

CONDITIONS DETERMINING THE SELECTION OF  
EDUCATION MANAGEMENT STYLES

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION AND CLARIFICATION OF TERMINOLOGY

#### 1. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The use of the terms management and management styles in the educational terminology is of comparatively recent origin. The tremendous technological development of the past few decades has led to an increase in the complexity of reality. Therefore present-day education leaders will have to function in an environment of ever increasing complexity. Van der Westhuizen *et al* (1986 : 2). Social forces will generate educational demands and expectations which are incompatible. As a result of the tremendous development, changes and innovations in the world of education, the task of education leaders has become very complex and demanding. Nel (1983 : 30) concludes that:

**"Die intrinsieke kompleksiteit van die skoolhoof se taak neem steeds toe namate, onder andere, tegnokratisering in die Westerse beskawing toeneem en namate spesialisasie as gevolg van die toepassing van differensiasie genoodsaak word."**

Cawood (1979 : 139) adds the following as factors determining the complexity of the education leader's management task: curriculum changes, larger schools and tempo of change in the community served by the school. Recently, some secondary schools have been graded as complex schools according to fields of study being offered.

Education leaders are required to pay attention to personal development as well as management techniques in order to improve the management of their schools, their own work satisfaction and most important to provide the best educational environment for each pupil to reach true adulthood. The

principal has become a personnel manager with managerial and academic responsibilities. In order to do justice to his educational task the principal will have to utilize the potential of his staff to the full to realize the school's objectives effectively. In this respect De Witt (1984 : 59) states that:

**"A basic function of a principal is to create an educational environment which will inspire teachers to teach well and enable pupils to learn effectively."**

## 2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

To what extent can the education leader become a more effective education manager by adapting his/her management style to meet the demands of the specific school environment; to suit the different situations and to meet the different needs of his/her subordinates?

## 3. PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

In the past the role of the principal as manager of the school was essentially autocratic. Since the late 1960's the emphasis has shifted to a more democratic approach.

**"n Mensgerigte bestuurstyl, as demokratiese bestuurstyl, blyk die effektiefste vir die eiesoortige opset van die skool te wees want die skool en hierdie besondere bestuurstyl is albei gerig op die bevordering van die welsyn van mense te midde van hul werksaamhede." Nel (1983 : 30)**

The importance of participative management and shared decision-making has become very important. Members of staff have demanded a say in the management of the school and a team management approach has come to the fore. In

the world of education it has been proved that involved teachers are the key to a sound healthy educational environment. Therefore principals are expected to utilize the full potential of their teaching staff by incorporating members of staff in certain management functions according to their abilities and experience.

Research in the field of management styles has proved during the last years of the previous decade that there is no single best leadership style. Successful leaders are those who are able and willing to adapt their leadership style to meet the demands of their own unique situation. In the complexity of the modern day school situation the education leader who wants to be an efficient manager must endeavour to adapt his management style to the specific situation in order to achieve the objective of the specific school more effectively.

The education leader must adopt a verifiable management philosophy. Prinsloo (1985 : 22 & 24) recommends a people-orientated approach based on a Christian view of life, **"Die Christelike lewens- en wêreldbeskouing kan dus as basis dien vir 'n verantwoorde menswaardigheidsbenadering as filosofie vir die Christen onderwysbestuurder."** This philosophy must recognize the pedagogical nature of the school. De Witt (1984 : 59) agrees with the following explicit statement:

**"Practice proves indisputably that the importance of human relations is overwhelming in a people-orientated enterprise such as a school. This axiom is not surprising, because, whereas most other administrative processes are ultimately concerned with things, educational administration and management is concerned with people."**

It is important, however, that every education leader should endeavour to find the correct balance between task-orientated behaviour and people orientated behaviour.

## 4. RESEARCH DESIGN

### 4.1 Method of research

This research is a theoretical study of management styles with specific reference to the flexibility and adaptability of leadership styles to different situations in the school environment. The study is based on existing literature, viz. textbooks, manuals, articles, dissertations and the viewpoints of experts on the subject in managerial positions in schools.

### 4.2 Composition of this research report

This research report consists of six chapters. In the introduction the problem is formulated and the purpose of the study is explained. It also includes clarification of the terminology used in the research project. The second chapter gives a historical perspective on leadership and management styles, incorporating the most recent developments. In the third chapter effectiveness and situational variables are related to management style. Chapter four entails a detailed description of the concept of situational leadership, while chapter five indicates the application of situational leadership in education management. Chapter six illustrates situations determining the selection of a management style culminating in a model representing possible variables.

## 5. TERMINOLOGY

### 5.1 Management

Robbins (1980 : 6) states that the most accurate definition of management is "**the universal process of efficiently getting activities completed with and through people**". According to him this universal process can take place in any organization and includes "**planning, organizing, leading and controlling that takes place to accomplish objectives**".

Stoner (1982 : 7) takes his definition from Mary Parker Follett: **"the art of getting things done through people"**.

He emphasizes the following important aspect: **"managers (must) achieve organization goals by arranging for others to perform whatever tasks may be necessary - not by performing the tasks themselves"**. He agrees that management is a process which entails planning, organizing, leading and controlling in order to achieve organizational goals.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 3) defines management as: **".... working with and through individuals and groups to accomplish organizational goals"**. They postulate that management applies to all organizations including educational institutions.

According to these definitions three components are necessary in this universal process, namely goals, a task and people.

## 5.2 Manager

Reddin (1970 : 19) defines a manager as **"... a person occupying a position in a formal organization who is responsible for the work of at least one other person and who has formal authority over that person"**.

According to Robbins (1980 : 7) managers **"... work through people, allocating scarce resources, to achieve goals"**. This definition indicates the difference between being effective (achieving goals) and being efficient (allocating scarce resources). According to Peter Drucker a manager's performance can be measured in terms of these two concepts. He postulates that although efficiency is important, effectiveness is critical (Stoner 1982 : 14). Reddin (1970 : 6) compares efficiency with effectiveness in the following table:

## EFFICIENCY VERSUS EFFECTIVENESS

Do things right	rather than	Do right things
Solve problems	rather than	Produce creative alternatives
Safeguard resources	rather than	Optimize resource utilization
Follow duties	rather than	Obtain results
Lower costs	rather than	Increase profits.

It is thus theoretically possible that a person can be extremely efficient, but totally ineffective.

### 5.3 Managerial functions

Most writers on management agree on the primary functions of the manager, as is indicated in the relative table by De Wet (1980 : 43). These functions then constitute what a manager should do to achieve his as well as his organization's objectives, and are identified as planning, organizing, leading and controlling.

**-Planning**, which is the process of selecting objectives and deciding what should be done to attain them. Mescon (1981 : 204). Planning must be a continuous process; plans must be revised when necessary to make them consistent with reality.

**-Organizing** according to Robbins (1980 : 8) is the establishment of relationships between the activities to be performed as well as the personnel to perform them. This would entail the division and allocation of jobs to be done.

**-Leading** is the managerial task of guiding and supervising subordinates. Robbins (1980 : 10) states that the leading function "also includes the responsibility for motivating personnel".

**-Controlling** is defined by Mescon (1981 : 337) as "... the process of ensuring that the organization is attaining its objectives". As an integral part of

every manager's task, control can also be used to encourage success.

These functions are interrelated. Marx (1978 : 83) states very clearly that the four managerial functions should not be seen as separate, non-related entities. Effective performance of the control function enables the management to know whether plans to meet the objectives should be revised. Thus a link is formed between planning and controlling which indicates that management is a process.

#### 5.4 Managerial activities

While performing his managerial functions, the manager engages in different activities. Allen, quoted by Van Rooyen (1984 : 9 & 10) distinguishes nineteen managerial activities and indicates how they are related to the different managerial functions:

<u>MANAGERIAL FUNCTION</u>	<u>MANAGERIAL ACTIVITIES</u>
<b>PLANNING</b>	Forecasting Developing objectives Programming Scheduling Budgeting Developing policies Developing procedures
<b>ORGANIZING</b>	Developing Organization Structure Delegating Developing Relationships
<b>LEADING</b>	Decision Making Communicating Motivating Selecting People Developing People
<b>CONTROLLING</b>	Developing Performance Standards Measuring Performance Evaluating Performance Correcting Performance

Mescon (1981 : 53) refers to the activities of communication and decision-making as the linking processes because they connect and interrelate the four functions. It is therefore clear that some of these activities are interchangeable. Prinsloo (1983 : 33) distinguishes between functions and activities as follows: the functions form a process with a definite order whereas the activities could be incorporated with any function.

## 5.5 Managerial Roles

Minzberg (1973 : 54) defines a role as "... **an organized set of behaviors belonging to an identifiable office or position**". He identified ten roles that he believes managers play at various times to varying degrees according to their own personality. Mescon (1981 : 18).

Minzberg divided these roles into three broad categories, viz.

- interpersonal roles, which help the manager to keep the organization running smoothly;
- informational roles, which facilitates the gathering and dissemination of information;
- decisional roles, whereby the manager can allocate resources, resolve conflict and negotiate on behalf of the organization. Stoner (1982 : 22 & 23).

Gorton (1980 : 65-67) identifies six major roles pertaining to the work of the school administrator as:

- manager, who is expected to organize and coordinate physical and human resources to achieve the objectives of the school effectively;



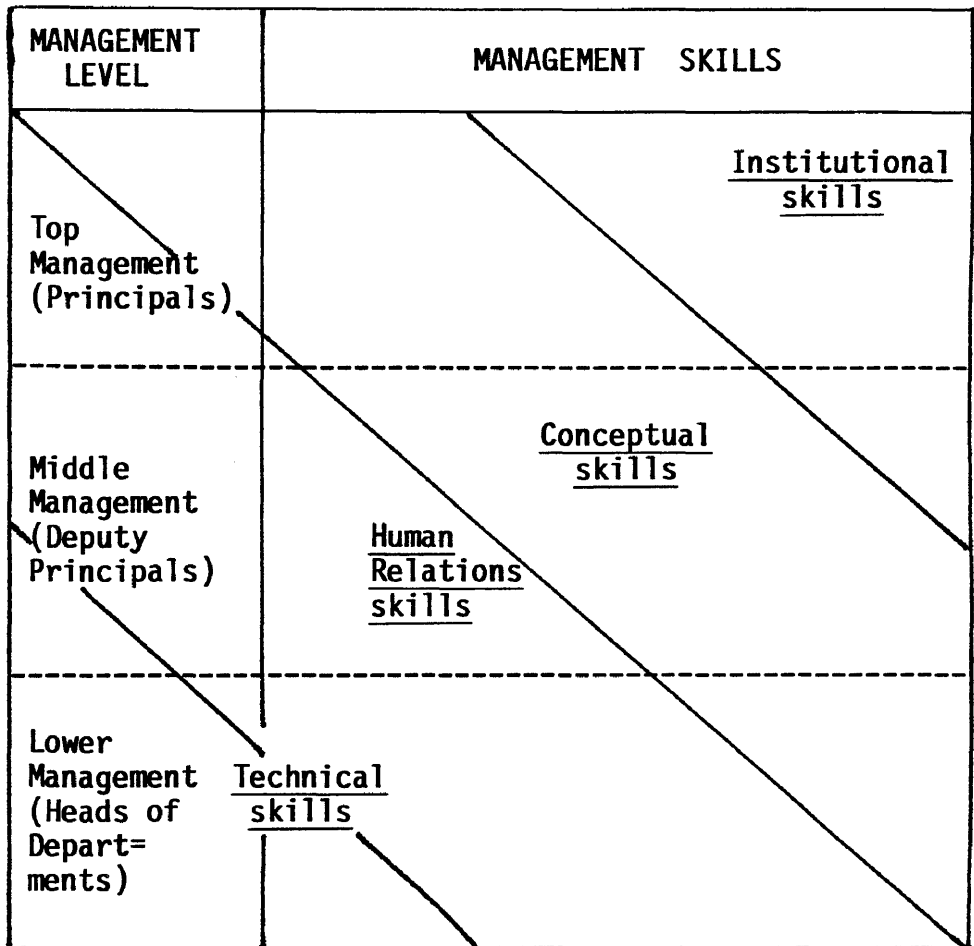
- instructional leader, who is responsible for the factors and conditions that influence student learning;
- disciplinarian, who should punish students not conforming to rules of conduct;
- facilitator of human relations who must meet the personal needs of students and teachers and must develop co-operative and harmonious relationships between them;
- change agent capable of changing the educational programme to improve the programme and to meet the changing needs of the students and the environment;
- conflict mediator, who attempts to secure all the facts in the situation, to reach a compromise and to resolve the conflict.

