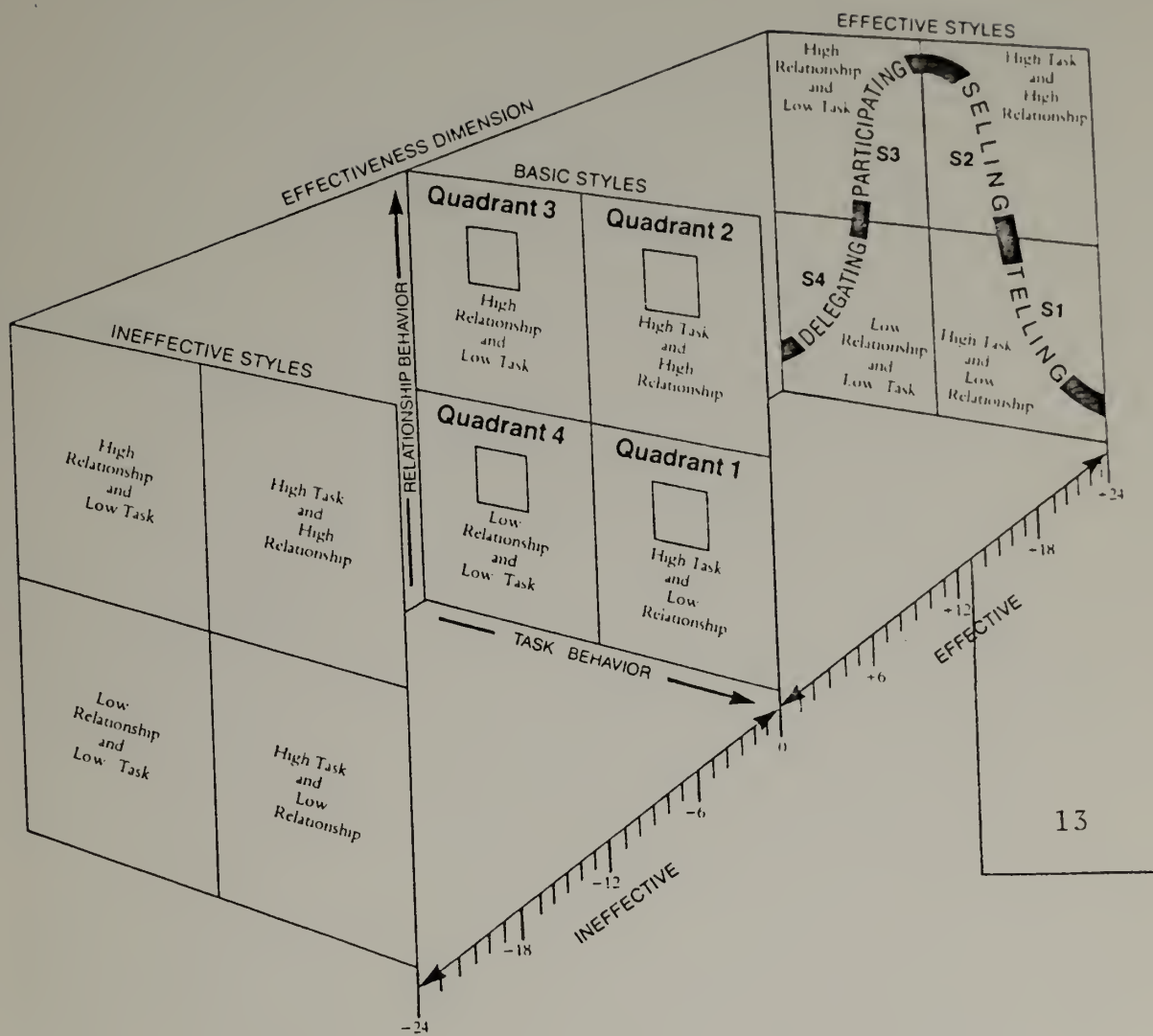


Figure 20. Karen's effectiveness score.

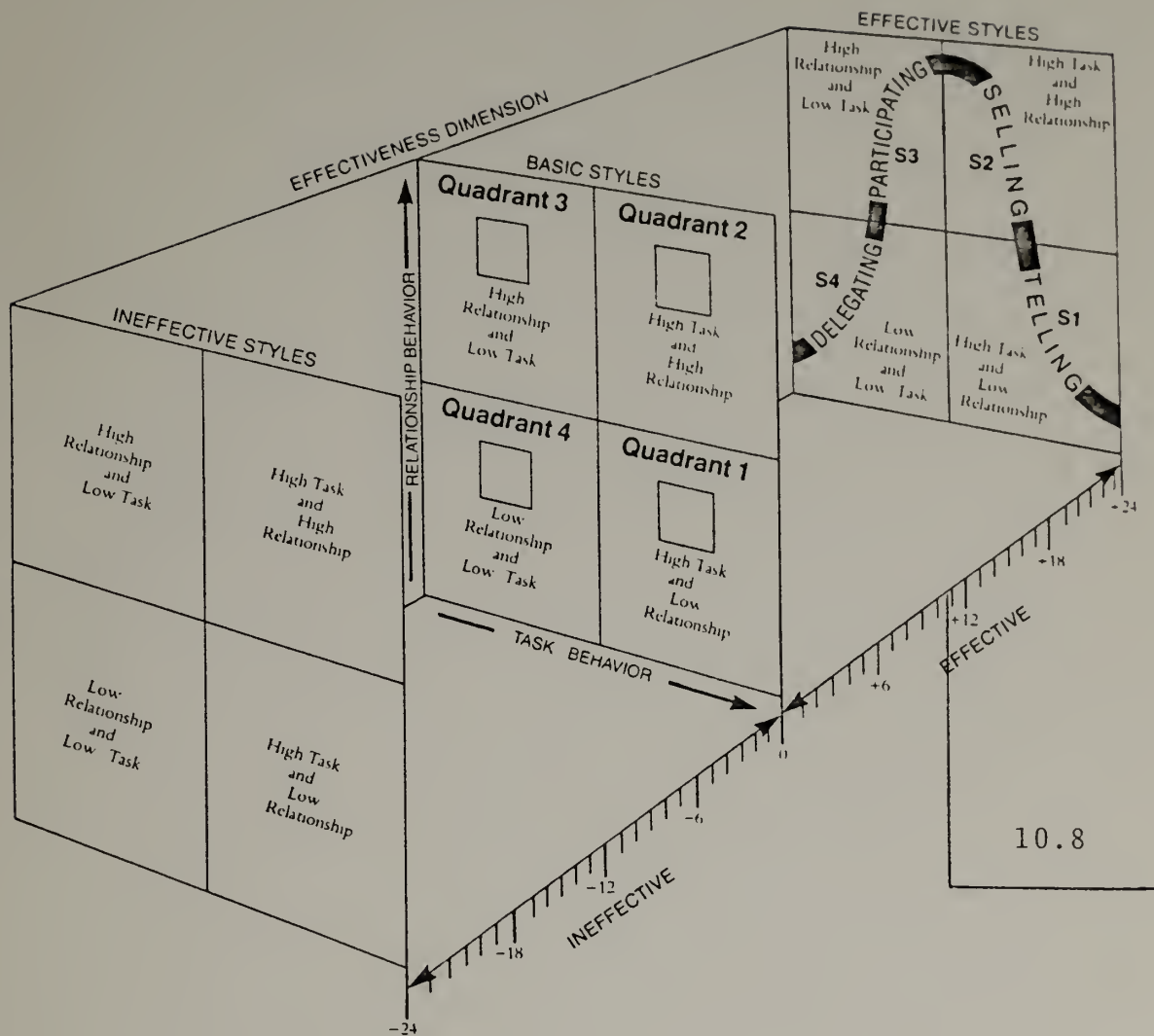
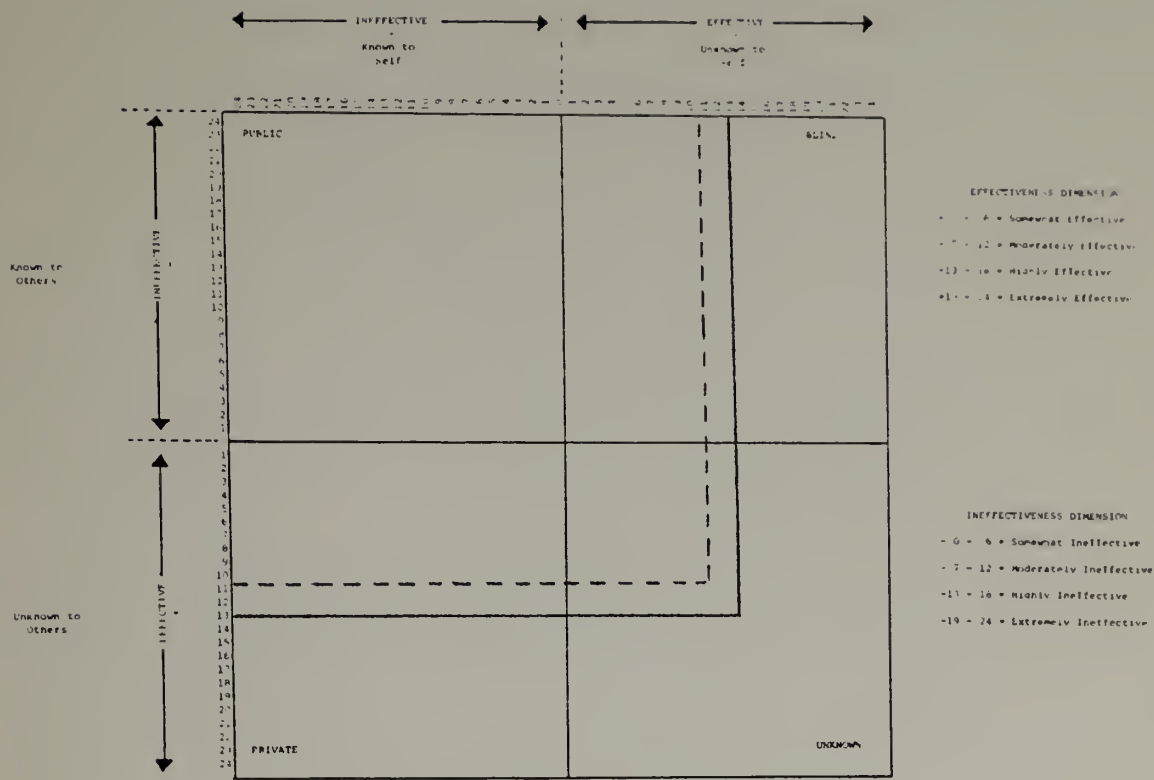


Figure 21. Karen's effectiveness as perceived by her staff.



KEY:
 Karen (—) = 13
 Others (--) = 10.8
 Difference = +2.2

Figure 22. A comparison of Karen's effectiveness using the Johari Window.

her personality type to accommodate the needs of her staff without feeling she was unable to utilize her strengths. She found the theory of personality type to be a great benefit to her. As she commented, "The information will help me consider aspects of problems in a different way, yet I will attempt to capitalize on my strengths when it is warranted." Given Karen's well-developed personality type as seen in her ability to use discriminately either her S-N functions or her T-F functions suggests that she will be able to assess problems in a differentiated style. It is her expectation to be able to utilize her N-T combinations more freely once the staff becomes less reliant upon high levels of her F function. This will be an important consideration for Karen. As a strong ENTP type, her needs to use her time and creative energies in pursuit of personally gratifying projects must be fulfilled. If her staff continues to require more of her less developed S-F functions, Karen may become frustrated in her role.

Conversely, as her well-defined personality type does emerge, she must remember to continue to address her staff's emotional needs. The tendency for ENTP types is to minimize their appreciation not because they are unappreciative, but because they unwittingly assume that

if a person has done a good job that this will be obvious to everyone and so to dwell on the matter would seem both condescending and redundant. Karen concurred with this possibility and found it important to hear.

The success which Karen had in adapting her personality type was evident in her ability to use situationally appropriate leadership behavior. While she found the LEAD/SELF results to be an accurate profile of her leadership style, she was quick to point out that the results of this test for both her subordinates and herself reflected her style in relation to the current place and time in which she found herself. She indicated that she expected her behavior to change as she continued to work with her staff but that she was uncertain in what direction it would turn. She recognized that she behaved differently than she had in previous situations, but, she added, "I believe my style remains the same; it is situational!"

Case four. David was nearing completion of six months as an elementary school principal. In that role he was the interim principal for the permanent administrator who was on leave until the midpoint of the school year. Therefore, David's tenure was to be short lived. Still, he was eager to participate in the study in order to

gain some insight into his overall leadership skills.

David had taken the temporary position after a lengthy interview process. For him it was a difficult decision because he had been a teacher in the school for nine years and was a colleague of the same teachers for whom he would now be acting principal. An extremely able and dedicated teacher, David had always been perceived by his colleagues as an individual who was thoughtful and ready to offer his opinions on matters concerning the educational processes of the school. That point of view he offered in quiet but intense ways.

Combined with his extraordinary success as a teacher and his vast knowledge of the school, one would think that David would have been a logical and easy choice for the position of interim principal. However, it became a difficult decision for both the staff and David. He was fearful, for example, that by becoming principal and then returning to the classroom he might taint his relationship with his colleagues because of possibly unpopular decisions he might have to make in his role as school administrator. The teachers too were somewhat concerned by David's possible appointment. Because his expectations and penchant for work were so incredibly high, some felt they would not be able to meet his high standards.

It wasn't until a plenary staff interview was conducted that the decision was finally made. David expressed his concerns to the staff and they in turn shared their feelings about his new role. A mutual understanding was achieved and David assumed the principalship. The immediate challenge for David was to fulfill certain goals which he had established for himself which would also assure the staff of his sincerity. To his credit, he was able to do so and at the same time gain the respect and appreciation of his colleagues for doing a fine job in the face of a potential dissonance between themselves and him. It was nearing the completion of David's tenure when the present analysis occurred.

David had some exposure to type theory and indicated an interest in learning more about it. But while taking the test it became apparent that David was indecisive about the answers he was choosing. However, he completed the test and Table 32 reveals his scores.

Twenty-three of David's subordinates completed the TAI. Their results are shown in Table 33.

As David assessed his scores on the KTS, he explained that he had tried to analyze the questions too much and so had reacted to the test by trying to "psych it out." When he reviewed the profile of both an ENTJ and an ENFJ, he found that the descriptions did not reflect his

Table 32. David's KTS profile.

| FUNCTION | RESPONSE PATTERN |
|---|------------------|
| Extraverted (E) | 6 |
| Introverted (I) | 4 |
| Sensing (S) | 7 |
| Intuitive (N) | 13 |
| Thinking (T) | 10 |
| Feeling (F) | 10 |
| Judging (J) | 14 |
| Perceiving (P) | 6 |
| David's Self-Perception = $EN_{F}^{T}J$ | |

Table 33. Subordinates' perceptions of David's personality type.

| FUNCTION | RESPONSE PATTERN (N=23) |
|---|----------------------------|
| Extraverted (E) | 6 |
| Introverted (I) | 17 |
| Sensing (S) | 17 |
| Intuitive (N) | 6 |
| Thinking (T) | 12 |
| Feeling (F) | 11 |
| Judging (J) | 11 |
| Perceiving (P) | 12 |
| Subordinates' Average Perception = ISTP | |

true feelings. At this point, he agreed to discuss the test protocol. On the basis of this analysis, David concluded that an INTJ type really came closest to how he perceived himself.