These roles are interdependent and interact to form an integrated whole which defines the work of the manager or school administrator. The task of the education leader is becoming more complex and demanding as can be seen from the discussion of the different roles to be played to resolve school problems and to achieve school objectives. Therefore the education leader should consider delegating some of these roles to willing and able members of his management team. **"The important point is not who performs the roles, but that they be performed effectively"**. Gorton (1980 : 81).

## 5.6 Management skills

Robert L. Katz has identified three basic types of skills which are needed by all managers, viz. technical human and conceptual skills. Stoner (1982 : 19)

-Technical skill is the ability to use knowledge, methods, techniques and equipment necessary for the performance of specific tasks acquired from experience, education and training (Hersey & Blanchard (1982 : 5).



**FIGURE 1.1 DIFFERENT SKILLS AT VARIOUS MANAGEMENT LEVELS ADAPTED FROM SASHKIN & MORRIS (1984 : 25)**

-Human skill, according to Sergiovanni et al (1980 : 13) refers to the school administrator's ability to work effectively and efficiently with other people on a one-to-one basis and in group settings. This requires considerable self-understanding and acceptance as well as empathy, consideration and appreciation for others.

It is important to note that all teaching staff, whether in a managerial position, or not, must have a knowledge and understanding of motivation, attitudinal development, group dynamics, human need, morale and the development of human resources.

-Conceptual skill includes the ability of the education leader to see the school, the community and the educational programme in totality. Sergiovanni et al (1980 : 14) includes "... the effective mapping of interdependence for each of the components of the school as an organization, the educational program as an instructional system, and the functioning of the human organization." It is clear that conceptual skills are more important to positions higher up in the organizational hierarchy.

Sashkin and Morris (1984 : 24 & 25) emphasize the classification of Floyd C. Mann, who identified a fourth skill, namely:

-Institutional skill, which is required if the manager is to represent the organization to other organizations and to society at large. He postulates that: "... people differ in their ability to see, think clearly about, appraise, predict, and understand the demands and opportunities posed to the organization by its environment."

The educational leader needs an accurate and comprehensive view of the school-environment relationship in order to be an effective professional, instructional and cultural leader.

It is clear that "... the common denominator that appears to be crucial at all levels is human skill". Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 5).

Krajewski et al (1983 : 14) state that the elementary principal fits in best in the middle management level, and that these principals "are definitely managers whose managerial tasks must be effected via interaction with people". This statement indicates the need for special training in this field. Gray and Starke (1984 : 18)

make the following interesting observation: "All this suggests that most of us spend most of our formal education studying something that will become less and less important to us as we progress through our managerial careers". This is very true in the case of school principals. Therefore it is essential that all education leaders should receive academic-professional training in management in order to manage their schools effectively.

### 5.7 Education Management

Paisey (1981 : 2) postulates that education and management are large and complex concepts which should co-exist in schools to promote the health of the organization. He proceeds to define the two concepts as follows:

**"Management is the universal and unavoidable personal and organizational process of relating resources to objectives",** whereas

**"Educational management is the particular process of relating resources to objectives required in organizations which explicitly exist to provide education."**

Paisey (1981 : 3).

Prinsloo (1983 : 17) states explicitly that education management is definitely management because all the managerial functions, activities, tasks and roles can be identified in this discipline. It is however a unique situation and therefore the demands made by education on management are also unique. He emphasizes the meaning of education management as follows:

**"Onderwysbestuur vind sy sin in die skepping van 'n veilige ruimte vir opvoedende onderwys en is as sulks lid van die pedagogiek-familie."** Prinsloo (1983 : 18).

Flippo (1982 : 4) describes modern society as an organizational society. He classifies the school as an organization and pinpoints the task of education management as follows:

**"Aside from their being recognised as formal entities, organizations can be viewed as systems that take inputs (for example, students) and transform them (instruction) into intended outputs (educated citizens). Inputs of all types are taken from the surrounding environment and, after processing, are returned to the environment in a somewhat different form. This transformation process must be regulated in some manner, and its regulatory element, a subsystem, can be referred to as 'management'."**

De Wet (1981 : 111) quotes Barrilleaux who defines the role of the education leader or principal as follows:

**"In a large school the head is in much the same position as the general manager of a business concern, assisted by one or two deputies and a second master or mistress."**

All these definitions stress the fact that education management is a complex phenomenon which necessitates thorough training and research.

## 5.8 Leadership

After reviewing the viewpoints of a number of writers Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 83) come to the conclusion that leadership is "... **the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation**". This means that it is the function of the leader, the follower and other situational variables.

Szilagyi and Wallace (1983 : 263) postulate that leadership is founded on the concept of influence, where influence itself concerns legitimate, reward, coercive, information, expert and referent power.

These definitions indicate clearly that leadership is a complex, multifaceted phenomenon. It is therefore difficult to settle on a single, appropriate definition of leadership. The purpose of a study in leadership will determine the most appropriate definition, e.g. to identify leaders, to train leaders or to compare effective and ineffective leaders.

#### 5.8.1 Managerial Leadership

Stoner (1982 : 468) defines managerial leadership as "**... the process of directing and influencing the task-related activities of group members**". Therefore managerial leadership must involve:

- other people;
- an unequal distribution of power among leaders and group members; and
- legitimate influence.

Therefore managerial leaders can tell subordinates what to do as well as how to carry out instructions.

#### 5.8.2 Leadership and Management

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 3) "**... the achievement of organizational objectives through leadership is management**". They view leadership as a broader concept than management. Therefore management is seen as a special kind of leadership concerned mainly with the achievement of organizational goals.

Hodgetts (1979 : 288) concludes that leadership is a part of management because it is "... a **process of influencing people to direct their efforts towards the achievement of some particular goal(s)**". He points out, however, that managers must do more than merely lead, because if they fail to influence people to accomplish goals, they will fail as managers.

Thus, it is clear that leadership and management are not one and the same thing. Leadership comes to the fore whenever a person influences the behaviour of another person or a group, whereas management takes place in an organization, viz. the home, the school or the factory to achieve the goals of this organization.

### 5.8.3 Educational Leadership

Marks and Stoops (1978 : 118) defines educational leadership as "... **that action and behaviour among individuals and groups to move toward educational goals that are increasingly acceptable to them**". They state that this leadership is a corequisite for effective supervision and is essential for a successful educational programme.

Bernard (1981 : 58) connects educational leadership with education management and states that: "**Leier=skap in die onderwys impliseer die bestuur van die aktiwiteite van diegene wat by die opvoeding en onderwys betrokke is om vooropgestelde doelwitte en doelstellings te verwesenlik.**"

In order to be an effective professional leader the education leader must therefore take cognizance of the needs, possibilities and responsibilities of leadership. This means that professional educational leadership should include inter-alia meaningful staff meetings; constructive class visits; orientation for new staff members and effective planning.

#### 5.8.4 Leadership Style

Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 126) define the style of leaders as "**... the consistent behavior patterns that they use when they are working with and through other people as perceived by those people**". They maintain that the behaviour of managers in organizations results from the interaction of style and expectations.

Mescon (1981 : 449) perceives leadership style in a managerial context as "**... the general way a leader behaves toward subordinates in order to obtain objectives**".

Stoner (1981 : 449) states that leadership style is composed of two distinct elements:

- "-the leaders assumptions about subordinate employees; and**
- the leaders actual behavior when interacting with subordinate employees."**

According to these definitions it is clear that leadership style is basically defined by the extent to which the leader focusses on getting work done, i.e. task-oriented and the extent to which he focusses on the needs of people, i.e. relations-orientated.



## CHAPTER II

### THE EVOLUTION OF LEADERSHIP THOUGHT, THEORY AND STYLE

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Management is as old as organizations. Hodgetts (1979 : 3) states that it has been used for thousands of years as is evident in the practices of the Sumerians, the Romans, the Catholic Church as well as in the writings of Machiavelli. The course of history throughout the ages has shown that successful leaders give vision to their followers and effective leadership is a necessary ingredient of successful management. Managers within organizations must provide the leadership necessary to help the organization achieve its objectives. Therefore it is clear that without effective leadership throughout the organization, it is unlikely that objectives will be accomplished.

Szilagyi & Wallace (1983 : 264) draws the attention to two important leader roles in an organization, viz. formal leaders and informal, emergent or peer leaders. Formal leaders exercise formal influence because of the position and authority designated to them by the organization. Informal leaders exert informal influence which is not prescribed by the organization in terms of position or authority. Allen (1969 : 27 & 40) distinguishes between the natural leader who has strong aptitudes and who obtains results by using his or her intuitive skills, and the management leader who is flexible and capable to adapt his or her mode (style) to meet identified needs. He regards the management leader as a specialist.

All the leadership research has tried to develop a more complete understanding of the leadership process. A better

understanding will assist leaders to become more effective in the situations they have to face daily. Therefore the measure of leadership effectiveness forms an integral part of leadership research. According to Yukl (1981 : 5) the most commonly used measure of leadership effectiveness is the extent to which the leader's organization performs its task successfully and attains its goals.

In this chapter the evolution of leadership will be discussed. It will explain the origin of the different schools of thought; the development of leadership theories from a simplistic search for special traits to a meaningful understanding of leadership behaviour and ultimately to situational control.

## 2. SCHOOLS OF MANAGEMENT THOUGHT

A leader must be concerned about tasks and human relationships, because in essence leadership involves the accomplishment of goals with and through people. The task-orientated manager is concerned with getting the job done rather than with the development of his or her subordinates; whereas the employee-orientated leader tries to motivate and support his or her subordinates. These leadership concerns are the nucleus of the following schools of thought.