David was able to order his E-I preference as a result of the analysis. What helped him decide was his admitted preference for actively seeking private places in both his mind and his environment. He spoke at length about the strength of his ideas coming from working quietly alone, from reading and from meditating. However, it became clear to him that he had developed reasonably well his E function, which he could express quite easily with his former students and to a lesser degree with adults.

It was more difficult for David to identify his T-F preference. He indicated a real ambivalence in this area. On the one hand he spoke about the satisfaction he achieved from arguments in which he persuaded people to his point of view through logic rather than by appealing to their emotions and his predilection for making decisions based upon intellectual and impersonal analysis. On the other hand, David spoke freely about his feelings and admonished himself about being "too soft" at times. What became evident to David was that people with a strong T function do, in fact, have feelings. But unlike

their counterparts with well developed F functions, they conceal their emotions and so project to others a sense that they are cold and unemotional. On the basis of the comparative characteristics of each function, David felt that his T process was more developed than his F process.

David pondered the results of the staff's perceptions of his personality type. He wasn't clear about how they had arrived at their conclusion. He questioned aloud, "Is this how they perceived me based on their knowledge of me as a teacher or on the basis of my stint as acting principal?" It was a fair but complicated question to answer. When prodded about his interactions with the staff on both a professional and personal level, David spoke about his major role in developing salary proposals for the staff, helping to establish intricate schedules, his facility with audiovisual equipment, and abundance of creative games he had made. In addition, he talked with them often about the old house which he and his wife were restoring. These questions or interests are strongly connected with some of the traits of ISTPs who prove to be adept at bringing order out of masses of confused data and meaning out of unorganized facts. David appeared somewhat satisfied with these theoretical explanations, but he was not sure how he could reconcile

the information into a plan for self-growth.

David appeared eager to undertake the next phase of the analysis. Because he had no prior knowledge of SLT, David listened attentively as the theory was explained. Throughout the explanation he asked a variety of thought-provoking questions about both LEAD instruments and their respective rating scales. Anticipating the next step, David said rather confidently, "I see my leadership style as being S2 and S3 at this point." He was right. A review of David's LEAD/SELF appears in Table 34.

Table 34. David's alternate style ranked from high to low.

| QUADRANT | SCORE | DESCRIPTION OF STYLE PREFERENCE |
|----------|-------|---------------------------------|
| 3 | 8 | High Relationship/Low Task |
| 2 | 4 | High Task/High Relationship |
| 4 | 0 | Low Relationship/Low Task |
| 1 | 0 | High Task/Low Relationship |

David's two-style preference, like Ann's, Tom's and Karen's, was 3 and 2. It should be mentioned that Hersey

and Blanchard (1977) report that this style preference is characteristic of over 83 percent of those who have taken the LEAD instrument. Again, this style is used with groups who demonstrate average or moderate levels of maturity. David indicated that these scores accurately depicted his leadership style. He said that his personal philosophy was to encourage independence but that even as a leader his teacher training had compelled him to check in with people in order to be certain they had done things satisfactorily.

David's twenty-three subordinates saw his leadership style in essentially the same way. Table 35 represents their perceptions.

Table 35. Subordinates' perceptions of David's alternate style range ranked from high to low.
(N=23)

| QUADRANT | RAW SCORE | AVERAGE SCORE | DESCRIPTION OF STYLE PREFERENCE |
|----------|-----------|---------------|---------------------------------|
| 2 | 132 | 5.7 | High Task/High Relationship |
| 3 | 39 | 3.6 | High Relationship/Low Task |
| 1 | 82 | 1.7 | High Task/Low Relationship |
| 4 | 23 | 1 | Low Relationship/Low Task |

David commented that he wasn't sure that the LEAD/OTHER scores provided accurate information. "It seems to me," he said, "that each person's assessment of another's behavior is influenced by his or her own personality and behavior."

The next part of the analysis was a review of David's appropriate response style range. Tables 36 and 37 illustrate these results.

Table 36. Appropriate response style range by quadrant.

| QUADRANT | DAVID'S SCORE | SUBORDINATES' SCORE (N=23) | SUBORDINATES' AVERAGE SCORE |
|----------|---------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1 | 1 | 74 | 3.2 |
| 2 | 5 | 54 | 2.4 |
| 3 | 6 | 47 | 2.1 |
| 4 | 3 | 9 | .4 |

The appropriate response style range scores revealed a discrepancy between David's self-perceptions and those of his subordinates. Like the alternate style range results, David's two-style preference yielded a 3 and 2 style. However, his subordinates' scores showed David's style to be 1 and 2. The qualities of such a style suggest a

Table 37. Combined appropriate response style range ranked high to low.

| DAVID'S STYLE RANGE | SUBORDINATES' PERCEIVED STYLE RANGE (N=23) |
|--------------------------------|--|
| S3 High Relationship/Low Task | S1 High Task/Low Relationship |
| S2 High Task/High Relationship | S2 High Task/High Relationship |
| S4 Low Relationship/Low Task | S3 High Relationship/Low Task |
| S1 High Task/Low Relationship | S4 Low Relationship/Low Task |

tendency for the leader to be able to raise or lower socio-emotional support but to wish to remain in the position of being in charge or providing direction. With respect to the teacher who has become an administrator, he/she still wants to be directing the activities of students, and often conveys a feeling among subordinates that "no one can do it better than I." Often, this becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy.

David was chagrined somewhat by this observation because he felt that he had been particularly careful not to react critically of the staff's teaching during his observations. It was pointed out to David that the staff may not have had the opportunity to assess fully his

leadership style and that their perceptions may have been rooted in their knowledge of him as a colleague in which case his tenacity for his work may have projected this image. David was uncertain about the disparity in the scores, but he still felt the insights of his new subordinates were quite beneficial. When asked why, he said, "It helps me to realize that some don't know the reasons behind my behavior and I might think about being clearer with them." The effectiveness scores for David reflected his thoughts as seen in Figures 23 and 24.

The effectiveness dimension scores may be viewed in terms of the communication between David and his staff concerning his leadership style. The review of David's Johari Window as seen in Figure 25 suggests David was not as open as he believed he was in sharing information about his leadership style. Consequently, the staff's scores reflected some uncertainty about his style, which resulted in a somewhat lower effectiveness score and a relatively wide disparity between their respective scores.

Implications of findings. The analysis of David's personality type revealed several things. First, David found that his T-F function was sufficiently balanced to the extent that he could use either process well, but that he used his F function more with his students and close friends and, to a lesser degree, with others. Secondly,

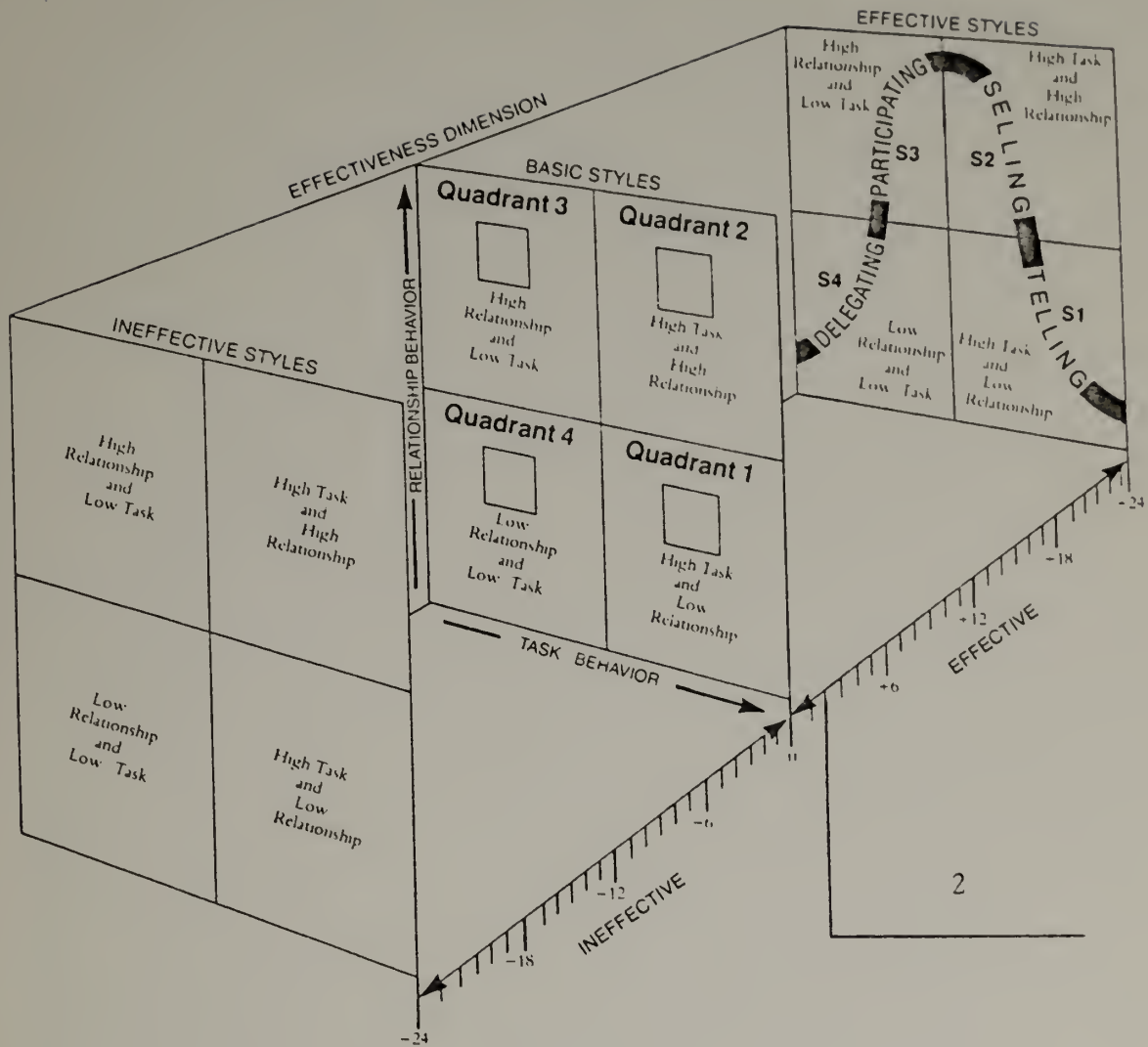


Figure 23. David's effectiveness score.

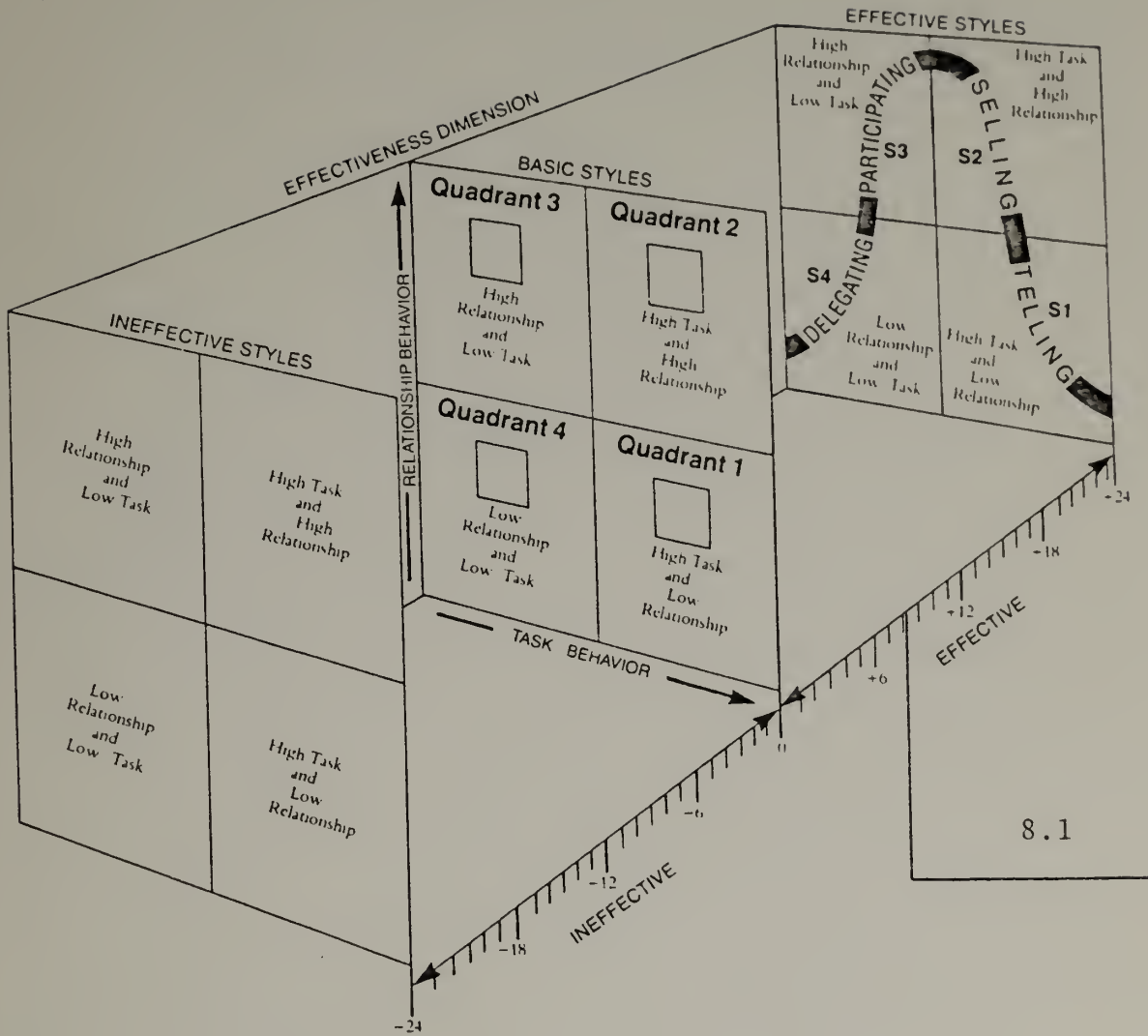


Figure 24. David's effectiveness as perceived by his staff.