### 2.1 Scientific Management Movement

Frederick Winslow Taylor is the main exponent of this movement and is often referred to as the father of scientific management. Scientific management resulted from the need to increase productivity. The best way to expand productivity was to improve the techniques and methods used by the workers. Taylor initiated his time studies to accomplish this and Frank Gilbreth made his contribution in the form of motion studies. Production was increased by these scientific measures but it also

meant that "... the workers had to adjust to management" and that "... management was to be divorced from human affairs and emotions". Hersey & Blanchard (1982 : 84). It was quite clear that the manager was to concentrate on the needs of the worker.

## 2.2 Human Relations Movement

In the 1930's Elton Mayo and Fritz Roethlisberger did the Hawthorne studies and initiated a new school of management thought. These studies tried to determine the impact of the physical environment on the productivity of the workers. The results led to a "... new emphasis on the human factor in the functioning of organizations and the attainment of their goals". Robbins (1980 : 41). Therefore, followers of this school of thought regarded people as the really important component of management. The organization must develop around the people (workers) and the manager had to take human feelings and attitudes into consideration.

Thus, the scientific management movement stressed a concern for the task, while the human relations movement placed the emphasis on a concern for people.

## 3. LEADERSHIP STYLES

According to most authors leadership style is the behaviour or behaviour pattern exhibited by the leader when attempting to influence the behaviour of subordinates. This means that style is composed of two main elements: the leaders assumptions about subordinates and the leaders actual behaviour when relating to subordinates. Leadership styles are usually categorized into three main types:

- autocratic style
- democratic style
- abdicatoric or liassez-faire style.

### 3.1 Autocratic style

This is the traditional style where the leaders tell their followers what to do and how to do it. The autocratic leader believes that decision-making authority must be retained by the leader. According to Gray and Starke (1984 : 229) the main problem with this style is that the workers are made aware of what to do, but not why. They also point out that the autocratic style is ideal for the subordinate who wants a safe, secure situation without having to accept any responsibility.

### 3.2 Democratic style

The leaders share their leadership responsibility with their followers by involving them in the planning and execution of their management tasks. The main advantage of the participative style is improved performance and subordinate satisfaction because they are allowed a say in the decisions that affect them. A management technique which has become popular in recent years, viz. quality circles, is based on the idea of participative or democratic management.

This technique consists of free type discussions between people having common interests and doing the same type of work with a view to identifying and solving work related problems. The technique does not depend solely on discussion but also on the knowledge of the people concerned.

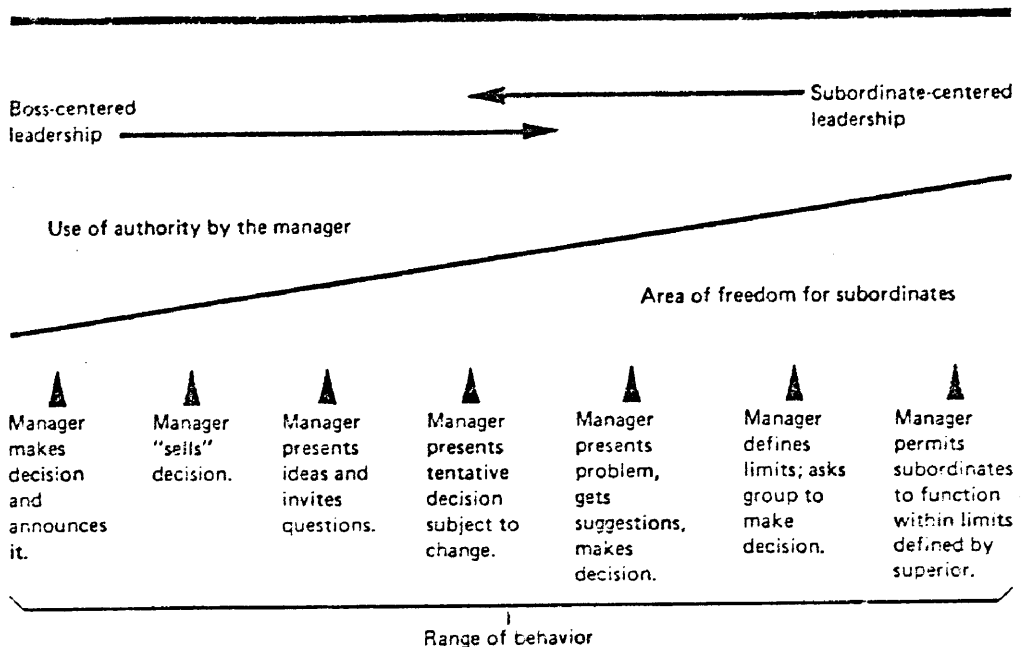
The quality circle principle is based on the simple concept that nearly all people will take more pride and interest in their work if they are allowed to make it meaningful. Professor Manie Spoelstra declared at a Principal's Interest Group of the TTA in March 1985 that the Quality Circle technique can be adapted to and applied in many ways in educational institutions.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 85) past writers have indicated that a concern for the task is represented by the authoritarian leader while concern for relationships is represented by the democratic leader.

### 3.3 Abdicratic style

Gray and Starke (1984 : 232) use this term for a laissez-faire approach where the leader chooses not to adopt a leadership style and actually abdicates the leadership position. This means that there is a total absence of formal leadership. Though it seems unrealistic, this leadership style can be effective where the subordinates are highly motivated and extremely experienced.

The autocratic-democratic dichotomy is a single continuum indicating the amount of discretion given to the subordinates by the leader. The wide variety of leadership styles between the two extremes are depicted as follows:



**FIGURE 2.1** A continuum of leadership behavior.  
(Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt)  
Source: Luthans (1981 : 434)

## 4. LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Most theories of leadership have generally focussed on exactly the same objective which entails identifying the elements

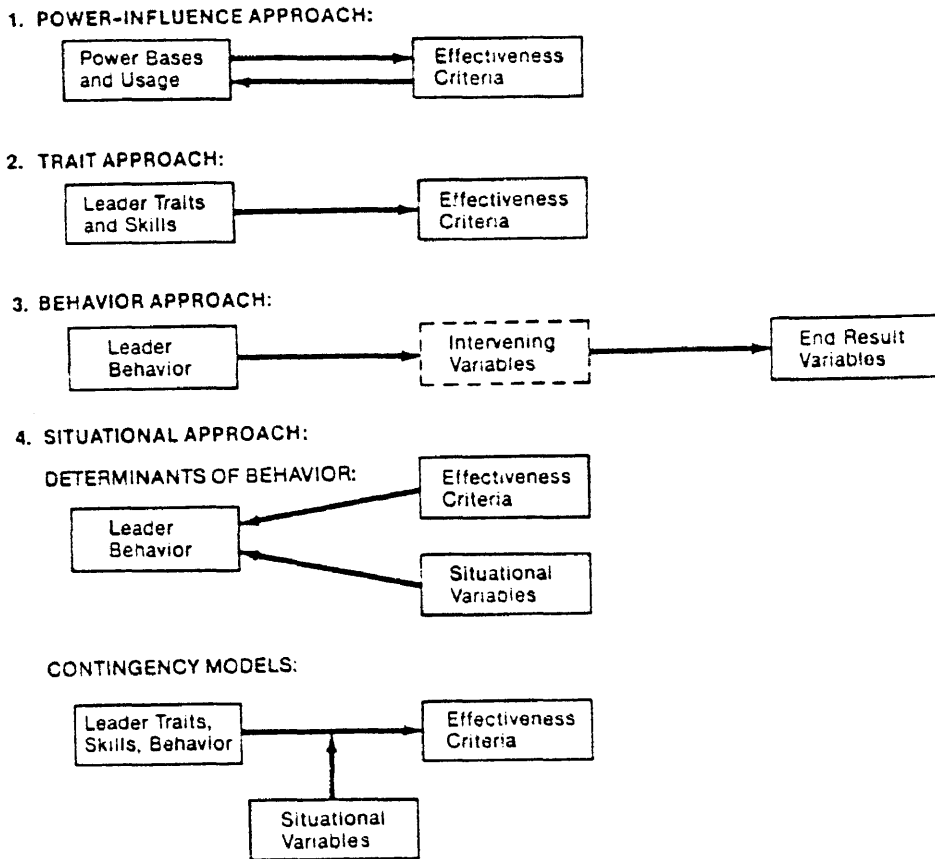
or factors that result in leadership effectiveness. A study of leadership theories will provide a solid foundation for understanding the importance of leadership style on effective management practice.

A number of authors advocate three major approaches to leadership which can be summarized as follows:

<b>APPROACH</b>	<b>EMPHASIS</b>
<u>Trait</u> (1940s-50s)	There exists a finite set of individual <b>traits</b> or characteristics that can be used to distinguish successful from unsuccessful leaders.
<u>Behavioral</u> (1950s-60s)	The most important aspect of leadership is not the traits of the leader but what the leader does in various situations. Successful leaders are distinguished from unsuccessful leaders by their particular <b>style</b> of leadership.
<u>Situational</u> (1970s)	The effectiveness of the leader is not only determined by his or her style of behavior but also by the <b>situation</b> surrounding the leadership environment. Situational factors include the characteristics of the leader and the subordinate, the nature of the task, the structure of the group, and the type of reinforcement.

Szilagyi and Wallace (1983 : 266)

Yukl, (1981 : 7) however, postulates that all research on leadership can be classified into one of the following approaches, which include the casual relationships among the variables:



**FIGURE 2.2** General approaches in research on leader effectiveness.

The power-influence approach attempts to explain leader effectiveness in terms of the source and amount of power available to the leader as well as the manner in which the leader exercises power over followers. The contingency approach endeavours to identify situational moderator variables that determine which type of leadership will be most effective in a given situation.

Gray and Starke (1984 : 221 & 222) separate leadership theories into universalist theories and contingency theories. They clarify their terminology as follows:

-Universalist theories argue "that there is one type of leader behavior inherently superior to all others, irrespective of the situation in which the leader operates", and

-Contingency theories "assume that different situations require different leader behaviors, i.e., leader effectiveness is contingent upon situational differences".

For the purpose of this study the division of Gray and Starke will be used.

#### 4.1 Universalist theories

##### 4.1.1 The Great Man Approach

This was the earliest and simplest view of leadership and can be traced back to the ancient Greeks and Romans. Luthans (1973 : 419). The theory stated that a person was born either with or without the necessary traits for leadership. Individuals such as Alexander the Great, Julius Ceasar, Winston Churchill and other historical figures are quoted as examples supporting this theory. Borgatta, Couch and Bales did extensive experiments on groups in 1954 and found that only about five per cent were "great men". Sashkin and Morris (1984 : 273). It is obvious that this small proportion will never be able to fill the need for leadership in organizations. Grey and Starke (1984 : 235) regard this theory as of limited value for the following reasons:

**"-If leadership ability is inherited, favouritism in promotions are bound to occur as relatives of previously successful leaders enter the organization;**



- the selection process becomes crucial for organizations, because 'leaders are born, not made';
- little emphasis will be placed on management programmes because there is no need to develop born leaders; and
- no attempts will be made to design jobs to fit individual managers as true leaders will be able to cope with any situation."

#### 4.1.2 Trait Approach

The great man approach gave way to a more realistic trait approach to leadership. The fact was accepted that leadership traits are not completely inborn but can also be acquired through learning and experience. The researchers tried to identify the personal characteristics of the leader and in the search for measurable leadership traits two distinctive approaches were taken, viz.