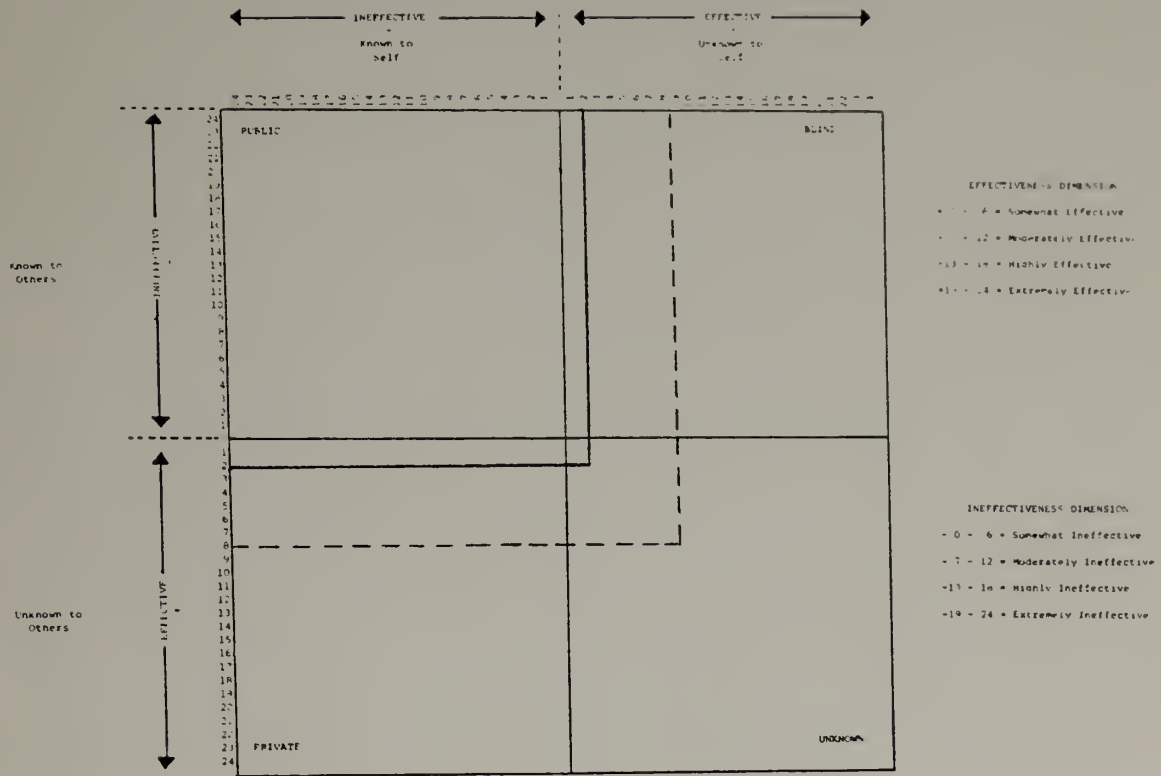


Figure 25. A comparison of David's effectiveness using the Johari Window.

David found that his E-I preference on the KTS suggested his preferred choice to be E. Upon discussing his score, he found that his I function really was more predominant. What David concluded was that his responses to the test items were those that might be expected of a "leader," not of his true self. He came to recognize the importance to himself of achieving more balance between his E-I preferences, but not at the expense of subordinating his major preference, I, to an auxiliary role. Finally, David was pleased to think others might see a developed S function in his personality. One of his concerns about having taken the interim principalship was projecting an image of organization, adhering to deadlines, and decisiveness. These characteristics, particularly the first two, were not typical of David as a teacher. He remarked how conscious he was of being certain to heighten his awareness in these areas even though such traits were not truly reflective of his personality.

David's combined type preference suggested that of an INTJ which was not too removed from the staff's perceptions of him (ISTP). The analysis confirmed for him many feelings about how his personality type might merge into a leadership role. He found satisfaction in learning that as an INTJ leader his strengths were found in long-range

planning, the ability to easily group the complexities of an organization, and the skill to focus upon possibilities for the system. He was pleased to learn that INTJ types are often perceived as visionaries with strong conceptual qualities.

The analysis pointed out to David that a weakness in an INTJ's managerial style was to expect a great deal of himself or herself and others, often more than can be delivered. It was this aspect of David's personality which had raised the staff's concerns about him as interim principal. He felt this issue was extremely important to recognize and address as one clear implication for improving his work with the staff regardless of his position.

David felt the analysis of his leadership style was highly beneficial. While his scores and those of his subordinates revealed a similar two-style preference of S2 and S3, the appropriate style range scores were dissimilar. David's personality type suggested a leadership style of S2 and S3, but when the staff's appropriate style response data were analyzed, it was found that they perceived David's style to be S1 and S2. Consequently, their perceptions of David's leadership style and his view of his own style indicated a somewhat broad discrepancy as indicated in Figure 25.

David pondered these differences and reflected upon

his interactions with the staff. After discussing his relationships with the staff, it became apparent to David that because he was new to the position, his high level of involvement in many facets of school-related issues may have been perceived as highly task-oriented. Furthermore, his desire to offer thoughtful responses to staff comments combined with alternative points of view (a strong trait of an INTJ) could have been viewed as controlling and directing by them. David acknowledged these possibilities and affirmed that he would think about ways of becoming clearer with the staff in terms of his interactions with them and his intentions as a leader "as much as my INTJ personality will allow."

Case five. As Superintendent of Schools for the school district, Neil was completing his seventh year of service at the time of this analysis. A reflective but approachable man, Neil came to his present position with relatively little administrative experience. Consequently, much of his experience as an educational leader had been acquired in his present position. Well educated, inquiring and bright, Neil's theoretical training had been in the broad area of the humanities. His experience with Jungian Typology was casual and his knowledge of Situational Leadership Theory negligible. Consequently, he was most willing to

participate in the study and to gain insights into his leadership behavior.

The subordinates' data were collected from five principals who had worked directly with Neil. Their average experience working with him was three-and-a-half years with a range of from seven years to six months. Because the school district's organizational hierarchy has the superintendent directly above the principals, they work extremely close with him. Therefore, they have considerable opportunity to observe his behavior in a myriad of situations.

Neil finished the KTS with no difficulty, but offered several comments about the test items and his responses to them during the time he was completing the test protocol. His profile is indicated in Table 38.

Table 39 indicates Neil's subordinates' perceptions of his personality type.

Initially, Neil felt the KTS profile portrayed his personality type to a great extent. When the conflicting results of his subordinates were shared with him, he asked for a detailed explanation of each function in order to evaluate his own results. Upon an extensive review of the characteristics of extraverts and introverts, Neil concluded that the traits of an extravert applied more

Table 38. Neil's KTS profile.

| FUNCTION | RESPONSE PATTERN |
|--|------------------|
| Extraverted (E) | 6 |
| Introverted (I) | 4 |
| Sensing (S) | 9 |
| Intuitive (N) | 11 |
| Thinking (T) | 10 |
| Feeling (F) | 10 |
| Judging (J) | 12 |
| Perceiving (P) | 8 |
| Neil's Self-Perception = $EN_{F}^{T}J$ | |

Table 39. Subordinates' perceptions of Neil's personality type.

| FUNCTION | RESPONSE PATTERN (N=5) |
|---|---------------------------|
| Extraverted (E) | 2 |
| Introverted (I) | 3 |
| Sensing (S) | 4 |
| Intuitive (N) | 1 |
| Thinking (T) | 2 |
| Feeling (F) | 3 |
| Judging (J) | 1 |
| Perceiving (P) | 4 |
| Subordinates' Average Perception = ISFP | |

accurately to him in work-related situations. However, his personal relationships were more indicative of an introverted type. It was evident that Neil's response to the KTS which ordered his E-I preference rated his E preference higher. The directions for The Typology Assessment Indicator (TAI), however, emphasized personal interactions. Therefore, Neil understood why his subordinates would see him as a well-defined I type. Neil concurred with that observation.

A similar pattern of opposing results appeared in Neil's S-N preference. He was able to explain his preference for the N function in relation to his private world of thoughts and ideas. Yet, he understood how others might perceive him as an S type in work situations whereby realistically established and quick decisions are the expected style of behavior which subordinates expect of a superintendent. At this point, Neil remarked how the job had shaped his personality in terms of how others perceived him. In quieter, personal moments, Neil found himself to be more imaginative and speculative but that his S function was more predominant in his relationships with his subordinates.

Neil's balanced T-F score appeared justified on the basis of his comments about his personal difficulty of

being objective or subjective in situations involving personal and human dilemmas. He explained how much he had relied upon his F function, something in the past which had often caused him considerable anguish. Hence, he felt he had worked hard in recent years to become more objective in the decision-making process. The extremely close scores detailed in Tables 37 and 38 support Neil's observations and indicate that he has made progress in using either function with relative ease. For the purpose of establishing a type preference, Neil indicated his true preference was the F function which coincided with his subordinates' conclusions.

Neil laughed about the disparity in J-P scores. He acknowledged that the group's perceptions of him were probably more accurate. He explained how he saw many of the items on the KTS which measured the J-P preference as the way he preferred to be and so had answered them accordingly. As the analysis continued, Neil remarked how this aspect of his personality was problematic for him and that he had "projected" a preference style of what he ought to be rather than what he was. The analysis session helped Neil determine that his personality type was well developed in both his E-I preference and his T-F function. However, he agreed that an ISFP description represented more of the characteristics of his personality.

His ability to comfortably work with people had emerged slowly, but the interactions were warm and sincere. He found most significant the idea that an ISFP type is open-minded, flexible and adaptable until something he or she values most deeply is threatened, at which time he or she will stop adapting. Neil felt this description expressed a major trait of his which posed difficulties for him as a leader.

Neil was interested to assess his leadership style particularly in relation to his personality type. Neil's alternate style range scores appear in Table 40.

Table 40. Neil's alternate style range ranked from high to low.

| QUADRANT | SCORE | DESCRIPTION OF STYLE PREFERENCE |
|----------|-------|---------------------------------|
| 2 | 6 | High Task/High Relationship |
| 3 | 3 | High Relationship/Low Task |
| 1 | 2 | High Task/Low Relationship |
| 4 | 1 | Low Relationship/Low Task |

Like all the leaders who participated in the study, Neil's two-style preference appeared to be S2 and S3. Neil reflected upon these results and remarked how, in spite of the high level of task relevant maturity many of his administrators possessed, he always had the need to be kept abreast of their activities. Often, he initiated lengthy discussions with them and offered suggestions to them if only to demonstrate his support of their efforts. What Neil recognized was his inability to utilize style 4 behavior with individuals who were highly capable of working both independently and successfully without his direct supervision. Neil was eager to see his subordinates' scores which appear in Table 41.

As Neil reviewed his subordinates' scores, he remarked how they had confirmed his limited use of style 4 with them. In addition, he was impressed by the relatively low response to style 1. He and the researcher discussed this at length. Neil recalled how he allowed his administrators considerable latitude (S3 behavior) but he still felt that if problems arose, he wanted to become directly involved in the problem-solving and decision-making process (S2 and S1 behavior). Neil's appropriate response style range (Tables 42 and 43) underscored his feelings.

Table 41. Subordinates' perceptions of Neil's alternate style range ranked from high to low. (N=5)

| QUADRANT | RAW SCORE | AVERAGE SCORE | DESCRIPTION OF STYLE PREFERENCE |
|----------|-----------|---------------|---------------------------------|
| 3 | 35 | 7 | High Relationship/Low Task |
| 2 | 23 | 4.6 | High Task/High Relationship |
| 1 | 2 | .4 | High Task/Low Relationship |
| 4 | 0 | 0 | Low Relationship/Low Task |

Table 42. Appropriate response style range by quadrant.

| QUADRANT | NEIL'S SCORE | SUBORDINATES' SCORE (N=5) | SUBORDINATES' AVERAGE SCORE |
|----------|--------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1 | 5 | 3 | .6 |
| 2 | 5 | 16 | 3.2 |
| 3 | 2 | 19 | 3.8 |
| 4 | 2 | 9 | 1.8 |

Table 43. Combined appropriate response style range ranked high to low.

| NEIL'S STYLE RANGE | SUBORDINATES' PERCEIVED STYLE RANGE (N=5) |
|--------------------------------|---|
| S2 High Task/High Relationship | S3 High Relationship/Low Task |
| S1 High Task/Low Relationship | S2 High Task/High Relationship |
| S3 High Relationship/Low Task | S4 Low Task/Low Relationship |
| S4 Low Task/Low Relationship | S1 High Task/Low Relationship |

Neil agreed with the analysis of his appropriate style range scores to the extent that he reacted firmly to crisis situations by moving abruptly from either S3 or S2 to S1 behavior. He discussed several instances where this had occurred. What he learned from the experiences was how he allowed his feelings to interfere with his objectivity until serious circumstances jarred him into decisive action. He realized the impact his T-F function had had on such situations. For example, he had allowed his subjective opinions (F function) to override both others' opinions or his own objectivity (T function) until he was convinced that a situation was more serious than he had originally

believed. Hence, his involvement in the problem occurred much later than it should have. As a result the problem became more intensified than it might otherwise have been had he been more objective and moved gradually to a more task-oriented leadership style.

Figures 26 and 27 reveal Neil's effectiveness score and his average effectiveness score respectively.

An analysis of the extremely close effectiveness dimension scores for Neil and his subordinates revealed two patterns. First, there was a high level of clarity in the manner in which Neil communicated or demonstrated his leadership style to his principals. Second, a close review of the data suggested that the principals' perceptions of how Neil diagnosed various leadership situations and the leadership style he utilized in a given situation were highly consistent with his self-perceptions. In terms of the Johari Window concept, it is quite clear that close communication exists between Neil and his principals. Figure 28 illustrates this relationship.

Implications of findings. Neil found the analysis sessions quite beneficial. He saw how his personality type had affected his leadership style when he remembered a crisis in leadership which had been the most arduous challenge he had experienced in his seven years as superintendent. Now, for the first time, he understood

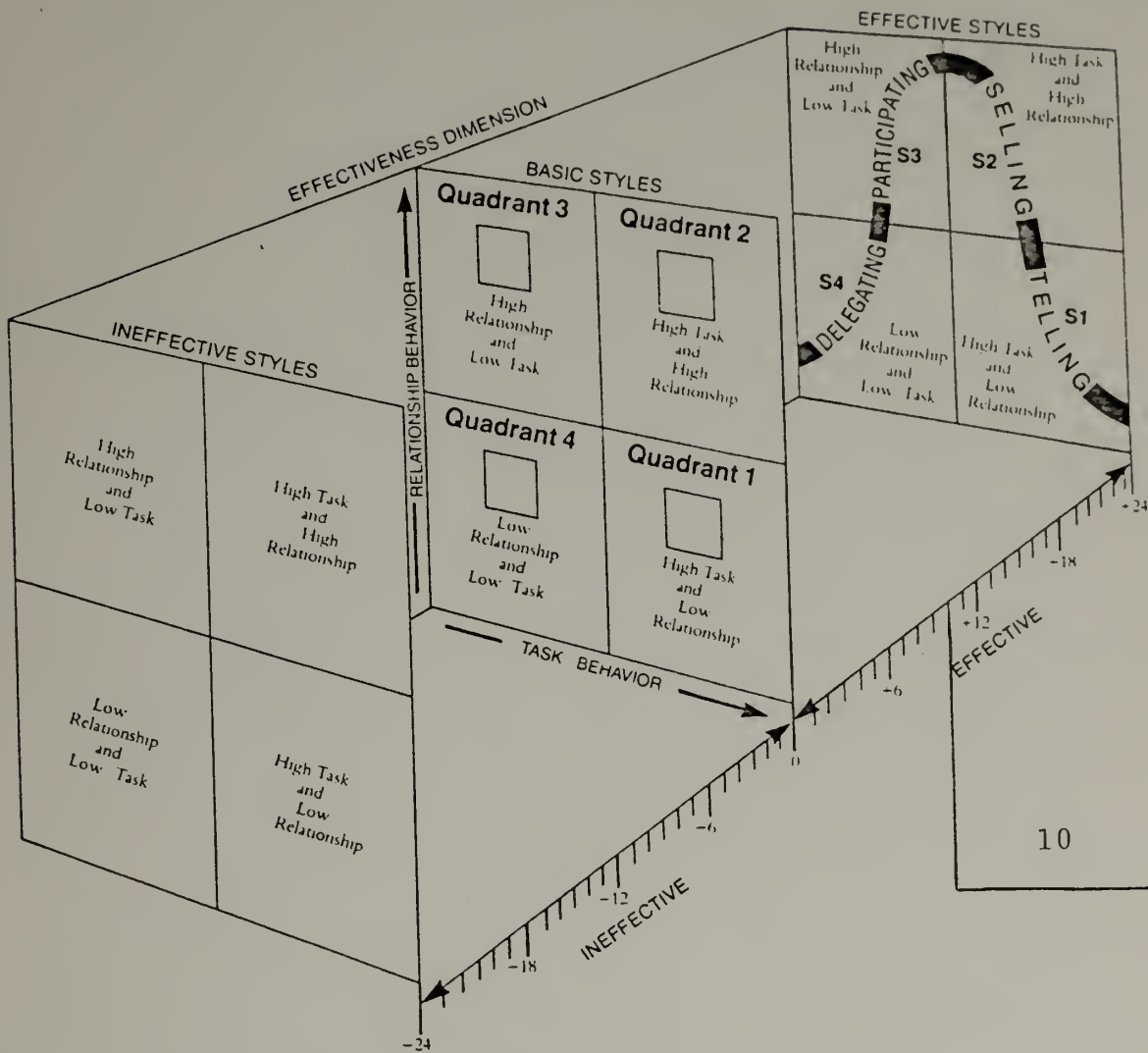


Figure 26. Neil's effectiveness score.