- they attempted to compare the traits of the people who emerged as leaders with the traits of those who did not, and
- they attempted to compare the traits of the effective leaders with those of the ineffective leaders. Stoner (1982 : 470).

Hundreds of trait studies were conducted but no evidence could be found that individual traits correlated strongly and consistently with leadership effectiveness. The main criticism against this approach is the assumption that leadership effectiveness is determined by internal qualities only and that the environment is not important. This approach is not completely invalid as is noted by Stogdill:

"... the view that leadership is entirely situational in origin and that no personal characteristics are predictive of leadership ... seems to overemphasize the situational and underemphasize the personal nature of leadership". Stogdill (1974 : 72).

Yukl (1981 : 70) states that: "Today there is a more balanced viewpoint about traits. It is now recognized that certain traits increase the likelihood that a leader will be effective, but they do not guarantee effectiveness and the relative importance of different traits is dependent on the nature of the leadership situation."

#### 4.1.3

#### Leader-behaviour approach

As a result of the widespread inconsistencies of the trait studies of leadership effectiveness, researchers now focussed on the behaviour or style of the effective leader. This indicated that unlike the trait theories, the behavioural approach concentrated on leader effectiveness, and not on the emergence of an individual as a leader. Two major research efforts were directed towards investigating behavioural theories at the Ohio State University and the University of Michigan.

#### \*Ohio State University Studies

The main objective of the Ohio state studies was to investigate the determinants of leader behaviour. The researchers identified two independent leadership behaviour dimensions, viz.

"-Initiating structure, which concerns the degree to which the leader organized and defined the task, assigned the work to be done, established communication networks,

and evaluated work-group performance. In our framework, initiating structure is analogous to a task-orientated leadership style.

-Consideration, which was defined as behavior that involves trust, mutual respect, friendship, support, and a concern for the welfare of the employee. Consideration refers to an emphasis on an employee-orientated leadership style." Szilagyi and Wallace (1983 : 270)

The major value of this two-dimensional approach is that these two dimensions are real and observable, and account for a great proportion of actual leader behaviour. The most important criticism against this approach is the fact that situational factors as well as the influence of these factors on the leadership effectiveness model were not considered.

#### **\*University of Michigan Studies**

These leadership studies were conducted by people like Likert, Katz and Kahn during the same general period as the Ohio studies. These researchers examined two distinct styles of leader behaviour, i.e. job-centered and employee-centered. "Leaders who are described as employee-orientated stress the relationships aspects of their job ... Production orientation (job centered) emphasizes production and the technical aspects of the job ..." Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 87).

According to Szilagyi and Wallace (1983 : 272) criticisms concerning the Michigan studies focus on two aspects:

- "evidence to show that the style or behavior of leaders change from situation to situation;" and
- "other situational factors, such as the cohesiveness of the group or the nature of the subordinates' personal characteristics or of the task, have not been considered."

#### 4.1.4 The Managerial Grid

Blake and Mouton developed a graphic portrayal of the two-dimensional leadership style. Their managerial grid is based on concern for people and concern for production. This grid is designed to help managers see their current leadership style and then to help them to develop the most desirable style.

The grid, depicted in the following figure has nine possible positions along each axis.

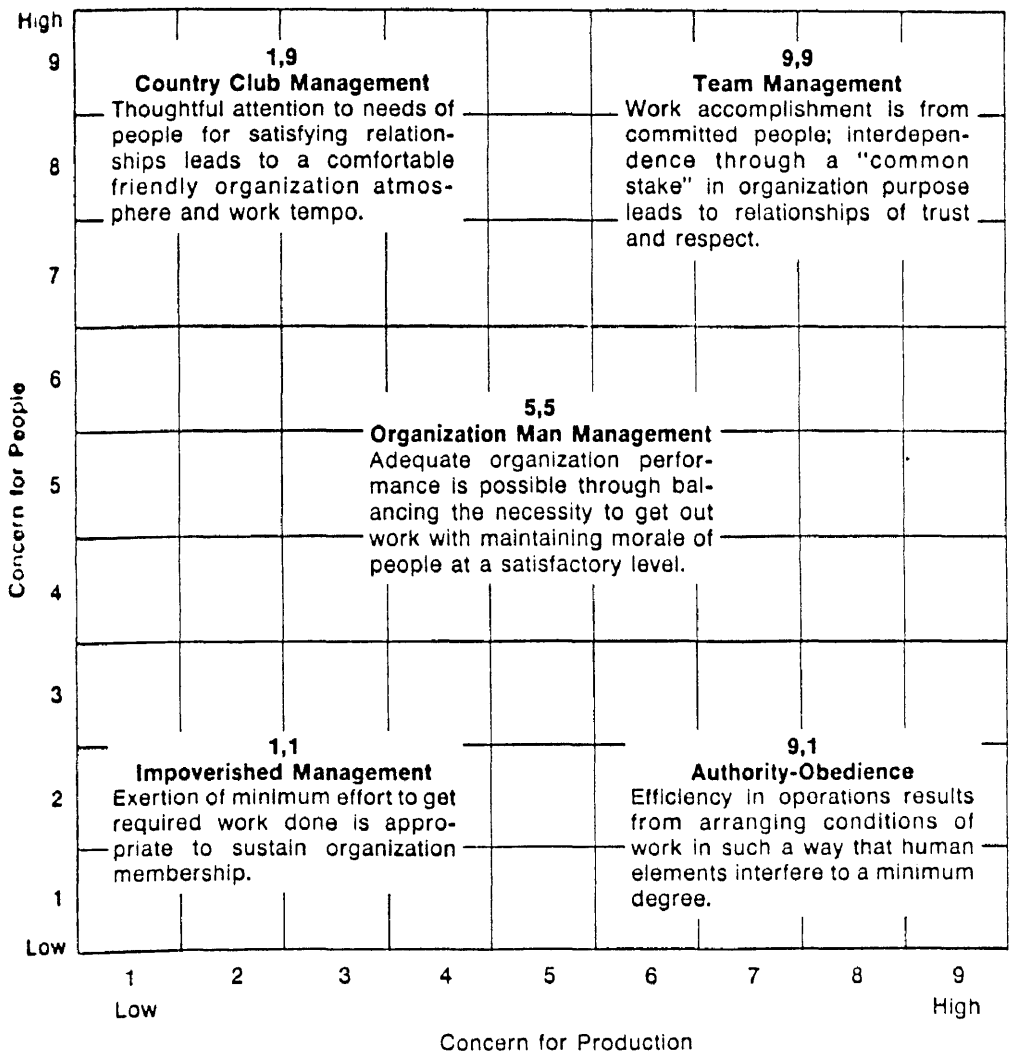


FIGURE 2.3 The Managerial Grid  
© University of Pretoria  
Source: Blake and Mouton (1979 : 11)

The five key positions on the grid are described by Blake and Mouton as follows:

- 1.1 Impoverished: the leader's effort is the minimum needed to get work done well enough to keep from getting fired.
- 1.9 Country Club: the leader concentrates on good, warm human relations, but has little concern for task efficiency.
- 9.1 Task: the leader is highly concerned with task efficiency, but has little regard for subordinates' morale.
- 5.5 Middle of the Road: the leader attains an adequate level of performance by balancing efficiency with reasonably good morale.
- 9.9 Team: the leader, by high consideration and effective guidance, gets workers committed to the goals of the organization. This leads to high morale and high efficiency.  
Mescon (1981 : 455).

According to Blake and Mouton the most desirable style is the 9.9 style in which the manager shows a high concern for both people and production. Fundamental criticism of the grid is based on this assumption that the 9.9 style is superior to all other styles of management. According to Robbins (1980 : 234) **"there is little substantive evidence to support the conclusion that a 9.9 style is most effective in all situations."**

#### 4.1.5 Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor postulated the well-known Theory X

and Theory Y management styles. This theory is sometimes classified as a theory of motivation but can also be regarded as a leadership theory because it deals with the assumptions leaders make.

According to Mitchell (1982 : 371) McGregor suggested that there were two main management styles, viz.

- Theory X, which is highly directive and is based on the premise that employees need to be controlled and guided by their superior; and
- Theory Y, in which employees were seen as self-motivated and striving for goals of excellence and accomplishment.

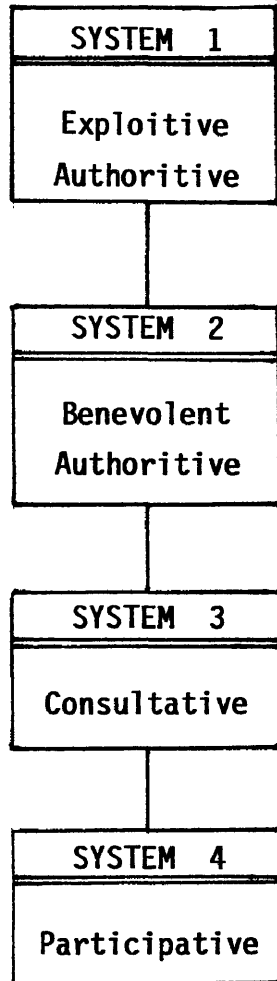
Gray and Starke (1984 : 244) emphasize "**... the strong similarity between autocratic management, Theory X, Initiating Structure and production-centered behavior, and between democratic management, Theory Y, Consideration and employee-centered behavior.**"

A recent development is the introduction of a Theory Z approach to management introduced by William Ouchi. This theory states that: "**... involved workers are the key to productivity.**" Ouchi (1981 : 4). Paul S. George (1984 : 76) advocates that educators should look at schools through the lenses of Theory Z. He states that recent educational research suggests that there are prominent parallels between Type Z style productivity in industry and increased effectiveness of schools, because both centre on a commitment to an organizational philosophy.

#### 4.1.6 Likert's System 4 Management

Rensis Likert, incorporated the basic style categories of task orientation and employee-orientation and de-

vised a four-level model of management effectiveness which can be depicted as follows:



**FIGURE 2-4** Likert's Leadership Systems  
Source: Stoner (1982 : 475)

The four basic leadership styles or systems are explained by Gray and Starke (1984 : 246):

- "-**System 1:** management has low confidence in subordinate employees and does not involve them in the decision-making process.

- System 2:** management has 'condescending confidence' in subordinate employees, with the relationship approximately that of master and servant.
- System 3:** management has substantial, but not complete, confidence in employees' abilities.
- System 4:** management has complete confidence in employees abilities.

Likert is of the opinion that System 4 style management is the ideal type. If management opts for this system, the result will be lower grievance rates; reduced turnover and absenteeism as well as increased employee satisfaction and morale. Likert therefore argues that the System 4 management style will always be superior to the other three types in terms of employee satisfaction and organizational effectiveness.

Figure 2.5 depicts and explains the relationship between causal variables, intervening variables and end-result variables according to Likert. He states that the **causal variables** (systems 1-4) will yield certain **intervening variables** (e.g. attitudes toward superiors, communications, performance levels, etc.) which in turn lead to **end-result variables** (e.g. absenteeism levels, earning levels, etc.). This means that a System 1 climate leads to poor communication, low performance goals and restriction in output; this in turn leads to high productivity, absenteeism and turnover in the **short run**, but lowered productivity and earnings in the **long run**.