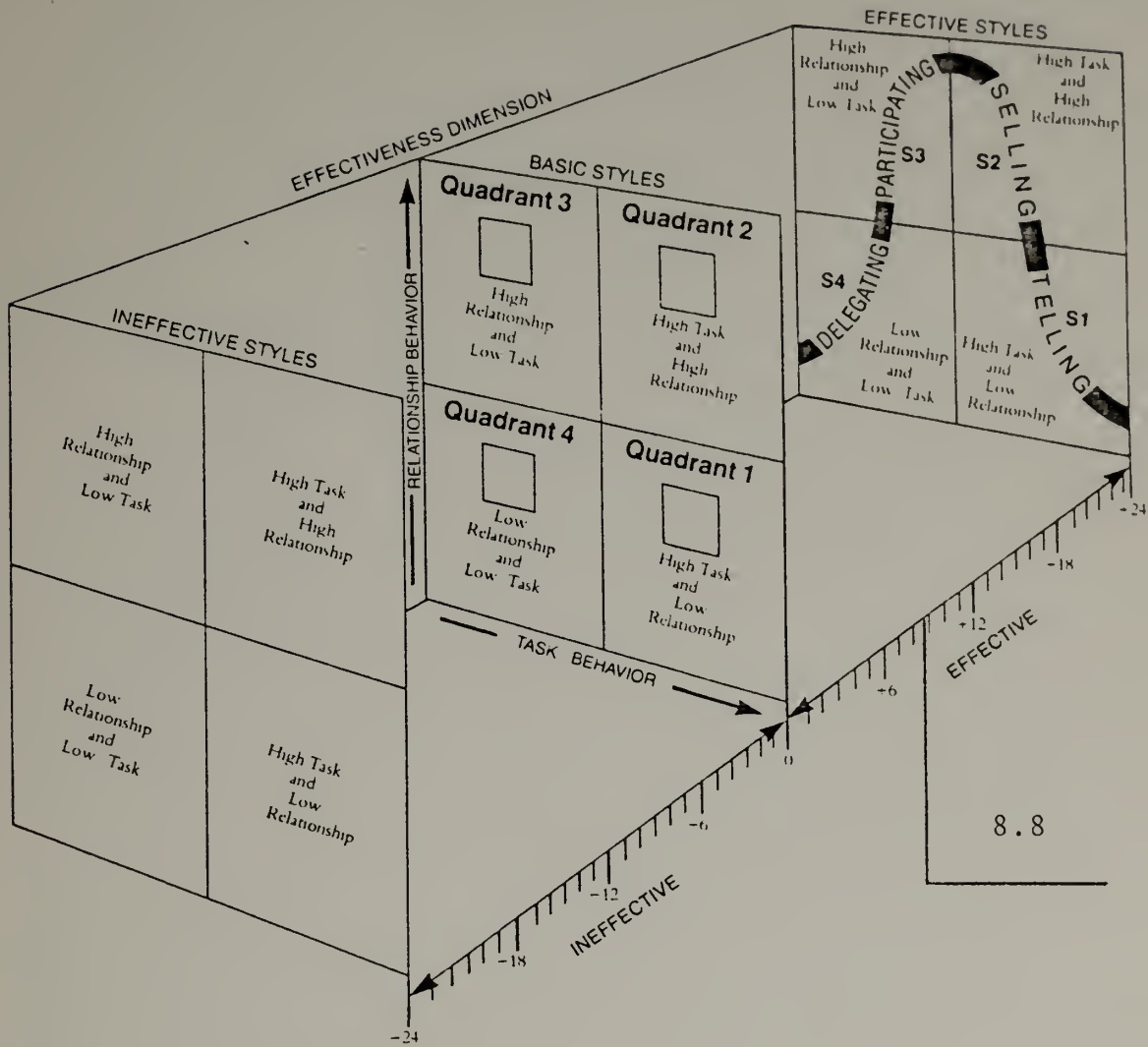


Figure 27. Neil's effectiveness as perceived by his subordinates.

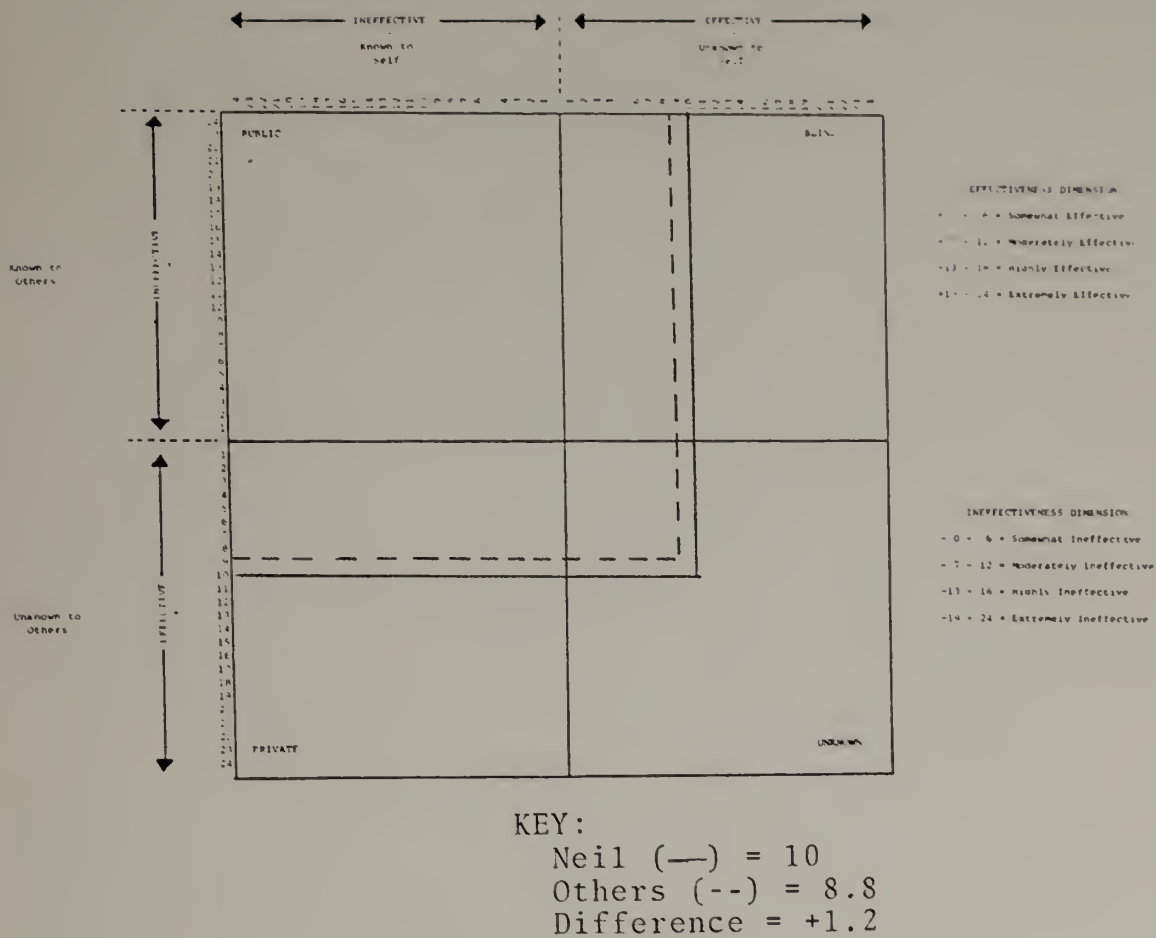


Figure 28. A comparison of Neil's effectiveness using the Johari Window.

clearly what had happened in that situation in terms of his leadership behavior. The analysis helped Neil realize his need to use his well-developed T function more often when dealing on an interpersonal level with his principals. He saw too a correlation between dramatic shifts in his leadership behavior (abrupt moves from S3 behavior to S1 behavior) and his T-F functioning. Neil determined that these changes should occur more gradually because he realized that in doing so he might prevent serious problems from burgeoning into full-scale crises.

Neil also learned that he possessed a well-integrated personality. He found he could call on alternate functions to enhance his work. Of the analysis of his KTS scores, he remarked, "The experience will help me think more clearly about myself and how I do my job." He planned to develop strategies to diagnose situations more quickly and accurately.

Two clear patterns emerged with respect to Neil's leadership. First, he found that, in spite of his principals' high level of task relevancy maturity, he rarely utilized true S4 behavior. Yes, he did delegate responsibility to them, but he had always felt the need to demonstrate his support by offering suggestions and engaging in high relationship behavior. Second, he saw how he changed his leadership behavior rather quickly

in the face of problems, ascribing such behavior change to his not diagnosing problem situations more directly. He ended by commenting: "I need to work at moving to Hersey and Blanchard's Selling mode more effectively when the need arises so that I can avoid the necessity of moving to the Telling mode."

It became clear to Neil that he has the ability to communicate openly with his principals. As he refines his diagnostic capabilities, there is a strong chance that his staff will be able to recognize these changes and provide him with direct feedback to reinforce his appropriate response to particular situations.

C H A P T E R V
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study has been to develop an effective and efficient process by which a leader may acquire information about his/her attitudes and leadership behavior in order to improve leadership effectiveness. There were two phases of the study: first, a study in self-analysis conducted with the researcher as the focal point; and secondly, five case studies involving four elementary school principals and one superintendent of schools.

The design of the study was based upon an examination of the relationship between attitudes and leadership behavior as postulated on the theory of personality type developed by Jung and refined in Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory (SLT). In both phases of the study, all six leaders' personality types and their leadership styles were determined. The data was compared and contrasted with the results of these leaders' typology and leadership styles as perceived by their subordinates. A review of the data and the implications of the findings were reported after each analysis.

In the first phase of the study, developed in Chapter III, five hypotheses were presented as part of the researcher's self analysis. These hypotheses were established to determine how the researcher's self-perceptions of both his personality type and leadership style correlated with the perceptions of his subordinates (N=28). Hypotheses A, B, C, and D were concerned with the four functions of Jungian Typology: Extraversion-Introversion (E-I), Sensing-Intuition (S-N), Thinking-Feeling (T-F), and Judging-Perceiving (J-P). The hypothesis was that a direct and statistically significant relationship existed between the researcher's type preferences and the perceptions of his subordinates. Prior to testing for those hypotheses, the researcher took the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and reviewed the results with a clinician trained in the administration and interpretation of this test. In order to test his results against the perceptions of his subordinates, the researcher then developed and administered the Typology Assessment Indicator (TAI) to twenty-eight of his staff members. A high confidence interval having been determined (P=10), subordinates' responses were determined to be correlated beyond the element of chance. It was concluded therefore that a statistically positive relationship existed for the hypotheses determining E-I, S-N, and T-F functions (hypotheses A, B,

and C respectively). No such relationship was found for hypothesis D, the J-P function.

The fifth hypothesis was concerned with determining whether a direct and statistically significant relationship existed between the researcher's LEAD/SELF scores and his subordinates' LEAD/OTHER scores. Because of the wide variability in alternative style range scores, the confidence interval ($P=11$) was lowered. The findings however did reveal a statistically significant relationship between the researcher's scores and those of his subordinates in eleven of the twelve situations presented on the LEAD tests. Furthermore, complete agreement was found for leadership style when analyzed by quadrant (S2, S3, S1 and S4).

The high levels of agreement indicated that the instruments used in each assessment by both the leader and his subordinates had measurable validity. The results created a framework for designing a process using the tenets of Jung's personality type theory and SLT. The purpose for designing this process was to develop an effective and efficient way for other leaders to improve their overall leadership effectiveness. The development and analysis of that process was undertaken in the second part of the study.

In the second phase of the study, Chapter IV, five case studies were developed. Using a modified version of the MBTI, the Keirsey Temperament Sorter (KTS), in conjunction with the LEAD/SELF instrument, four elementary school principals and one superintendent of schools participated in the process. Each leader was administered both the KTS and LEAD/SELF instruments. Their respective subordinates filled out the Typology Assessment Indicator (TAI) and the LEAD/OTHER instruments. Comparative analyses of the data were done and the researcher reviewed the findings with each leader in a follow-up meeting which averaged three hours for each individual. Finally, the participants completed an Interview Protocol (see Appendix H), constituted of a combined rating scale and a narrative summary. This protocol allowed the leaders to provide feedback about the process and to offer general comments. The rating scale was designed to correspond to the following:

This process was helpful . . .

- (1) To a very little extent
- (2) To a little extent
- (3) To some extent
- (4) To a great extent
- (5) To a very great extent

Conclusions

The conclusions of this study were taken from the data and responses of the leaders and those subordinates who participated in each of the five case presentations detailed in Chapter IV. The observations and reactions of the leaders to the process of developing an effective and efficient way for them to improve their overall leadership effectiveness were central to the research. The following conclusions represent the results of both an analysis of the data and the interviews with the leaders.

1. It was concluded that a moderate level of congruency existed between each of the leader's KTS profiles and the TAI assessments completed by their subordinates. Of the leaders, Karen felt strongly that the KTS results provided an accurate profile of her. Ann and Neil felt that the results were accurate to a great extent; Tom and David to some extent. When asked about their subordinates' perceptions of their personality type all but Karen felt these results were, to a great extent, more consistent with their own perceptions of themselves. Karen believed her subordinates' perceptions characterized her to some extent.