Likert's model ignores the existence of situational variables and research has proved that the impact of situational variables are usually high.



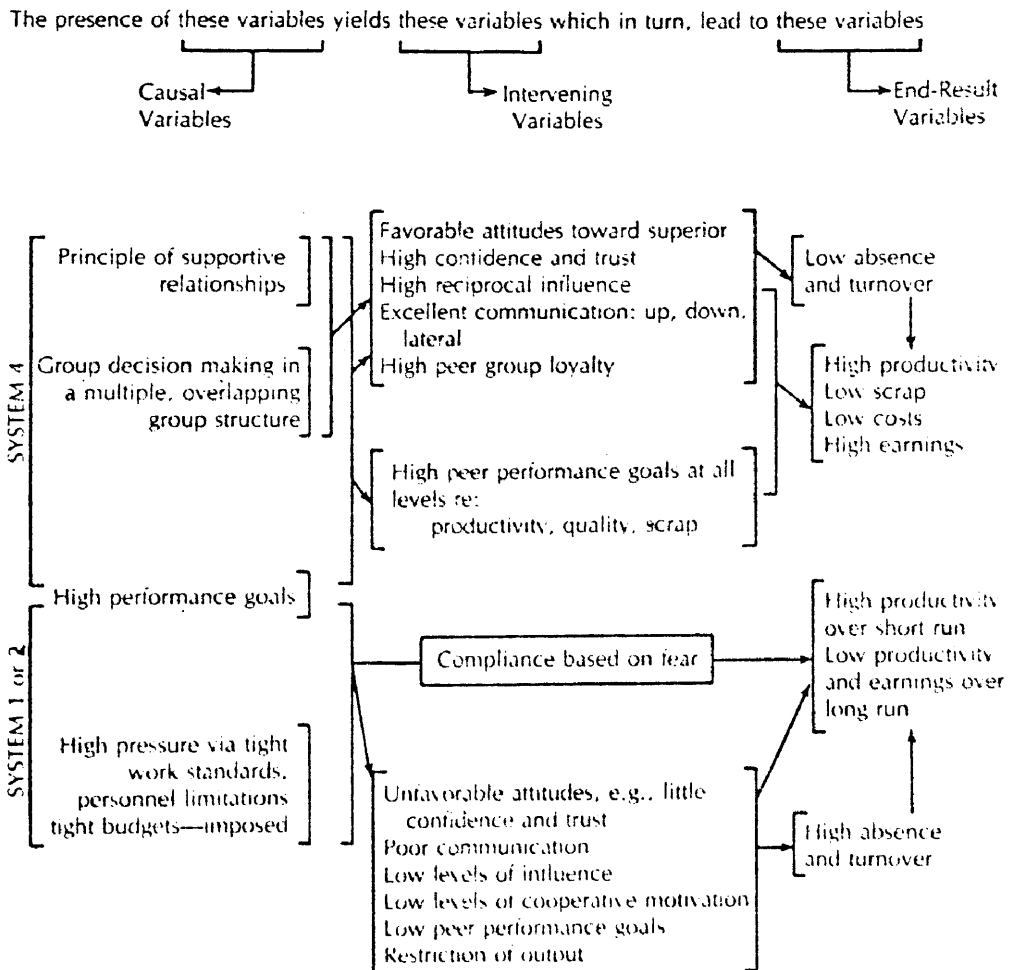


FIGURE 2.5 The effect of Alternative Management Systems on Organizational and Employee Goals  
Source: Gray and Starke (1984 : 247)

Likert maintains that human resources are often wasted through absenteeism and turnover by inappropriate styles of leadership.

All the leadership theories discussed possess one common characteristic, namely the belief or assumption that there is one best leadership style.

## 4.2 Contingency Theories

Contingency theories of leadership effectiveness are in direct contrast to the universalist approaches because they are based on the assumption that different situations demand different leadership styles. According to Gray and Starke (1984 : 260) these theories are more complex because they must:

- "specify the situational variables influencing the leadership process, and
- indicate the way in which these situational elements interact to determine the type of leadership behavior that is most appropriate."

### 4.2.1 Leadership Contingency Model

Fiedler developed a leadership effectiveness model to explain why both autocratic and democratic leaders have been effective. The essence of this approach is that any leadership style can be effective, depending on the situation; therefore the leader must be an adaptive individual.

Fiedler developed an instrument, which he called the least-preferred co-worker (LPC) questionnaire to measure whether a person is task- or relationship-orientated. Robbins (1980 : 327). Refer to attached LPC questionnaire. The leaders are asked to describe their LPC on a series of bipolar scales, e.g.

Unfriendly - - - - - Friendly  
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Uncooperative - - - - - Cooperative  
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

A high LPC score indicates that the leader is relationship-orientated while a low LPC score indicates task-orientation.

Fiedler also proposed that three environmental variables interact with leader style to determine leader effectiveness:

- Leader-member relations - refers to how well the leader is accepted by his subordinates.
- Task structure - refers to the degree to which subordinates' jobs are routine and spelled out in contrast to being vague and undefined.
- Position power - refers to the formal authority provided for in the position the leader occupies."

Hodgetts (1979 : 299).

In the following figure Gary Johns explains under which conditions one leadership orientation would be more effective than the other.

Favorableness	HIGH ←-----→ LOW							
Leader-member relations	Good				Poor			
Task structure	Structured		Unstructured		Structured		Unstructured	
Position power	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Most effective leader orientation	Task			Relationship			Task	

**FIGURE 2-9** Predictions of Leader Effectiveness from Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership.

Source: Johns (1983 : 315).

According to this diagram:

"The various possible combinations of situational factors can be arranged into eight octants which form a continuum of favourability. The model indicates that a task orientation (low LPC) is most effective when the leadership situation is very favourable (I, II and III) or when it is very unfavourable (VIII)." Johns (1983 : 315). Therefore a high LPC or relationship orientation is most effective in conditions of medium favourability (IV, V, VI and VII).

One of the practical applications of Fiedler's theory is a training programme using the basic ideas of the contingency model, called **LEADER MATCH**. This is a programmed system that trains leaders to modify their leadership situation to fit their personality.

According to Hodgetts (1979 : 300) Fiedler's model is important for three reasons:

- it places prime emphasis on *effectiveness*;
- it illustrates that no one leadership style is best, the manager must *adapt* to the situation; and
- it encourages management to *match* the leader with the situation.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 95) state that: "Although Fiedler's model is useful to a leader, he seems to be reverting to a single continuum of leader behavior, suggesting that there are only two basic leader behavior styles, task-orientated and relationship-orientated." According to evidence from research leader behaviour should be plotted on two separate axis, because any combination of the two dimensions could occur.

#### 4.2.2 Leadership Decision-making model

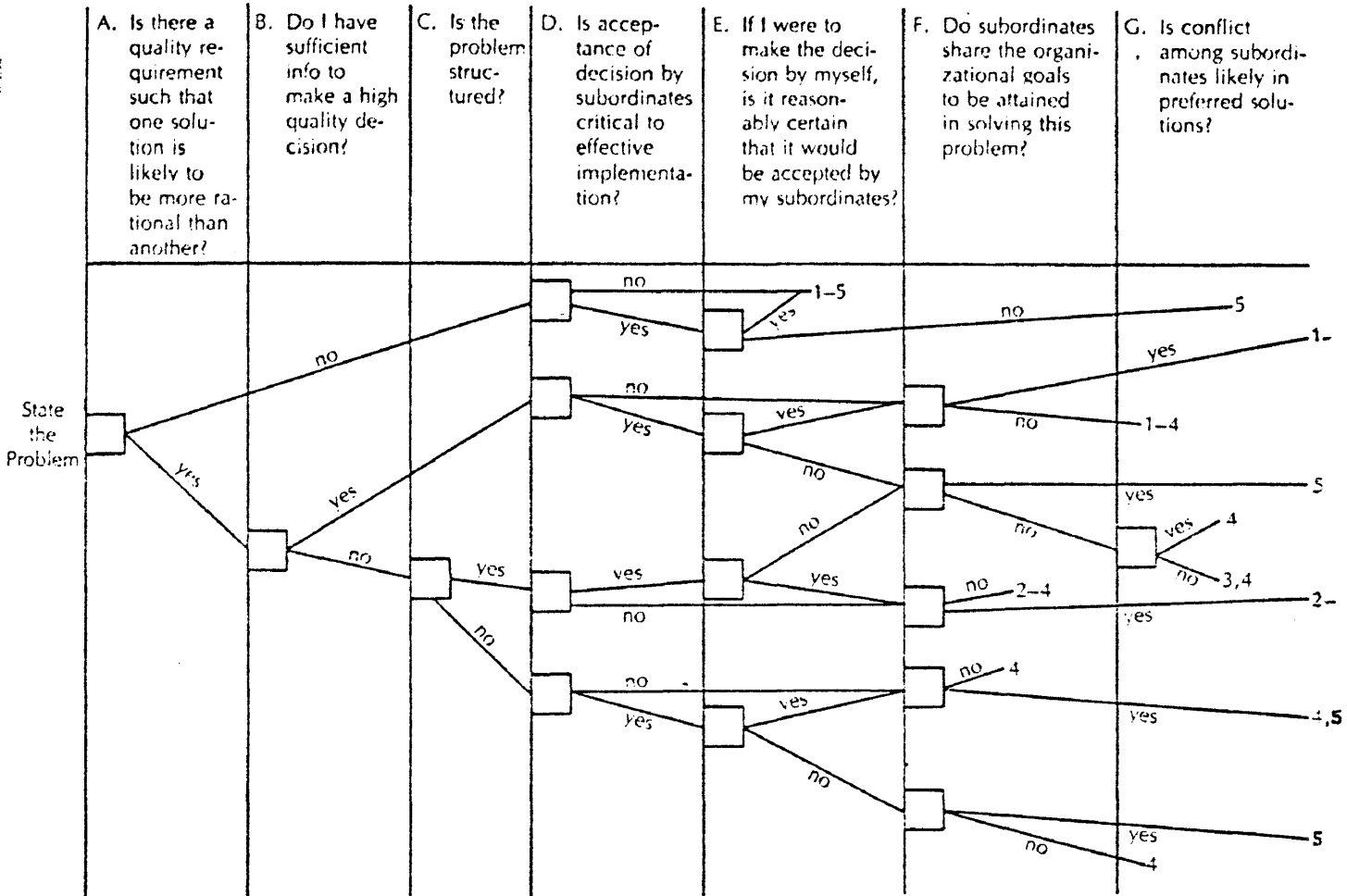
Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetton have developed a leadership style in the context of how much participation the leader should allow subordinates in making decisions. Their model contains five leadership styles, seven situation dimensions, fourteen problem types and seven decision rules. The leadership styles consist of variations on autocratic, consultive and group styles while the situational dimensions include the way in which problems affect the quality and acceptance of a decision and the way in which the problems affect the degree of participation.

The following five styles are identified:

- AI : The leader makes the decision using information personally possessed.
- AII : The leader obtains necessary information from subordinates and then decides. Subordinates may or may not be told of the nature of the problem.
- CI : The leader shares the problem with relevant subordinates individually, solicits suggestions, and then makes the decision.
- CII : The leader shares the problem with subordinates as a group, obtains collective ideas, and then makes the decision.
- GII : The leader shares the problem with the group and acts more as a chairperson in generating and evaluating alternatives in search of group consensus.