In speaking to each of the leaders, the researcher found their relative newness to their positions may have precluded their subordinates from really getting to know them on a personal level. Karen's remarks in this regard

were quite insightful: "My subordinates' perceptions are based on my behavior at school--behavior based on what I deem needed in the situation, but not characteristic of me. So in a sense it is situationally accurate."

There was strong agreement among the leaders that the results of the KTS would enable them to understand their own behavior better. Ann, Tom, David and Neil agreed that the results were beneficial to a great extent. Karen felt the results were helpful to a very great extent. With the exception of David, all concluded that to a great extent the KTS was an efficient way to assess personality type. David, however, believed the KTS was beneficial to only a small extent:

I feel there are so many variables on a daily basis which influence the results of a one-time KTS that a number of them should be administered over a period of time to get an accurate picture. In going over the one [KTS] I took earlier, I know I would answer some items differently today.

What the researcher concluded, finally, was that general agreement could be found between the KTS and the TAI results. The leaders agreed, to a fairly great extent, that the KTS results were an accurate profile of their personality types (see Table 44). Also, they indicated that their subordinates' perceptions of them as determined by the TAI results were equally representative of their personality types. The findings therefore suggest congruency

Table 44. Leaders' reactions to KTS and TAI findings.

| | | | | |
|--|-------|--------------|-----------------------------|-------|
| The KTS results are an accurate profile of me. | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | David Tom | Ann | Karen |
| Average Rating Score = 3.80 | | | | |
| Subordinates' perceptions of my personality type are more consistent with how I perceive myself. | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | Karen | Ann Tom David Neil | |
| Average Rating Score = 3.80 | | | | |
| Based on my experience, the KTS is an efficient way to assess personality type. | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | David | | Ann Karen Tom Neil | |
| Average Rating Score = 3.60 | | | | |

between the leaders' self-perceptions and those of their subordinates on the basis of KTS and TAI results. The information offers evidence that the two instruments had a degree of validity.

2. An analysis of the LEAD data revealed a high level of consistency between the leaders' alternate style range scores and the perceptions of their subordinates. Exact style range matches were found for Ann and Karen while Tom's basic two-style preference matched the perceptions of his subordinates. Both David's and Neil's basic two-style preferences were in near agreement with their respective subordinates. For all of them either S2/S3 or S3/S2 styles were predominant. These styles of leadership are compatible with those in leadership positions with subordinates who exhibit moderate levels of task relevant maturity. In fact S2 and S3 are the leadership styles found among the vast majority of managers in the United States who have used the LEAD instrument. In discussions with each leader, the researcher found some disagreement with both the LEAD/SELF and LEAD/OTHER results in terms of alternate style range scores. Ann, Karen, and Neil felt that they were more task oriented, sometimes at the expense of relationship behavior. Time was spent discussing the appropriateness of their responses to those situations where they found themselves using S2 and S1 behavior.

This information prompted the researcher to analyze the alternate style range scores in a different manner. As a result, an alternative way to score the LEAD instrument was developed, called The Appropriate Response Style Range. By weighing each response according to its appropriateness, the researcher determined other style range scores for each leader. Nearly all the leaders believed the appropriate response scores reflected their basic leadership behavior at the moment in contrast with those hypothetical situations found on the LEAD instrument.

When asked if the LEAD/SELF results were an accurate profile of their leadership behavior, Tom felt they were to some extent, Ann, Karen and Neil to a great extent, and David to a very great extent. Their reactions to how their subordinates viewed their leadership style as based on the LEAD/OTHER instrument, were similar. Neil, Tom, Karen and David all responded that these scores were accurate to a great extent, Ann to a very great extent.

When asked if the LEAD/SELF was an efficient means of assessing leadership style, Ann, Karen, David and Neil felt it was to a great extent. Ann added, "The important value of the LEAD to me was the opportunity it gave me to check staff perceptions of my leadership style with my own--a process I believe is critical to improvement and professional growth." Tom found the LEAD efficient to a very great

extent: "It enabled me to draw some conclusions concerning my flexibility and ability to adapt to more and less mature staff members."

An interesting aspect of the discussions held with the five leaders were their feelings regarding their ability to adapt their leadership styles to meet their subordinates' needs. Only Ann felt that she could adapt her leadership style to a great extent. Neil, David and Karen felt they could do so to some extent. Tom, however, believed he could adapt his leadership style to a lesser extent. How realistic was it, he asked, to change or modify one's behavior given a set of conscious attitudes or values. His remarks were consistent with Fiedler's contention that it is often the situation which is easier to change than a leader's personality and subsequent leadership style. The group's responses in this area underscore the importance of the communication process between leaders and subordinates as it relates to leadership style. Misunderstandings about intentions, motives and interactions may arise if a leaders' personality traits are not taken into consideration as subordinates attempt to discern a leader's style.

The concept of the Johari Window was introduced to help each leader determine his or her own level of openness in the leader-subordinate relationship. The researcher used each leader's alternate style range score (taken from

the LEAD/SELF) and plotted them on the window. He then took the subordinates' style range scores (taken from the LEAD/OTHER) and similarly placed them on the window. The two sets of scores were then compared and the results shown to both the leader and the subordinates to determine just how open their relationship was.

The researcher concluded that a high level of consistency existed between the LEAD results of the leaders and their subordinates. It was also found that the LEAD/SELF is an efficient means to assess leadership style (see Table 45). There were some questions, however, concerning the theoretical agreement of the LEAD results. Therefore, the researcher developed another way to analyze the scores. He introduced the Appropriate Response Style Range Scores which showed nearly all the leaders how their leadership style actually worked on a day-to-day basis. Table 45 compares the leaders' responses to the accuracy of the LEAD/SELF and LEAD/OTHER results.

The researcher also concluded that the leaders in this study did not find it easy to adapt their leadership style to meet their subordinates' needs (see Table 46).

These findings suggest the need to examine extensively Fiedler's Contingency Theory in relation to Situational Leadership Theory. It was learned from the discussions

Table 45. Leaders' reactions to the LEAD/SELF and LEAD/OTHER results.

| | | | | |
|---|---|-------|-------------------------------|-------|
| The LEAD/SELF results are an accurate profile of my leadership style. | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | Tom | Ann Karen Neil | David |
| Average Rating Score = 4.00 | | | | |
| The LEAD/OTHER results are an accurate profile of my leadership style. | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | David | Ann Tom Karen Neil | |
| Average Rating Score = 3.80 | | | | |
| Based upon my experience, the LEAD/SELF is an efficient means to assess leadership style. | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | Ann Karen David Neil | Tom |
| Average Rating Score = 4.20 | | | | |

Table 46. Leaders' reactions to adapting their leadership style.

| It is easy for me to adapt my leadership style to meet subordinates' needs. | | | | |
|---|-----|------------------------|-----|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | Tom | Karen David Neil | Ann | |
| Average Rating Score = 3.0 | | | | |

with the five leaders that they began to become more aware of the impact of their personality traits upon their leadership styles and the degree of flexibility or adaptability they were capable of within that context.

3. The leaders were asked to respond to the effectiveness of the combined process of testing and analysis. Ann, David, and Tom believed the process was effective to a great extent. Neil and Karen found it to be effective to a very great extent. For Neil the process enabled him to recognize more acutely how his personality affected his leadership in general. He was even able to pinpoint specific aspects of his leadership style which needed re-examination in view of both his new knowledge and the feedback which he had received from his subordinates. David

said that the testing and analysis were "a great help in forcing introspection and understanding the self." For Ann the process "provided feedback from staff and encouraged dialogue." Neil and Tom agreed with Karen's observation that "the most beneficial aspects of the process were the explanation and discussions with the investigator. While the instruments--like all brief ones--are simplistic, the interrelationships are interesting and they do get ideas out and the 'juices' flowing!" (see Table 47).

Table 47. Leaders' reactions to the effectiveness of the combined process of testing and analysis.

| The combined process of the testing and analysis was effective. | | | | |
|---|---|---|---------------------|---------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | Ann Tom David | Karen Neil |
| Average Rating Score = 4.40 | | | | |

When asked about the least beneficial aspects of the process, David reiterated the problem of having the test administered only once. He also felt that the KTS was "poor," citing "the difficulty of having to choose between

two opposing terms when some of the terms or definitions carried emotional values." Neil's comment was that "the theoretical descriptions for both Jung's type theory and SLT were problematic in terms of being able to integrate them with the findings and implications."

Nevertheless, it was concluded that the combined process of testing and analysis was highly effective. First, it promoted an active dialogue between leaders and subordinates as well as among the leaders themselves. Secondly, the process enhanced their thinking about themselves as both individuals and as leaders. In terms of maximum effectiveness, the researcher learned that the process should be conducted at least twice over a one year period in order to establish a continuum of consistency or change. By repeating the process, the leaders would also become more familiar with both the language and the theoretical terms used.

4. Karen, Tom and Neil found the combined process of testing and analysis efficient to a very great extent. Ann and David found it efficient to a great extent. Ann believed that the time for collecting information was manageable. Tom indicated that the time spent in "give and take" with the researcher was most beneficial to him. Karen remarked that the process enabled her to direct her thinking about the act of administration and resulted in

her wondering "whether or not I should be in administration. Perhaps that is the most important outcome of all!"

The least efficient aspects of the process seemed to be the interpretation and implications of both the KTS and LEAD instrument. Ann said, "I had difficulty with the situational nature of leader decision-making." Karen remarked, "I think the level of reading difficulty of the LEAD is relatively high." She felt that various phrases and concepts should be explained while a staff or leader responded to the situation presented on the instrument. Neil, Karen, David and Tom all had some difficulty with the language of the KTS and felt that some of the concepts were vague and inappropriate. They acknowledged, however, that their problems with the test were, in large part, a function of forced choice instruments.

Some of Karen's staff remarked that they had difficulty completing the LEAD/OTHER because of its group focus. One individual pointed out that his interactions with Karen and his sense of her leadership style in that setting were, to some degree, different than they were in group situations. He felt, therefore, that the LEAD/SELF was not a particularly meaningful way to assess Karen's leadership style.

Another staff member indicated that it might be important to determine the subordinates' personality type prior

to determining their leaders' type and leadership style. David himself had made a similar observation when he said, "I am not sure the LEAD results by others is accurate information. It seems to me that each person's assessment of another's behavior is influenced by his or her own personality and behavior."

Overall, however, the researcher concluded that the combined process of testing and analysis was considerably efficient (see Table 48).

Table 48. Leaders' reaction to the efficiency of the combined process of testing and analysis.

| The combined process of testing and analysis was effective. | | | | |
|---|---|---|--------------|----------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | Ann David | Karen Tom Neil |
| Average Rating Score = 4.60 | | | | |

The amount of time taken for both administering the tests and the analyses sessions was manageable. The most important aspects of the process turned out to be in the discussions which resulted. A strongly-felt need to examine personality implications for leadership style emerged

from the dialogue with each of the leaders, who all agreed that their personalities affected their style of leadership and the degree to which they felt they could change their style. Again, the need to clarify theoretical terms became apparent. In the interest of making the process more efficient, training packets should be developed, distributed, and discussed with the leaders in advance of conducting future sessions.

5. When asked if the combined process would help them improve their leadership effectiveness, Ann, Tom and Neil felt it would help to some extent. Both Karen and David felt it would be helpful to a great extent. Collectively, they indicated that the process created a dialogue between themselves and their staffs concerning the impact and implications for their leadership style. Ann thought it would help her "to close the gap between staff perceptions and my own" and help make her leadership philosophy and priorities for her school more public so that people might see that "there is a plan and things are not just happening." Tom stated that the process would enable him to "engage in more diagnosis of effective leadership styles in certain situations and with certain staff members." Karen did not indicate how the process would specifically help her even though she acknowledged it to be beneficial.

Neil found the process "useful for analyzing leader behavior" and felt the need to move to a S2 mode more effectively when the need arose so that he would avoid the necessity of moving to a S1 mode of leadership behavior. Finally, David offered a rather intriguing observation. He mused, "I will try to increase my leadership effectiveness in S1 and S4 behavior . . . as much as my INTJ personality will allow."

The researcher determined that the combined process of testing and analysis was effective in helping leaders to improve their effectiveness (see Table 49).

Table 49. Leaders' reactions to the combined process as a means to improve leadership effectiveness.

| The combined process will help me improve my leadership effectiveness. | | | | |
|--|---|--------------------|----------------|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | Ann Tom Neil | Karen David | |
| Average Rating Score = 3.40 | | | | |

Recommendations

The following recommendations are based on the results of the study.

The findings of this study indicated a successful beginning for the development of an effective and efficient process to improve leadership. One way to improve the process would be to establish valid and reliable personality type indicators which could be used with both leaders and subordinates in ways comparable to the LEAD/SELF and LEAD/OTHER instruments. This would mean an increase in the understanding and consistency of the language, definitions, and clarification of type theory. Cross-validation studies between the newly established personality typology instruments and the LEAD instruments would add statistically valuable evidence regarding the efficacy of the process.

The study should be conducted several times with the same group to see if the process itself had created any change. The study should also be replicated with other leaders and their subordinates. These groups should include other elementary school personnel, secondary education personnel, and groups representing non-education work environments. In addition, the demographic scope should be broadened to include a more diverse sampling.

The Appropriate Response Style Range was introduced as an alternative method to examine leader effectiveness according to SLT. Comparative studies with alternate style range data should be conducted in order to determine whether significant differences exist and which format for measuring effectiveness would be more valid. Another reporting system was also introduced. By superimposing leaders' and subordinates' SLT alternate style range scores onto the Johari Window, it was possible to depict the leaders' degree of openness. This paradigm appears to have considerable promise as a method for leaders to examine their communication patterns with their subordinates with respect to personality type and leadership style.

Finally, ongoing research examining style adaptability is strongly suggested by some of the conclusions of this study. There is still uncertainty as to the extent to which leaders can change or modify their leadership style to accommodate their subordinates' levels of maturity. Considerations of a leader's age, positional power, sex and economic situation are variables which may also affect change in leadership style. At what point does a leader's personality type prevent that leader from using the appropriate leadership style according to SLT? But even this question underscores just how important it is to carefully

scrutinize a leader's personality type in relation to his or her leadership behavior.

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APPENDIX A

Effects of the Combinations of All
Four Preferences in People

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SENSING TYPES
WITH THINKING WITH FEELING

| | | |
|--------------------------|--|--|
| INTROVERTS JUDGING | ISTJ | ISFJ |
| | <p>Serious, quiet, earn success by concentration and thoroughness. Practical, orderly, matter-of-fact, logical, realistic and dependable. See to it that everything is well organized. Take responsibility. Make up their own minds as to what should be accomplished and work toward it steadily, regardless of protests or distractions.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with thinking, inner more with sensing.</p> | <p>Quiet, friendly, responsible and conscientious. Work devotedly to meet their obligations and serve their friends and school. Thorough, painstaking, accurate. May need time to master technical subjects, as their interests are not often technical. Patient with detail and routine. Loyal, considerate, concerned with how other people feel.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with feeling, inner more with sensing.</p> |
| PERCEPTIVE | ISTP | ISFP |
| | <p>Cool onlookers, quiet, reserved, observing and analyzing life with detached curiosity and unexpected flashes of original humor. Usually interested in impersonal principles, cause and effect, or how and why mechanical things work. Exert themselves no more than they think necessary, because any waste of energy would be inefficient.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with sensing, inner more with thinking.</p> | <p>Retiring, quietly friendly, sensitive, modest about their abilities. Shun disagreements, do not force their opinions or values on others. Usually do not care to lead but are often loyal followers. May be rather relaxed about assignments or getting things done, because they enjoy the present moment and do not want to spoil it by undue haste or exertion.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with sensing, inner more with feeling.</p> |
| EXTRAVERTS PERCEPTIVE | ESTP | ESFP |
| | <p>Matter-of-fact, do not worry or hurry, enjoy whatever comes along. Tend to like mechanical things and sports, with friends on the side. May be a bit blunt or insensitive. Can do math or science when they see the need. Dislike long explanations. Are best with real things that can be worked, handled, taken apart or put back together.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with sensing, inner more with thinking.</p> | <p>Outgoing, easygoing, accepting, friendly, fond of a good time. Like sports and making things. Know what's going on and join in eagerly. Find remembering facts easier than mastering theories. Are best in situations that need sound common sense and practical ability with people as well as with things.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with sensing, inner more with feeling.</p> |
| EXTRAVERTS JUDGING | ESTJ | ESFJ |
| | <p>Practical realists, matter-of-fact, with a natural head for business or mechanics. Not interested in subjects they see no use for, but can apply themselves when necessary. Like to organize and run activities. Tend to run things well, especially if they remember to consider other people's feelings and points of view when making their decisions.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with thinking, inner more with sensing.</p> | <p>Warm-hearted, talkative, popular, conscientious, born cooperators, active committee members. Always doing something nice for someone. Work best with plenty of encouragement and praise. Little interest in abstract thinking or technical subjects. Main interest is in things that directly and visibly affect people's lives.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with feeling, inner more with sensing.</p> |

INTUITIVES
WITH FEELING WITH THINKING

| | | |
|--|---|-------------------------------------|
| <p>INFJ</p> <p>Succeed by perseverance, originality and desire to do whatever is needed or wanted. Put their best efforts into their work. Quietly forceful, conscientious, concerned for others. Respected for their firm principles. Likely to be honored and followed for their clear convictions as to how best to serve the common good.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with feeling, inner more with intuition.</p> | <p>INTJ</p> <p>Have original minds and great drive which they use only for their own purposes. In fields that appeal to them they have a fine power to organize a job and carry it through with or without help. Skeptical, critical, independent, determined, often stubborn. Must learn to yield less important points in order to win the most important.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with thinking, inner more with intuition.</p> | <p>JUDGING</p> <p>INTROVERTS</p> |
| <p>INFP</p> <p>Full of enthusiasms and loyalties, but seldom talk of these until they know you well. Care about learning, ideas, language, and independent projects of their own. Apt to be on yearbook staff, perhaps as editor. Tend to undertake too much, then somehow get it done. Friendly, but often too absorbed in what they are doing to be sociable or notice much.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with intuition, inner more with feeling.</p> | <p>INTP</p> <p>Quiet, reserved, brilliant in exams, especially in theoretical or scientific subjects. Logical to the point of hair-splitting. Interested mainly in ideas, with little liking for parties or small talk. Tend to have very sharply defined interests. Need to choose careers where some strong interest of theirs can be used and useful.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with intuition, inner more with thinking.</p> | <p>PERCEPTIVE</p> |
| <p>ENFP</p> <p>Warmly enthusiastic, high-spirited, ingenious, imaginative. Able to do almost anything that interests them. Quick with a solution for any difficulty and ready to help anyone with a problem. Often rely on their ability to improvise instead of preparing in advance. Can always find compelling reasons for whatever they want.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with intuition, inner more with feeling.</p> | <p>ENTP</p> <p>Quick, ingenious, good at many things. Stimulating company, alert and outspoken, argue for fun on either side of a question. Resourceful in solving new and challenging problems, but may neglect routine assignments. Turn to one new interest after another. Can always find logical reasons for whatever they want.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with intuition, inner more with thinking.</p> | <p>PERCEPTIVE</p> <p>EXTRAVERTS</p> |
| <p>ENFJ</p> <p>Responsive and responsible. Feel real concern for what others think and want, and try to handle things with due regard for other people's feelings. Can present a proposal or lead a group discussion with ease and tact. Sociable, popular, active in school affairs, but put time enough on their studies to do good work.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with feeling, inner more with intuition.</p> | <p>ENTJ</p> <p>Hearty, frank, able in studies, leaders in activities. Usually good in anything that requires reasoning and intelligent talk, such as public speaking. Are well-informed and keep adding to their fund of knowledge. May sometimes be more positive and confident than their experience in an area warrants.</p> <p>Live their outer life more with thinking, inner more with intuition.</p> | <p>JUDGING</p> |

APPENDIX B

Report of the Myers-Briggs
Type Indicator

APPENDIX C

The Keirsey Temperament Sorter

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The Keirsey Temperament Sorter

1. At a party do you
 - (a) interact with many, including strangers
 - (b) interact with a few, known to you
2. Are you more
 - (a) realistic than speculative
 - (b) speculative than realistic
3. Is it worse to
 - (a) have your "head in the clouds"
 - (b) be "in a rut"
4. Are you more impressed by
 - (a) principles
 - (b) emotions
5. Are you more drawn toward the
 - (a) convincing
 - (b) touching
6. Do you prefer to work
 - (a) to deadlines
 - (b) just "whenever"
7. Do you tend to choose
 - (a) rather carefully
 - (b) somewhat impulsively
8. At parties do you
 - (a) stay late, with increasing energy
 - (b) leave early, with decreased energy
9. Are you more attracted to
 - (a) sensible people
 - (b) imaginative people
10. Are you more interested in
 - (a) what is actual
 - (b) what is possible
11. In judging others are you more swayed by
 - (a) laws than circumstances
 - (b) circumstances than laws

12. In approaching others is your inclination to be somewhat
(a) objective (b) personal
13. Are you more
(a) punctual (b) leisurely
14. Does it bother you more having things
(a) incomplete (b) completed
15. In your social groups do you
(a) keep abreast of other's happenings
(b) get behind on the news
16. In doing ordinary things are you more likely to
(a) do it the usual way (b) do it your own way
17. Writers should
(a) "say what they mean and mean what they say"
(b) express things more by use of analogy
18. Which appeals to you more
(a) consistency of thought
(b) harmonious human relationships
19. Are you more comfortable in making
(a) logical judgments (b) value judgments
20. Do you want things
(a) settled and decided (b) unsettled and undecided
21. Would you say you are more
(a) serious and determined (b) easy-going
22. In phoning do you
(a) rarely question that it will all be said
(b) rehearse what you'll say
23. Facts
(a) "speak for themselves"
(b) illustrate principles

24. **Are visionaries**
(a) somewhat annoying
(b) rather fascinating
25. **Are you more often**
(a) a cool-headed person (b) a warm-hearted person
26. **Is it worse to be**
(a) unjust (b) merciless
27. **Should one usually let events occur**
(a) by careful selection and choice
(b) randomly and by chance
28. **Do you feel better about**
(a) having purchased (b) having the option to buy
29. **In company do you**
(a) initiate conversation (b) wait to be approached
30. **Common sense is**
(a) rarely questionable (b) frequently questionable
31. **Children often do not**
(a) make themselves useful enough
(b) exercise their fantasy enough
32. **In making decisions do you feel more comfortable with**
(a) standards (b) feelings
33. **Are you more**
(a) firm than gentle (b) gentle than firm
34. **Which is more admirable:**
(a) the ability to organize and be methodical
(b) the ability to adapt and make do
35. **Do you put more value on the**
(a) definite (b) open-ended

36. Does new and non-routine interaction with others
(a) stimulate and energize you
(b) tax your reserves
37. Are you more frequently
(a) a practical sort of person
(b) a fanciful sort of person
38. Are you more likely to
(a) see how others are useful
(b) see how others see
39. Which is more satisfying:
(a) to discuss an issue thoroughly
(b) to arrive at agreement on an issue
40. Which rules you more:
(a) your head (b) your heart
41. Are you more comfortable with work that is
(a) contracted (b) done on a casual basis
42. Do you tend to look for
(a) the orderly (b) whatever turns up
43. Do you prefer
(a) many friends with brief contact
(b) a few friends with more lengthy contact
44. Do you go more by
(a) facts (b) principles
45. Are you more interested in
(a) production and distribution
(b) design and research
46. Which is more of a compliment:
(a) "There is a very logical person."
(b) "There is a very sentimental person."

47. Do you value in yourself more that you are
(a) unwavering (b) devoted
48. Do you more often prefer the
(a) final and unalterable statement
(b) tentative and preliminary statement
49. Are you more comfortable
(a) after a decision (b) before a decision
50. Do you
(a) speak easily and at length with strangers
(b) find little to say to strangers
51. Are you more likely to trust your
(a) experience (b) hunch
52. Do you feel
(a) more practical than ingenious
(b) more ingenious than practical
53. Which person is more to be complimented: one of
(a) clear reason (b) strong feeling
54. Are you inclined more to be
(a) fair-minded (b) sympathetic
55. Is it preferable mostly to
(a) make sure things are arranged
(b) just let things happen
56. In relationships should most things be
(a) renegotiable
(b) random and circumstantial
57. When the phone rings do you
(a) hasten to get to it first
(b) hope someone else will answer
58. Do you prize more in yourself
(a) a strong sense of reality (b) a vivid imagination

59. Are you drawn more to
(a) fundamentals (b) overtones
60. Which seems the greater error:
(a) to be too passionate (b) to be too objective
61. Do you see yourself as basically
(a) hard-headed (b) soft-hearted
62. Which situation appeals to you more:
(a) the structured and scheduled
(b) the unstructured and unscheduled
63. Are you a person that is more
(a) routinized than whimsical
(b) whimsical than routinized
64. Are you more inclined to be
(a) easy to approach (b) somewhat reserved
65. In writings do you prefer
(a) the more literal (b) the more figurative
66. Is it harder for you to
(a) identify with others (b) utilize others
67. Which do you wish more for yourself:
(a) clarity of reason (b) strength of compassion
68. Which is the greater fault:
(a) being indiscriminate (b) being critical
69. Do you prefer the
(a) planned event (b) unplanned event
70. Do you tend to be more
(a) deliberate than spontaneous
(b) spontaneous than deliberate

Answer Sheet

Enter a check for each answer in the column for a or b

| a | | b | | a | | b | | a | | b | | a | | b | | a | | b | |
|----|--|---|----|---|--|----|--|---|----|---|--|----|--|---|----|---|--|----|--|
| 1 | | | 2 | | | 3 | | | 4 | | | 5 | | | 6 | | | 7 | |
| 8 | | | 9 | | | 10 | | | 11 | | | 12 | | | 13 | | | 14 | |
| 15 | | | 16 | | | 17 | | | 18 | | | 19 | | | 20 | | | 21 | |
| 22 | | | 23 | | | 24 | | | 25 | | | 26 | | | 27 | | | 28 | |
| 29 | | | 30 | | | 31 | | | 32 | | | 33 | | | 34 | | | 35 | |
| 36 | | | 37 | | | 38 | | | 39 | | | 40 | | | 41 | | | 42 | |
| 43 | | | 44 | | | 45 | | | 46 | | | 47 | | | 48 | | | 49 | |
| 50 | | | 51 | | | 52 | | | 53 | | | 54 | | | 55 | | | 56 | |
| 57 | | | 58 | | | 59 | | | 60 | | | 61 | | | 62 | | | 63 | |
| 64 | | | 65 | | | 66 | | | 67 | | | 68 | | | 69 | | | 70 | |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| ↓ | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| E | I | S | N | T | F | J | P | |

Directions for Scoring

1. Add down so that the total number of "a" answers is written in the box at the bottom of each column (see next page for illustration). Do the same for the "b" answers you have checked. Each of the 14 boxes should have a number in it.

2. Transfer the number in box No. 1 of the answer sheet to box No. 1 below the answer sheet. Do this for box No. 2 as well. Note, however, that you have two numbers for boxes 3 through 8. Bring down the first number for each box beneath the second, as indicated by the arrows. Now add all the pairs of numbers and enter the total in the boxes below the answer sheet, so each box has only one number.

3. Now you have four pairs of numbers. Circle the letter below the larger number of each pair (see answer sheet below for illustration). If the two numbers of any pair are equal, then circle neither, but put a large X below them and circle it.

| a | | b | | a | | b | | a | | b | | a | | b | | a | | b | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|---|---|---|----|---|---|---|----|---|---|---|---|----|----|---|----|---|---|---|----|----|----|---|--|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | ✓ | | | 2 | ✓ | | | 3 | ✓ | | | 4 | | ✓ | | | 5 | | ✓ | 6 | ✓ | | | 7 | | ✓ | | | | | | |
| 8 | ✓ | | | 9 | ✓ | | | 10 | ✓ | | | 11 | | ✓ | | | 12 | | ✓ | 13 | ✓ | | | 14 | | ✓ | | | | | | |
| 15 | ✓ | | | 16 | ✓ | | | 17 | ✓ | | | 18 | | ✓ | | | 19 | | ✓ | 20 | ✓ | | | 21 | | ✓ | | | | | | |
| 22 | | ✓ | | 23 | ✓ | | | 24 | ✓ | | | 25 | | ✓ | | | 26 | | ✓ | 27 | ✓ | | | 28 | | ✓ | | | | | | |
| 29 | ✓ | | | 30 | ✓ | | | 31 | | ✓ | | 32 | | ✓ | | | 33 | | ✓ | 34 | ✓ | | | 35 | | ✓ | | | | | | |
| 36 | ✓ | | | 37 | ✓ | | | 38 | ✓ | | | 39 | | ✓ | | | 40 | | ✓ | 41 | ✓ | | | 42 | | ✓ | | | | | | |
| 43 | | ✓ | | 44 | | ✓ | | 45 | ✓ | | | 46 | | ✓ | | | 47 | | ✓ | 48 | ✓ | | | 49 | | ✓ | | | | | | |
| 50 | ✓ | | | 51 | ✓ | | | 52 | ✓ | | | 53 | | ✓ | | | 54 | | ✓ | 55 | ✓ | | | 56 | | ✓ | | | | | | |
| 57 | ✓ | | | 58 | ✓ | | | 59 | ✓ | | | 60 | | ✓ | | | 61 | | ✓ | 62 | ✓ | | | 63 | | ✓ | | | | | | |
| 64 | ✓ | | | 65 | ✓ | | | 66 | | ✓ | | 67 | | ✓ | | | 68 | | ✓ | 69 | ✓ | | | 70 | | ✓ | | | | | | |
| | 1 | 8 | 2 | | 2 | 3 | 9 | 1 | | 4 | 3 | 8 | 2 | | 4 | 5 | 0 | 10 | | 6 | 5 | 1 | 9 | | 7 | 10 | 0 | | 8 | 7 | 1 | 3 |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
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| | | 8 | 2 | | | | 9 | 1 | | | | 8 | 2 | | | | 0 | 10 | | | 1 | 9 | | | 10 | 0 | | | 1 | 3 | | |
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APPENDIX D
The LEAD/SELF


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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 imitate. 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**