Flippo (1982 : 344).

Vroom and Yetton use a decision tree to relate the situation to the appropriate leadership style.



**FIGURE 2-8** Decision and Leadership Style Model  
Source: Vroom and Yetton (1973 : 194).

Vroom and Yetton argue that each of the leadership styles can be effective depending on the answers to questions A-G in the model. In this model Vroom and Yetton include the issues that strongly influence leadership effectiveness, namely, the quality requirement of decisions, information availability and acceptance by subordinates. Gray and Starke (1984 : 268) postulate that "... while it is a descriptive

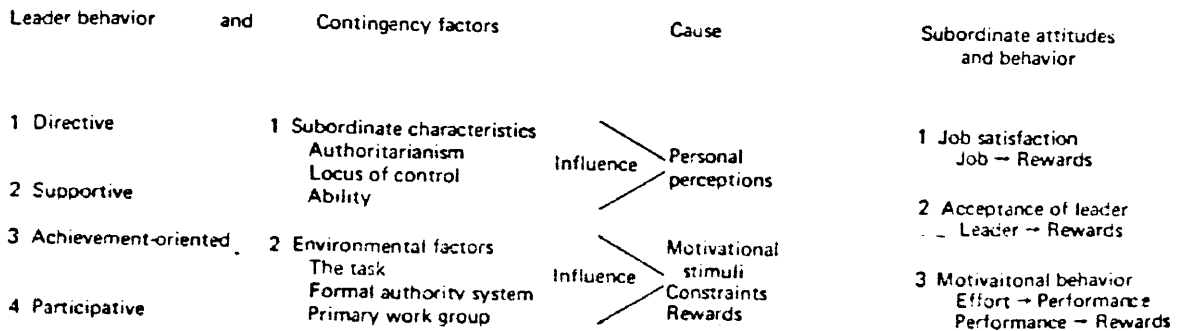
model, it does recognize that different leadership styles can be effective in different situations."

This theory incorporates four major types of leadership, viz.

- Supportive leadership:** behavior that includes giving consideration to the needs of subordinates, displaying concern for their well-being, and creating a friendly climate in the work unit.
- Directive leadership:** letting subordinates know what they are expected to do, giving specific guidance, asking subordinates to follow rules and procedures, scheduling and coordinating the work.
- Participative leadership:** consulting with subordinates and taking their opinions and suggestions into account when making decisions.
- Achievement-orientated leadership:** setting challenging goals, seeking performance improvements, emphasizing excellence in performance, and showing confidence that subordinates will attain high standards.

Yukl (1981 : 146).

Harold Koontz et al (1980 : 536) give the following summary of path-goal relationships in order to give managers some insight concerning the effects of their leader behaviour on the behaviour of their subordinates.



**FIGURE 2-11** Summary of Path-Goal Relationships

Source: Koontz et al (1980 : 536).

This model can be regarded as helpful because it deals with specific leader behaviours and how they might influence employee satisfaction and performance. Gray and Starke (1984 : 276) conclude that: **"Overall, the empirical evidence to date suggests that the theory (like many others) gives helpful insights into employee performance. This shortcoming cannot be ignored since it is one of the primary concerns of practicing managers."**

#### 4.2.3 Situational Leadership

This theory formulated by Hersey and Blanchard was originally called the **"Life Cycle Theory of Leadership"**, but was revised and developed into the **"Situational Leadership Theory"**. This theory is an extension of Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid and Reddin's 3-D Management Style Theory. Yukl (1981 : 140).

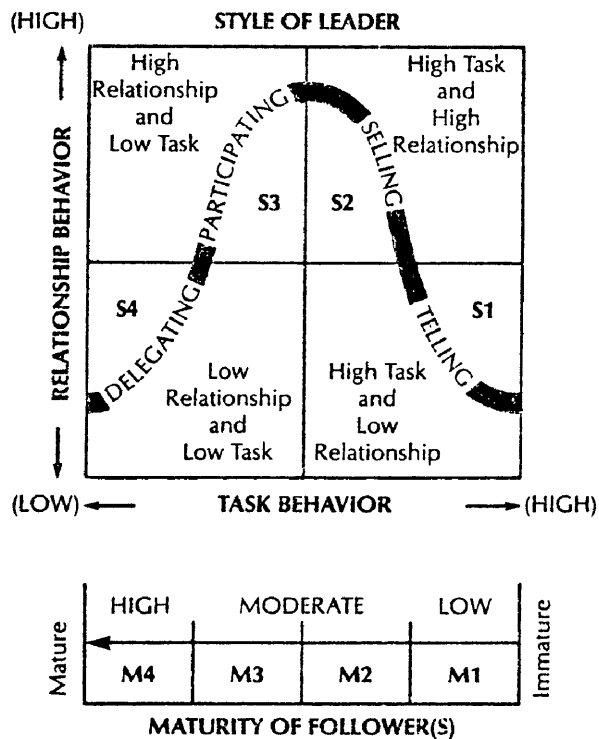
The theory is based on the two broad categories of leadership behaviour, viz.

**Task-behavior** - The extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group; what activities each is to do and



when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished; characterized by endeavouring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs accomplished.

**-Relationship behavior** - The extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group by opening up channels of communication, providing socioemotional support, 'physiological strokes', and facilitating behaviors. Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 96).



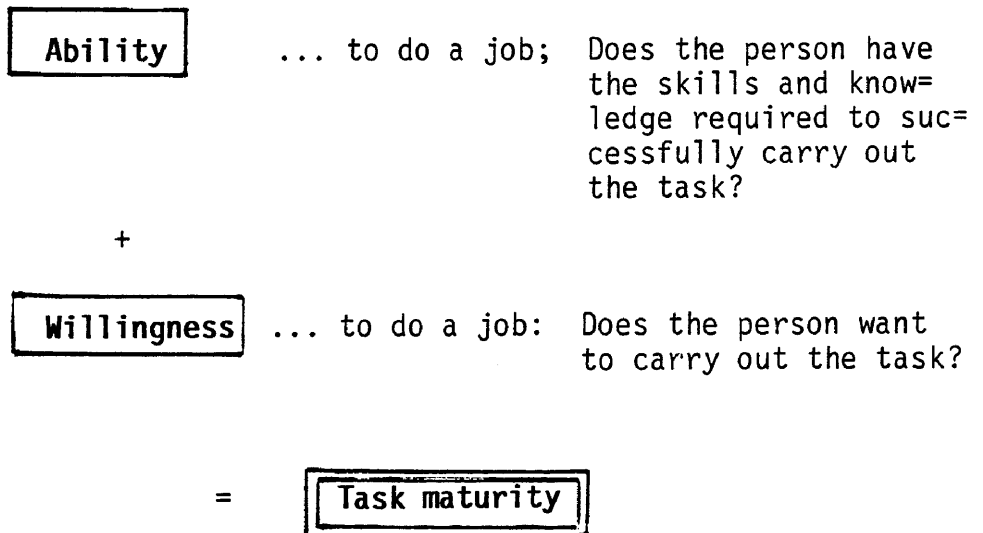
**FIGURE 2-6** The Situational Leadership Model  
Source: Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 152).

The graph is divided into four quadrants, each describing one of the four basic leadership styles, i.e.

- S1 : High task, low relationship - TELLING STYLE
- S2 : High task, high relationship - SELLING STYLE
- S3 : Low task, high relationship - PARTICIPATING STYLE
- S4 : Low task, low relationship - DELEGATING STYLE

Gray and Starke (1984 : 262).

Hersey and Blanchard suggest that each of the four styles is effective in certain situations depending on the maturity level of the subordinates. Maturity denotes two aspects, namely ability and willingness, depicted in the following figure:



**FIGURE 2-7** The components of task maturity. Task maturity is the situational variable used in the Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory to define the situation and determine which leadership style is best.

Source: Sashkin and Morris (1984 : 278).

Four levels of maturity are indicated on the model and are described as follows:

- M1** : Worker is unable and unwilling
- M2** : Worker is unable but willing (i.e., lacks confidence)
- M3** : Worker is able but unwilling (i.e., lacks motivation)
- M4** : Worker is able and willing

It is therefore clear that the most effective leadership occurs when the subordinate's maturity level is matched with the most appropriate leadership style. Gray and Starke (1984 : 263).

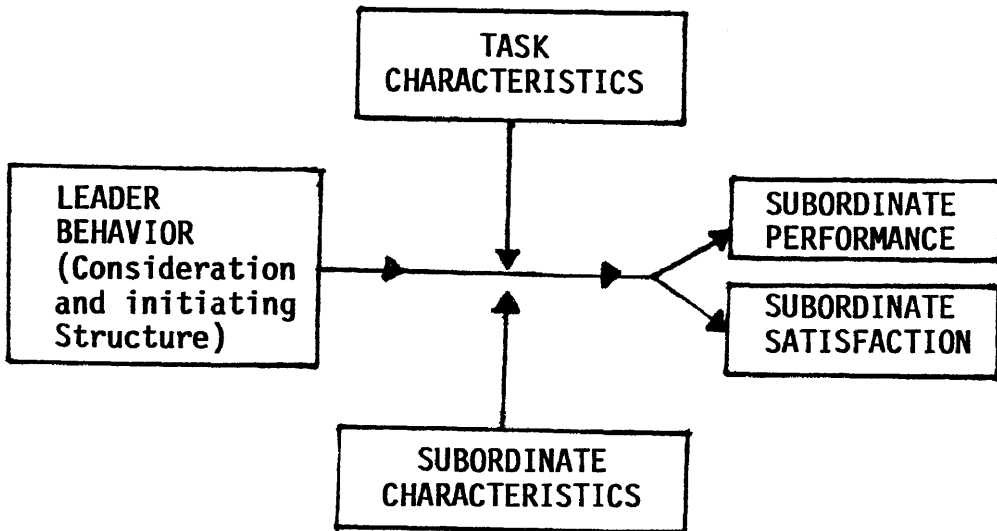
This theory has emphasized flexible, adaptable leader behaviour; has reminded managers that it is essential to treat different subordinates differently and to treat the same subordinate differently when the situation changes. According to Yukl (1981 : 144) they **"... advance the rather innovative proposition that leaders have another option besides just adapting to the present situation, namely, changing the situation by building the skills and confidence of subordinates."**

#### 4.2.4

#### Path-Goal Theory

Robert House has formulated a model of leadership effectiveness called the Path-Goal Theory which explains how the behaviour of the leader influences the motivation and satisfaction of subordinates. It integrates the expectancy theory of motivation with the Ohio State Leadership research. According to Robbins (1980 : 329) the model considers the effort-performance and performance-goal satisfaction linkages, and the leadership dimensions of initiating structure and consideration. The theory is composed of two basic propositions, namely, the role of the leader and the dynamics of the situation.

The path-goal model assumes that the behaviour of the leader will influence the performance and satisfaction of the subordinate, but that subordinate and task characteristics moderate the effects of leader behaviour as is evident from the following diagram:



**FIGURE 2-10:** Key Variables in the Path-Goal Model  
 Source: Gray & Starke (1984 : 274)

#### 4.2.5 Multiple Linkage Model

In an effort to encourage progress towards a more comprehensive model of leadership effectiveness Yukl proposed a metatheory called the Multiple Linkage Model. This model incorporates a large number of intervening variables and deals with a broad range of specific leadership behaviours.

Yukl (1981 : 154) label and define the intervening variables as follows:

- Subordinate effort** : the extent to which subordinates make an effort to attain a high level of performance and show a high degree of personal responsibility and commitment toward achieving the work unit's goals and objectives.

- Subordinate role clarity** : the extent to which subordinates understand their job duties and responsibilities and know what is expected of them.
- Subordinate task skills** : the extent to which subordinates have the experience, training, and skills necessary to perform all aspects of their jobs effectively.
- Resources and support services** : the extent to which subordinates are able to obtain the tools, equipment, supplies and support services needed to do their jobs.
- Task-role organization** : the extent to which the work unit is effectively organized to ensure efficient utilization of personnel, equipment, and facilities and the avoidance of delays, duplication of effort, and wasted effort.
- Group cohesiveness and teamwork** : the extent to which subordinates get along well with each other, share information and ideas, and are friendly, helpful, considerate, and co-operative.
- Leader-subordinate relations** : the extent to which subordinates get along well with their leader, are friendly toward him (her), are comfortable working for him (her), and are satisfied with him (her).

The theory is based on two main propositions, namely,

- that a leader's effectiveness in the short run depends on the extent to which he acts skillfully to correct any deficiencies in the intervening variables for his work unit; and
- that over a longer period of time, leaders can act to change some of the situational variables and create a more favourable situation.

Yukl (1981 : 162) acknowledges the fact that in his theory there are a number of common features with the Path-Goal Theory. However, he postulates that the Path-Goal Theory emphasized leader effects on subordinate satisfaction and motivation rather than on performance whereas the Multiple Linkage Model "... **emphasizes the explanation of subordinate performance and treats subordinate motivation and satisfaction with the leader as intervening variables rather than as an end-result variable.**"

## 5. CONCLUSION

In this chapter universalist and contingency theories have been discussed. Today, however, we have two divergent lines of thought, both correct in their own way, but maybe moving in different directions. There are researchers who are developing complex leadership models, and practicing managers who are looking for workable and easily adopted solutions. This has led to the emergence of a number of techniques, e.g. the One Minute Manager by Blanchard and Johnson, 1983, as well as Bothwell's model of ten leadership styles. Bothwell (1983 : 220).

The "**ONE-MINUTE**" Manager for example is based on three specific managerial actions that can be used to motivate people's behaviour:

- one-minute goal setting
- one-minute praising
- one-minute reprimands.

Many managers tend to '**catch people doing things wrong**', which breeds poor motivation and deadwood. The one-minute praising technique is a reversal of this policy because managers should spend their time '**catching people doing things right**'.

Though this technique saves time and can be applied easily in the practical situation, it is not based on a totally sound scientific approach.

It has been found that certain situations require a specific leadership style, e.g. autocratic leadership is appropriate in crisis situations. Professional relationships for example in the academic environment of schools, colleges and universities require a participative leadership style. The primary reason is that these professionals face relatively unstructured tasks which require the input of more than a single individual. Furthermore, in professional situations the individuals are qualified to contribute to the solution of the problem.

## CHAPTER III

### DETERMINING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN RELATION TO MANAGEMENT STYLE

#### 1. WHAT IS LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS?

Recent research on leadership, especially the contingency approaches, has had one common goal, i.e. to explain leadership effectiveness. Therefore, each theory has added to our knowledge of leadership effectiveness. The school principal's leadership effectiveness in education, organization, supervision and teamwork is the cornerstone of effectiveness for his school.

##### 1.1 Definitions of Leadership Effectiveness

There are varying definitions of leadership effectiveness, mostly differing from writer to writer. Middlemist (1981 : 357) states that:

**"The leader's effectiveness is determined by the interaction of the leader's style of behavior and the favorableness of the situational characteristics."**

This then means that leadership effectiveness is judged by the performance of the group.

Roe and Drake (1980 : 100) view leadership effectiveness from the viewpoint of the principalship and state that it:

**"... depends on how we define leadership, the criteria we use to evaluate it, the type of staff, their proficiency, the tasks they have and the situations they face."**



Related to the school situation this means that the effective principal of the small school in a rural setting will not necessarily score high on leadership effectiveness in a large urban school.

Yukl (1981 : 5 & 6) maintains that the major distinction between leadership effectiveness definitions is the type of consequence or outcome selected to be the effectiveness criterion. He identifies the following aspects as some of the most commonly used measures of leader effectiveness:

- the extent to which the leader's group or organization performs its task successfully and attains its goals;
- the attitude of followers towards their leader; and
- the leader's contribution to the quality of group processes, as perceived by his superiors as well as his followers.

This indicates that the selection of appropriate criteria of leadership effectiveness usually depends on the objectives and values of the organization or the person responsible for the evaluation.

Sergiovanni (1977 : 36) states that "... leadership effectiveness can be deceptive." He distinguishes three different types of effectiveness, viz.

- Apparent effectiveness, which refers to those behaviours which give a person an air of effectiveness, e.g. the principal who is usually on time, has a well-planned agenda, has a tidy desk and makes quick decisions.
- Personal effectiveness, which refers to satisfying

one's own objectives rather than the objectives of the school, e.g. the deputy principal who competes successfully with a rival for power is personally effective.

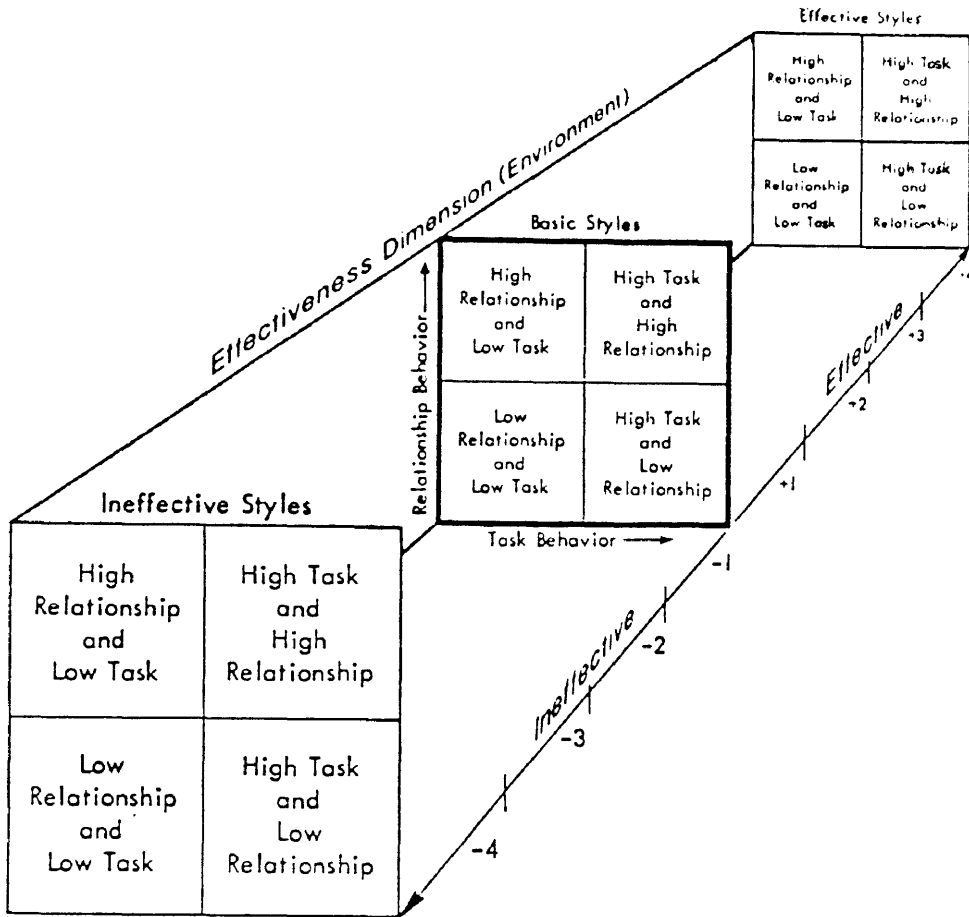
-Real leadership effectiveness is the extent to which the principal achieves objectives which are important to his school.

## 1.2 Leader Effectiveness Model

Traditionally two types of leader behaviour were recognized, i.e. task and relationship. William J. Reddin was the first to add an effectiveness dimension. Reddin (1970 : 39).

Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 97) developed a Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model in which they integrate the concepts of leader style with the situational demands of a specific environment. They state that the effectiveness of leader behaviour style depends on the situation in which it is used and therefore any of the basic styles could be effective or ineffective depending on the situation.

According to this model effectiveness should be represented as a continuum, and therefore effectiveness **"... is a matter of degree and there could be an infinite number of faces on the effectiveness dimension"**. Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 97). In essence the four effective and the four ineffective styles on the model indicate how appropriate the leader's style is to a specific situation as is perceived by the leader's superiors, peers and followers.



**FIGURE 3-1 Tri-dimensional leader effectiveness model**  
Source: Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 98)

### 1.3 Effectiveness and efficiency

While the difference between the above terms is clear for most, incorrect interpretations are sometimes given in a managerial context. According to Dyer (1983 : 35) "Effectiveness is usually defined as the ability to achieve results" whereas "Efficiency (in the time sense) is getting more work done per unit of time".

In educational context this means that efficiency can be counter-productive if the principal or teacher is spending more and more time in the wrong areas. Therefore, to be effective educators, principals and teachers should spend their time on those means that would ensure the achieving of the desired objectives. It is acknowledged though, that most leaders could probably become more effective if they also learned to be more efficient, for example: the principal, who can plan a necessary meeting in such a way, that the meeting can accomplish in one hour what used to take two hours, will use efficiency to become more effective.

## 2. LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS AND MANAGEMENT EFFECTIVENESS

In the contemporary literature on the subjects of leadership and management, there are two approaches: some authors make a clear distinction between these two terms while others use the term manager for leader when they are referring to the business world.

Gray and Starke (1984 : 223) find it important to distinguish between the terms manager and leader. They contend that a manager is the person who performs the functions of management and occupies a formal position in an organization, whereas a leader is anyone who is able to influence others to pursue certain goals.

Reddin (1970 : 8) postulates that a leader is not really a manager because the leader's effectiveness is measured by the extent to which he influences his followers to achieve group objectives, while managerial effectiveness is the extent to which the manager achieves the output requirements of his position.

Hersey and Blanchard distinguish between leadership and management as follows:

**"Management is thought of as a special kind of leadership in which the accomplishment of organizational goals is paramount." Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 106).**

They come to the conclusion that it is important to recognize the differences between individual goals, organizational goals, leadership and management in order to determine effectiveness.

### 3. SUCCESSFUL LEADERSHIP AND EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 110) explain the difference between successful and effective as follows:

**"Success has to do with how the individual or group behaves", and "... effectiveness describes the internal state or predisposition of an individual or group and thus is attitudinal in nature."**

Successful leaders will emphasize position power whereas effective leaders will place the emphasis on personal power. This distinction can be illustrated in the school situation where the effective teacher can leave the classroom and the pupils will behave no differently than if the teacher was actually present. In the classroom of the successful teacher, however, pupils will behave well only if the teacher is present.

### 4. POWER AND LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

#### 4.1 Definition of power

Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 177) regard power as closely related to the concept of leadership. They postulate that:

"... leadership is simply any attempt to influence while power is well described as a leader's *influence potential*", which "... is the resource that enables a leader to induce compliance from or influence others."

Sashkin and Morris (1984 : 297) give a broad definition of power which reads as follows:

"... power is the capacity to reward or to punish as a result of one's position, personality or proficiency."

#### 4.2 Sources of power

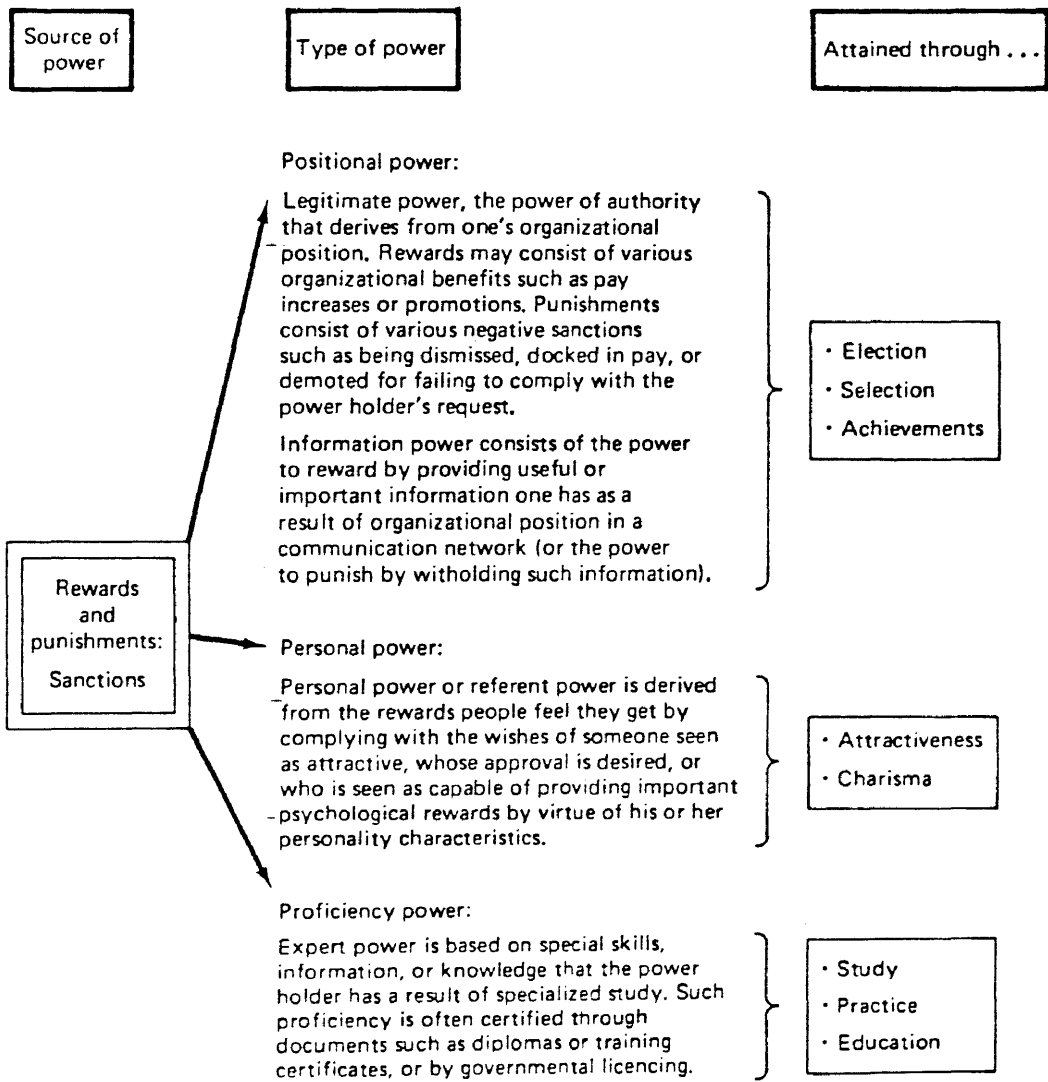
Yukl (1981 : 39 & 40) uses the most widely accepted categorization of the different types of power proposed by French and Raven in 1959.

- Reward power: The subordinate does something in order to obtain rewards controlled by the leader.
- Coercive power: The subordinate does something in order to avoid punishments controlled by the leader.
- Legitimate power: The subordinate does something because the leader has the right to request it and the subordinate has the obligation to comply.
- Expert power: The subordinate does something because he believes that the leader has special knowledge and expertise and knows what is necessary.
- Referent power: The subordinate does something because he admires the leader, wants to receive his approval, and wants to be like the leader.

These bases of power can be defined into two groups, namely, those that are personal and those that result from the person's position in the organization. Sashkin and Morris (1984 : 297) identify three primary forms of power, viz.

- positional power or legitimate power;
- personal power, i.e. referent power; and
- proficiency or expert power.

These three basic types of power are illustrated in the following figure:



**FIGURE 3-2 Types of power**

Source: Sashkin and Morris (1984 : 298)

#### 4.3 Power as perceived by students

Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 181) quote the results of a study done by Jamieson and Thomas on power in the classroom situation. According to this study high school students rated legitimate power most important, followed by coercive, expert, referent and reward power. For undergraduate students coercive power was most important, followed by legitimate, expert, reward and referent power. Graduate students regarded expert power as the most important, followed by legitimate, reward, coercive and referent power.

#### 4.4 Power and the effective principal

Roe and Drake (1980 : 102) regard expert power as most important for the effective principal. They define the areas of expertise that the principal must exhibit to be perceived as effective by the teachers as follows:

- Skill in dealing with people individually and in groups and identifying leadership whenever it exists;
- a keen intellect and curiosity along with conceptual skills in relating education to the present and future of our society;
- a broad general knowledge of teaching and learning theory along with a keen understanding of growth and development of children and youth;
- skill in establishing a well-planned co-ordinated operation with clearly identified goals along with procedures for encouraging maximum achievement;
- skill in dealing with central administration so that desired plans and programmes can be approved and appropriate resources are forthcoming for their implementation;



-a thorough knowledge of the operational details of the local, state and national educational structure.

#### 4.5 Conclusion

According to research, effective leaders rely more heavily on personal power than on position power (Yukl, 1981 : 40 & 41). These effective leaders are also likely to exercise power in a subtle, careful way that avoids threats to the self-esteem of the subordinates.

### 5. LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS AND ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Leadership effectiveness is important but perhaps the most important aspect of effectiveness is its relationship to an entire organization, i.e. the effectiveness of an organizational unit over a period of time. Organizational effectiveness depends on individual effectiveness as well as on group effectiveness. This means that organizational effectiveness involves all the organizational activities, including leadership effectiveness as well as managerial effectiveness.

#### 5.1 What is organizational effectiveness?

Middlemist (1981 : 404) defines organizational effectiveness as "... the organization's capacity to pursue and achieve its objectives with its major concern being its fitness for the future."

All organizations are regarded as unique, but by including the organization's objectives and fitness for the future, this uniqueness is taken into consideration. According to Middlemist (1981 : 405) fitness for the future means

that the organization should be prepared to meet both positive and negative future challenges. Regarded as such, effectiveness may be achieved through proper management and effective leadership.

It is the task of the manager of an organization to define effectiveness for the particular organization, take action to achieve it and be able to measure how effective the organization really is. Managers of non-profit organizations feel that it is more difficult to define effectiveness for their organization than it is for profit organizations. Middlemist (1981 : 405) suggests that effectiveness measurement be separated into two parts:

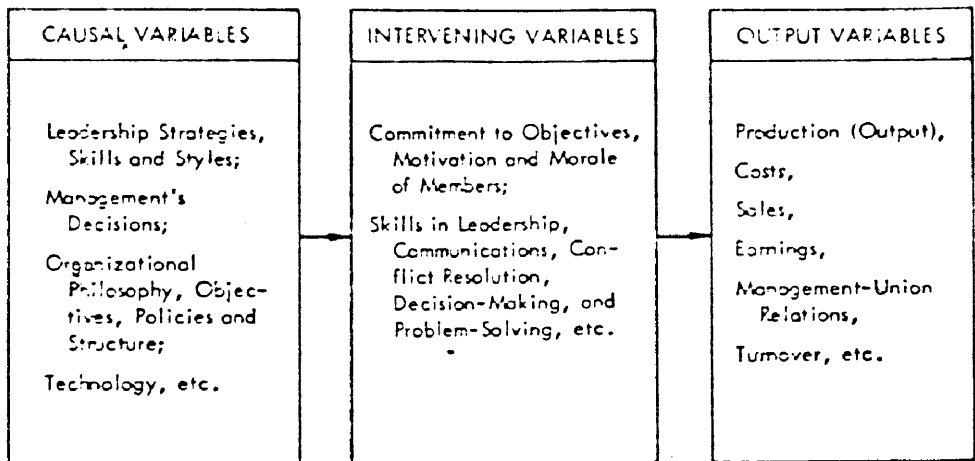
- Measurement of progress towards goals and fitness for the future, and
- Measurement of goal achievement.

## 5.2 Criteria to measure effectiveness

It is therefore necessary to develop criteria to measure effectiveness. Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 111) quote the three variables identified by Rensis Likert which can be used to measure effectiveness over time.

- Casual variables, i.e. those factors that influence the course of development within an organization and its results or accomplishments.
- Intervening variables, which represent the current condition of the internal state of the organization.
- Output or end-result variables, which are the dependent variables that reflect the achievements of the organization.

They illustrate the relationship between these variables as follows:



**FIGURE 3.3 Relationship between casual, intervening, and output variables**

Source: Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 112)

One part of effectiveness often overlooked by managers is the intervening variables, which concern the building and development of the organization, and which emphasize long-term potential as well as short-term performance.

### 5.3 Schools and organizational effectiveness

Roe and Drake (1980 : 70) quote the following definition by Theodore Caplow in which he states that an organization is:

**"... a social system that has an unequivocal collective identity, an exact roster of members, a program of activity, and procedures for replacing members."**

This definition is applicable to the school as an organization and implies that organization is also the process of establishing correct relationships within an administrative structure.

In the school as an organization it entails that there will be means available for getting things done; routines will have been established for doing them; the responsibility for seeing that they are done will have been placed on competent shoulders and decisions will be made by the most qualified members of staff. Roe and Drake (1980 : 71).

Monahan and Hengst (1982 : 116 & 117) postulate that it is the particularities of organizations, referring specifically to schools, that characterize their management effectiveness. They view schools as behaviour-altering organizations and accept the number of "clients" leaving as a reasonable general criterion of effectiveness. This refers not only to the quantity of leavers, but also to the number going on to tertiary education or into the world of work.

Paisey (1981 : 62), however, places a strong emphasis on the complex nature of the school as an organization, and states that an adequate conceptual approach is needed to measure the achievement of goals.

Roe and Drake (1980 : 82) quote the