Leader Effectiveness & Adaptability Description

| | |
|---|--|
| <p>SITUATION</p> <p>1 Your subordinates are not responding lately to your friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is declining rapidly.</p> | <p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment.</p> <p>B. Make yourself available for discussion but don't push your involvement.</p> <p>C. Talk with subordinates and then set goals.</p> <p>D. Intentionally do not intervene.</p> |
| <p>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>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.</p> <p>B. Take no definite action.</p> <p>C. Do what you can to make the group feel important and involved.</p> <p>D. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.</p> |
| <p>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>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Work with the group and together engage in problem-solving.</p> <p>B. Let the group work it out.</p> <p>C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.</p> <p>D. Encourage group to work on problem and be supportive of their efforts.</p> |
| <p>SITUATION</p> <p>4 You are considering a change. Your subordinates have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.</p> | <p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Allow group involvement in developing the change, but don't be too directive.</p> <p>B. Announce changes and then implement with close supervision.</p> <p>C. Allow group to formulate its own direction.</p> <p>D. Incorporate group recommendations, but you direct the change.</p> |
| <p>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>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Allow group to formulate its own direction.</p> <p>B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.</p> <p>C. Redefine roles and responsibilities and supervise carefully.</p> <p>D. Allow group involvement in determining roles and responsibilities but don't be too directive.</p> |
| <p>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>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Do what you can to make group feel important and involved.</p> <p>B. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.</p> <p>C. Intentionally do not intervene.</p> <p>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 unsure 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 you initiate necessary changes. C. Take steps to direct subordinates 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 superior 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 subordinates, 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 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 inter-relations are good.</p> | <p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner. B. Involve subordinates in decision-making and reinforce good contributions. C. Discuss past performance with group and then you examine the need for new practices. D. Continue to leave group alone.</p> |
| <p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>12 Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among subordinates. 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 subordinates 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 subordinates.</p> |

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APPENDIX E

The Typology Assessment Indicator

TYPOLOGY ASSESSMENT INDICATOR

There are several ways to analyze behavior that is a by product of our personalities. Carl Jung, an influential psychologist, identified and described a number of basic psychological processes, and he showed how these processes merged in various combinations to determine an individual's character. Essentially, he viewed the human psyche in terms of the interrelationships of the following 4 pairs of attitudes, perceptions or judgments:

1. An EXTRAVERTED attitude is one in which energy and interest are directed mainly to the outer world of actions, objects and persons. People with this quality tend to appear to be energized or "tuned up." They enjoy and need people contact and usually have many relationships.

OR

An INTROVERTED attitude is one in which energy and interest are directed mainly to the inner world of concept and ideas. People with this quality tend to be more reserved and conservative of their energy. While they can enjoy people, they typically have limited relationships.

2. A SENSING perception is one in which there is concern with observing what is real, immediate and practical in experience. People with this trait tend to be viewed as realistic, "down-to earth," and sensible. They order their world based upon experience and realism.

OR

An INTUITIVE perception is one in which there is interest in seeing possibilities, meaning and relationships of events. People with this perception are viewed as speculative, having their "heads-in-clouds," and imaginative. They order their world based upon hunches and speculation.

3. A THINKING judgment is one in which there is a rational process of reaching conclusions objectively, logically, or analytically. People with this quality tend to be objective, impersonal and governed by laws or regulations.

OR

-2-

A FEELING judgment is one in which there is a rational process of weighing values to decide the importance of issues to oneself and others. People with this quality tend to be subjective, personal and governed by extenuating circumstances.

4. A JUDGING attitude is one in which the aim is to plan, organize and control one's environment. People with this attitude tend to be fixed, decisive, and convey a sense of urgency. They plan ahead and strive for closure on matters.

OR

A PERCEPTIVE attitude is one in which the aim is to understand, experience, and adapt to the environment. People with this attitude tend to be flexible, tentative and unhurried in their decisions. They adapt as they go and tend to leave options open.

Given these 4 pairing you are asked to characterize _____'s behavior by choosing only one trait for each pair of statements. This will yield a total of four qualities which reflect your perceptions of his/her behavior. Please know that at varying times you may have observed both traits, but your selection should be based on the more frequently observed quality. Also, it is necessary to make a choice even though you may feel uncertain about the more prevelant trait. Refer to the trait descriptions as often as necessary.

Please use the attached form to record your responses. You may keep the other information if you wish.

Thank you for your help and cooperation.

TYPOLOGY ASSESSMENT INDICATOR

ANSWER FORM

Choose One

1. EXTRAVERTED

INTROVERTED

Overall, _____ tends to be

_____.

Choose One

2. SENSING

INTUITIVE

Overall, _____ tends to be

_____.

Choose One

3. THINKING

FEELING

Overall, _____ tends to be

_____.

Choose One

4. JUDGING

PERCEPTIVE

Overall, _____ tends to be

_____.

APPENDIX F
The LEAD/OTHER

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LEADER'S SUPERIOR
 ASSOCIATE
 SUBORDINATE

LEAD Other


PERCEPTIONS BY OTHERS (LEADERSHIP STYLE)

Developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard

Directions:

Assume _____
(name of leader)

is involved in each of the following twelve situations. Each situation has four alternative actions this leader might initiate. READ each item carefully. THINK about what this PERSON would do in each circumstance. Then CIRCLE the letter of the alternative action choice which you think would most closely describe the behavior of THIS LEADER in the situation presented, based upon your experience with him. Circle only *one* choice.



Leader
Effectiveness &
Adaptability
Description

Leader Effectiveness & Adaptability Description

| | |
|--|---|
| <p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>1 Subordinates are not responding lately to this leader's friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is declining rapidly.</p> | <p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would</i></p> <p>A. emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment</p> <p>B. be available for discussion but would not push his involvement</p> <p>C. talk with subordinates and then set goals</p> <p>D. intentionally not intervene.</p> |
| <p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>2 The observable performance of this leader's group is increasing. The leader has 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><i>This leader would</i></p> <p>A. engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure all members are aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.</p> <p>B. take no definite action.</p> <p>C. do what could be done to make the group feel important and involved.</p> <p>D. emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.</p> |
| <p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>3 This leader's group is unable to solve a problem. The leader has normally left the group alone. Group performance and interpersonal relations have been good.</p> | <p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. work with the group and together engage in problem-solving.</p> <p>B. let the group work it out.</p> <p>C. act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.</p> <p>D. encourage group to work on problem and be supportive of their efforts.</p> |
| <p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>4 This leader is considering a change. The leader's subordinates have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.</p> | <p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. allow group involvement in developing the change, but would not be too directive.</p> <p>B. announce changes and then implement with close supervision.</p> <p>C. allow group to formulate its own direction.</p> <p>D. incorporate group recommendations but direct the change.</p> |
| <p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>5 The performance of this leader's 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><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. allow group to formulate its own direction.</p> <p>B. incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.</p> <p>C. redefine roles and responsibilities and supervise carefully.</p> <p>D. allow group involvement in determining roles and responsibilities, but would not be too directive.</p> |
| <p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>6 This leader stepped into an efficiently run organization. The previous administrator tightly controlled the situation. The leader wants to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment.</p> | <p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. do what could be done to make group feel important and involved.</p> <p>B. emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.</p> <p>C. intentionally not intervene.</p> <p>D. get group involved in decision-making, but see that objectives are met.</p> |

| | |
|--|---|
| <p>7</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>This leader is considering changing to a structure that will be new to the group. Members of the group have made suggestions about needed change. The group has been productive and demonstrated flexibility in its operations.</p> | <p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 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>8</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. This leader feels somewhat unsure about his lack of direction of the group.</p> | <p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. leave the group alone. B. discuss the situation with the group and then he would initiate necessary changes. C. take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner. D. be supportive in discussing the situation with the group but not too directive. |
| <p>9</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>This leader has been appointed by a superior 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>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 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 would not push. |
| <p>10</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>Subordinates, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to the leader's recent redefining of standards.</p> | <p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. allow group involvement in redefining standards, but would not take control. B. redefine standards and supervise carefully. C. avoid confrontation by not applying pressure; leave situation alone. D. incorporate group recommendations, but see that new standards are met. |
| <p>11</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>This leader has been promoted to a new position. The previous manager was uninvolved in the affairs of the group. The group has adequately handled its tasks and direction. Group interrelations are good.</p> | <p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner. B. involve subordinates in decision-making and reinforce good contributions. C. discuss past performance with group and then examine the need for new practices. D. continue to leave the group alone. |
| <p>12</p> <p>SITUATION</p> <p>Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among subordinates. 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>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. try out his solution with subordinates 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 subordinates. |

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APPENDIX G

Personality Type Descriptions

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EXTRAVERTED THINKING TYPES

ESTJ and ENTJ

Extraverted thinkers use their thinking to run as much of the world as may be theirs to run. They organize their facts and operations well in advance, define their objectives and make a systematic drive to reach these objectives on schedule. Through reliance on thinking, they become logical, analytical, often critical, impersonal and unlikely to be convinced by anything but reasoning.

They enjoy being executives, deciding what ought to be done, and giving the necessary orders. They have little patience with confusion, inefficiency, halfway measures, or anything aimless and ineffective, and they know how to be tough when the situation calls for toughness.

They think conduct should be governed by logic, and govern their own that way as much as they can. They live according to a definite formula that embodies their basic judgments about the world. Any change in their ways requires a deliberate change in the formula.

Like other judging types, they run some risk of neglecting perception. They need to stop and listen to the other person's side of the matter, especially with people who are not in a position to talk back. They seldom find this easy, but if (repeat, *if*) they do not manage to do it, they may judge too hastily, without enough facts or enough regard for what other people think or feel.

Feeling is their least developed process. If they suppress or neglect it too long, it can explode in damaging ways. They need to make some conscious use of feeling, preferably in appreciation of other people's merits,—an art that comes less naturally to thinkers than to feeling types. Thinkers can, if they will, "make it a rule" in their formula to mention what is well done, not merely what needs correcting. The results will be worthwhile, both in their work and in their private lives.

ESTJ

With sensing as auxiliary

Look at things with their sensing rather than their intuition. Hence are most interested in realities perceived by their five senses, which makes them matter-of-fact, practical, realistic, factually-minded, concerned with here and now. More curious about new things than new ideas. Want ideas, plans and decisions to be based on solid fact.

Solve problems by expertly applying and adapting past experience.

Like work where they can achieve immediate, visible and tangible results. Have a natural bent for business and industry, production and construction. Enjoy administration and getting things organized and done. Do not listen to their own intuition very much, so tend to need an intuitive around to sell them on the value of new ideas.

ENTJ

With intuition as auxiliary

Look at things with their intuition rather than their sensing, hence are mainly interested in seeing the possibilities beyond what is present or obvious or known. Intuition heightens their intellectual interest, curiosity for new ideas, tolerance for theory, taste for complex problems, insight, vision and concern for long range consequences.

Are seldom content in jobs that make no demand on intuition. Need problems to solve and are expert at finding new solutions. Interest is in the broad picture, not in detailed procedures or facts. Tend to choose like-minded intuitives as associates. Also tend to need someone with sensing around to keep them from overlooking relevant facts and important details.

INTROVERTED THINKING TYPES

ISTP and INTP

Introverted thinkers use their thinking to analyze the world, not to run it. They organize ideas and facts, not situations or people unless they must. Relying on thinking makes them logical, impersonal, objectively critical, not likely to be convinced by anything but reasoning. Being introverts, they focus their thinking on the principles underlying things rather than on the things themselves. Since it is hard to switch their thinking from ideas to details of daily living, they lead their outer lives mainly with their preferred perceptive process, S or N. They are quiet, reserved, detachedly curious and quite adaptable—till one of their ruling principles is violated, at which point they stop adapting.

If (repeat, if) they do not develop their perception, they will have too little knowledge or experience of the world. Their thinking will have no real relationship to the problems of their time, and not very much will come of it.

In the field of ideas they are decisive, though socially they may be rather shy except with their best friends. Their special problem is to make their ideas understood. Wanting to state exact truth, they tend to state it in a way too complicated for most people to follow. If they will use simple statements, even if they think the point is too obvious to be worth making, their ideas will be much more widely understood and accepted.

Feeling is their least developed process. They are not apt to know, unless told, what matters emotionally to another person. They should recognize that most people do care about having their merits appreciated and their point of view respectfully considered. And they should act accordingly. Both their working life and personal life will go better if they take the trouble to do two simple things—say an appreciative word when praise is honestly due, and mention the points where they agree with another person before they bring up the points where they disagree.

ISTP

With sensing as auxiliary

See the realities. Great capacity for facts and details. Good at applied science and at mechanics and the properties of materials and things. With nontechnical interests, can use general principles to bring order out of masses of confused data and meaning out of unorganized facts. May be analysts of markets, sales, securities or statistics of any kind.

Likely to be patient, accurate, good with their hands, fond of sports and outdoors, and have a gift of fun.

Great believers in economy of effort, which is an asset if they judge accurately how much effort is needed, and do efficiently what the situation demands. If not, economy of effort can become mere laziness and little will get done.

INTP

With intuition as auxiliary

See the possibilities. Value facts mainly in relation to theory. Good at pure science, research, math, and the more complicated engineering problems. With nontechnical interests, make scholars, teachers, abstract thinkers in economics, philosophy, psychology, etc.

Apt to have insight, ingenuity, quick understanding, intellectual curiosity, fertility of ideas about problems. More interested in reaching solutions than in putting them into practice, which others can do as well.

Need to check out even their most attractive intuitive projects against the facts and the limitations these impose. Otherwise may squander their energies in pursuing impossibilities.

EXTRAVERTED FEELING TYPES

ESFJ and ENFJ

Extraverted feeling types radiate warmth and fellowship. Reliance on feeling gives them a very personal approach to life, since feeling judges everything by a set of personal values. Being extraverts, they focus their feeling on the people around them, placing a very high value on harmonious human contacts. They are friendly, tactful, sympathetic, and can almost always express the right feeling.

They are particularly warmed by approval and sensitive to indifference. Much of their pleasure and satisfaction comes not only from others' warmth of feeling but from their own; they enjoy admiring people and so tend to concentrate on a person's most admirable qualities. They try to live up to their ideals and are loyal to respected persons, institutions and causes.

They are unusually able to see value in other people's opinions. And even when the opinions are conflicting, they have faith that harmony can somehow be achieved and often manage to bring it about. Their intense concentration on other people's viewpoints sometimes makes them lose sight of the value of their own. They are best at jobs that deal with people and any situation where the needed cooperation can be won by good will. They think best when talking with people and enjoy talk. It takes special effort for them to be brief and businesslike.

Being judging types, they like to have matters settled and decided, but they do not need or want to make all the decisions themselves. They have many "shoulds" and "should nots" and may express these freely. They are conscientious, persevering, orderly even in small matters, and inclined to expect others to be the same.

If (repeat if) they do not develop their perception, they will, with the best of intentions, act on assumptions that turn out to be wrong. They are especially likely to be blind to the facts when there is a situation that is disagreeable or a criticism that hurts. It is harder for them than for other types to see things they wish were not true. If they fail to face disagreeable facts, they will sweep their problems under the rug instead of finding good solutions.

ESFJ

With sensing as auxiliary

Look at things with their sensing, which makes them practical, realistic, matter-of-fact, concerned with here and now. Appreciate and enjoy their material possessions and details of direct experience. Like to base plans and decisions upon known facts.

Enjoy variety, but usually adapt excellently to routine.

Compassion and awareness of physical conditions often attract them to nursing (where they provide warmth and comfort as well as devoted care) and to health professions in general.

ENFJ

With intuition as auxiliary

Look at things with their intuition rather than their sensing, hence are mainly interested in seeing the possibilities beyond what is present or obvious or known. Intuition heightens their understanding, long-range vision, insight, curiosity about new ideas, love of books and tolerance for theory.

Likely to have a gift of expression, but may use it in speaking to audiences rather than in writing. Interest in possibilities for people attracts them often to counseling in the fields of career choice or personal development.

INTROVERTED FEELING TYPES

ISFP and INFP

Introverted feeling types have a wealth of warmth and enthusiasm, but may not show it till they know you well. Reliance on feeling leads them to judge everything by personal values; being introverts, they choose these values without reference to the judgment of others. They know what is most important to them and protect it at all costs. Loyalties and ideals govern their lives. Their deepest feelings are seldom expressed, since their tenderness and passionate conviction are masked by their quiet reserve.

Their feeling being introverted, they conduct their outer lives mainly with their preferred perceptive process, either sensing or intuition. This makes them open-minded, flexible and adaptable—until one of the things they value most deeply seems in danger—at which point they stop adapting. Except for the sake of their work they have little wish to impress or dominate. The friends who mean most to them are the people who understand their values and the goals they are working toward.

They are twice as good when working at a job they believe in; their feeling puts added energy behind their efforts. They want their work to contribute to something that matters to them—human understanding or happiness or health, or perhaps to the perfecting of some project or undertaking. They want to have a purpose beyond their paycheck, no matter how big the check. They are perfectionists wherever their feeling is engaged and are usually happiest at some individual work involving their personal values.

Being idealists, they measure their accomplishments against an inner standard of perfection, instead of what is actually possible. They may suffer from too great self-demand, feeling that the contrast between their inner ideal and outer reality is somehow their fault. They need to find something they really care about, and then work to achieve it. With an ideal to work for, and good development of perception to help them recognize realistic difficulties and possible solutions, they can achieve a high degree of self-confident drive.

If (repeat if) they do not find a way to use their energies in the service of an ideal, they tend to become oversensitive and vulnerable, losing confidence in life and in themselves. If their perception is undeveloped, they may have so little realism that they aspire to the impossible and achieve frustratingly little.

ISFP

With sensing as auxiliary

See the realities. Mildly resemble ESFP, especially in seeing and meeting the need of the moment. Can pay close, unbroken attention for long periods, when work requires monitoring or close observation.

Show their warmth more by deeds than words. Compassionate toward all helpless creatures. Work well at jobs requiring devotion. Gentle, considerate, retiring. Consistently underestimate and understate themselves. May find satisfactory outlets in fields where taste, discrimination and a sense of beauty are of value.

INFP

With intuition as auxiliary

See the possibilities. Mildly resemble ENFP, especially in liking to concentrate on projects and disliking details not related to a deep interest. Understanding, tend to have insight and long-range vision. Curious about new ideas, fond of books and language. Apt to have skill in expressing themselves.

Ingenious and persuasive on the subject of their enthusiasms. Especially interested in possibilities for people. Enjoy counseling and teaching. With high ability, may excel in literature, art, science or psychology.

EXTRAVERTED SENSING TYPES

ESTP and ESFP

Extraverted sensing makes the adaptable realists, who good-naturedly accept and use the facts around them, whatever these are. They know what the facts are, since they notice and remember more than any other type. They know what goes on, who wants what and who doesn't. And they do not fight those facts. There is a sort of effortless economy in the way they deal with a situation, never taking the hard way when an easier one will work.

Often they can get other people to adapt, too. Being perceptive types, they look for the satisfying solution, instead of trying to impose any "should" or "must" of their own, and people generally like them well enough to consider any compromise that they suggest "might work". They are unprejudiced, open-minded, and usually patient, easygoing and tolerant of everyone—including themselves. They enjoy life. They don't get wrought up. Thus they may be very good at easing tense situations and pulling conflicting factions together.

Their expert sensing may show itself: (a) in a gift for machinery and the handling of tools and materials for craft or artistic purposes, or in ability to recognize quality, line, color, texture or detail; (b) in a capacity for exact facts, even when separate and unrelated, and the ability to absorb, remember and apply them; (c) in a continuous awareness, an ability to see the need of the moment and turn easily to meet it.

They are strong in the art of living, appreciate and enjoy their material possessions, and take the time to acquire and care for these. They value enjoyment, from good food and good clothes to music, art and all the products of the amusement industry. Even without these helps, they get fun out of life, which makes them fun to be with.

Being realists, they get more from first-hand experience than from study, are more effective on the job than on written tests, and doubly effective when on familiar ground. Seeing the value of new ideas, theories and possibilities may well come a bit hard, because intuition is their least developed process.

Their net effectiveness depends on whether they develop their judgment to the point where it can balance their easygoing sensing and give some direction to their lives. If (repeat, if) their judgment is not good enough to give them any character or stick-to-it-iveness, they may adapt mainly to their own love of a good time, and become lazy, unstable and generally shallow.

ESTP

With thinking as auxiliary

Like to make decisions with their thinking rather than their feeling. Hence are more aware of the logical consequences of an act or decision.

Thinking gives them more grasp of underlying principles, helps with math and theory and makes it easier for them to get tough when the situation calls for toughness.

ESFP

With feeling as auxiliary

Like to make decisions with their feeling rather than their thinking. Feeling gives them tact, sympathy, interest in people, ease in handling human contacts, and may make them too easy as disciplinarians.

Feeling also makes for artistic taste and judgment, but is no help with analysis.

INTROVERTED SENSING TYPES

ISTJ and ISFJ

Introverted sensing types are made particularly dependable by their combination of preferences. They use their favorite process, sensing, in their inner life, and base their ideas on a deep, solid accumulation of stored impressions, which gives them some pretty unshakable ideas. Then they use their preferred kind of judgment, thinking or feeling, to run their outer life. Thus they have a complete, realistic, practical respect both for the facts and for whatever responsibilities these facts create. Sensing provides the facts. And after the introvert's characteristic pause for reflection, their judgment accepts the responsibilities.

They can remember and use any number of facts, but want them all accurate. They like everything kept factual, clearly stated, not too complex. Not till you know them very well do you discover that behind their outer calm they are seeing the facts from an intensely individual, often delightfully humorous angle. Their private reaction, the way a thing will strike them, is quite unpredictable.

But what they actually do about it will be sound and sensible because what they do is part of their outer life and so is governed by their best judgment. No type is more thorough, painstaking, systematic, hard-working, or patient with detail and routine. Their perseverance tends to stabilize everything with which they are connected. They do not enter into things impulsively, but once in, they are very hard to distract, discourage or stop. They do not quit unless experience convinces them they are wrong.

As administrators, their practical judgment and memory for detail make them conservative, consistent, able to cite cases to support their evaluations of people and methods. They will go to any amount of trouble if they "can see the need of it," but hate to be required to do anything that "doesn't make sense." Usually it is hard for them to see any sense in needs that differ widely from their own. But once they are convinced that a given thing does matter a lot to a given person, the need becomes a fact to be respected and they may go to generous lengths to help satisfy it, while still holding that it doesn't make sense.

Their effectiveness depends on their developing adequate judgment for dealing with the world. If (repeat, if) judgment remains childish, the world is not dealt with, the person retreats into silent preoccupation with inner reactions to sense-impressions, and not much of value is likely to result.

ISTJ

With thinking as auxiliary

Mildly resemble the extraverted thinking types.

Thinking stresses analysis, logic and decisiveness.

In their personal relationships, they may need to take extra pains to understand and appreciate. They will then be in no danger of overriding people less forceful than they are, and will find themselves richly repaid both in their work and in their private lives.

ISFJ

With feeling as auxiliary

Mildly resemble the extraverted feeling types.

Feeling stresses loyalty, consideration and the common welfare.

They are sympathetic, tactful, kind and genuinely concerned, which traits make them very supportive to persons in need of support. They are often attracted to fields where systematic attention to detail is combined with a care for people, as in the health professions.

EXTRAVERTED INTUITIVE TYPES

ENTP and ENFP

The extraverted intuitives are the enthusiastic innovators. They are always seeing new possibilities—new ways of doing things, or quite new and fascinating things that might be done—and they go all out in pursuit of these. They have a lot of imagination and initiative for originating projects, and a lot of impulsive energy for carrying them out. They are wholly confident of the worth of their inspirations, tireless with the problems involved, and ingenious with the difficulties. They get so interested in the current project that they think of little else.

They get other people interested too. Being perceptive types, they try to understand people rather than to judge them; often, by putting their minds to it, they achieve an uncanny knowledge of what makes a given person tick, and use this to win support for their project. They adapt to other people in the way they present their objective, but never to the point of giving it up. Their faith in their intuition makes them too independent and individualistic to be conformists, but they keep a lively circle of contacts as a consequence of their versatility and their easy interest in almost everything.

In their quieter moments, their auxiliary gives them some balancing introversion and adds depth to the insights supplied by their intuition. At its best, their insight, tempered by judgment, may amount to wisdom.

Their trouble is that they hate uninspired routine and find it remarkably hard to apply themselves to humdrum detail unconnected with any major interest. Worse yet, even their projects begin to seem routine and lose attraction as soon as the main problems are solved and the rest seems clear sailing. They may discipline themselves to carry through, but they are happiest and most effective in jobs that permit of one project after another, with someone else taking over as soon as the situation is well in hand.

If their judgment and self-discipline are not developed, they will throw themselves into ill-chosen projects, leave them unfinished, and squander their inspirations, abilities and energies on unimportant, half-done jobs. At their worst, they will be unstable, undependable, fickle and easily discouraged.

ENTP

With thinking as auxiliary

More independent, analytical and critical of their inspirations, more impersonal in their relations with people, more apt to consider only how others may affect their projects and not how the projects may affect others.

May be inventors, scientists, trouble-shooters, promoters, or almost anything that it interests them to be.

ENFP

With feeling as auxiliary

More enthusiastic, more concerned with people and skillful in handling them. Much drawn to counseling, where each new person presents a fresh problem to be solved and fresh possibilities to be communicated.

May be inspired and inspiring teachers, scientists, artists, advertising or sales people, or almost anything that it interests them to be.

INTROVERTED INTUITIVE TYPES

INTJ and INFJ

The introverted intuitives are the great innovators in the field of ideas. They trust their intuitive insights as to the relationships and meanings of things, regardless of established authority or popular beliefs. They trust their vision of the possibilities, regardless of universal skepticism. And they want to see their ideas worked out in practice, accepted and applied.

Consequently, they have to deal firmly with the outer world, which they do by means of their preferred kind of judgment, either T or F. Thus they back up their original insight with the determination, perseverance and enduring purpose of the judging types. When they are driving to turn an inspiration into a reality, problems stimulate rather than discourage them. The impossible takes a little longer—but not much.

Certain dangers arise from their single-minded concentration. They see their goal so clearly that they may not even look for the other things they need to see—the things that conflict with their goal. They may not take the trouble to learn the details of the situation they propose to change. Since sensing is their least developed process, they can easily overlook relevant facts and the limitations these facts impose.

They may not consider the opposition they will meet, its strength or source or probable grounds. They may not consider the possibility that something is wrong with their idea. In scientific research or engineering design, a trial of their boldly ingenious ideas will visibly succeed—or fail and show where the idea has to be revised. They need to be particularly alert for flaws in their ideas in those fields where their insights cannot be tested so clearly.

Their auxiliary process, if adequately developed, can supply needed criticism of their ideas. Judgment can be used to foresee difficulties and decide what needs to be done about them. Most original inspirations need to be modified in the light of facts. Ideas need to be worked out and perfected to lessen objections. The best ideas still need to be presented to the world in terms understandable to other types.

If (repeat, if) their judgment is not developed, they cannot criticize their own inner vision, and they tend to reject all judgments from outside. As a result, they cannot shape their inspirations into effective action. Their ideas will go to waste, and they may be regarded only as visionaries or cranks.

INTJ

With thinking as auxiliary

Most individualistic and most independent of all the types.

Resemble extraverted thinkers in organizing ability and a tendency to ignore the views and feelings of those who don't agree with them.

Logical, critical, decisive, determined, often stubborn.

Tend to drive others almost as hard as they drive themselves.

Apt to be effective, relentless reorganizers. Can be efficient executives, rich in ideas.

INFJ

With feeling as auxiliary

Less obviously individualistic, more apt to win cooperation than to demand it.

Resemble extraverted feeling types in their sympathetic handling of people and in a tendency to ignore harsh and uncongenial facts.

May apply their ingenuity to problems of human welfare on their own and in their own way.

Can be successful executives, especially where affairs can be conducted on a personal basis.

APPENDIX H
The Interview Protocol

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

The following statements are designed to determine the value of the process which you have completed. Most of the statements may be answered by use of a rating scale. Others will have to be answered by written comments. Your candid responses will be invaluable to the completion of the study and implications for future considerations.

Thank you for your cooperation.

DIRECTIONS

The rating scale is designed to correspond to the following:

- 1: To a very little extent
- 2: To a little extent
- 3: To some extent
- 4: To a great extent
- 5: To a very great extent

When applicable, please circle the response which best represents your feelings.

-2-

1. The KTS results are an accurate profile of me.

1 2 3 4 5

2. Using KTS results will enable me to understand my behavior better.

1 2 3 4 5

3. The KTS results will help me to improve my working relationship with subordinates.

1 2 3 4 5

4. Subordinates' perceptions of my personality type are more consistent with how I perceive myself.

1 2 3 4 5

5. Based upon my experience, the KTS is an efficient way to assess personality type.

1 2 3 4 5

6. I will use the KTS findings to

7. Other comments concerning the KTS:

-3-

8. The LEAD-SELF results are an accurate profile of my leadership behavior.

1 2 3 4 5

9. The LEAD-SELF results will help me improve my leadership effectiveness.

1 2 3 4 5

10. The LEAD-SELF results will help me diagnose leadership situations more effectively.

1 2 3 4 5

11. It is easy for me to adapt my leadership style to meet subordinates' needs.

1 2 3 4 5

12. Subordinates' assessments of my leadership behavior are beneficial to me.

1 2 3 4 5

Why?

13. Based upon my experience, the LEAD-SELF is an efficient means to assess leadership behavior.

1 2 3 4 5

-4-

14. I will use the combined LEAD results to

15. Other comments concerning the LEAD:

16. There is a positive relationship between my personality type and leadership behavior.

1 2 3 4 5

17. The combined process of testing and analysis was effective.

1 2 3 4 5

18. The combined process of testing and analysis was efficient.

1 2 3 4 5

19. The combined process will help me improve my leadership effectiveness.

1 2 3 4 5

-5-

20. On the basis of the findings, specific areas where I can improve my leadership skills are

21. Please list the most beneficial aspects of the entire process:

22. Please list the least beneficial aspects of the entire process:

23. General Comments:

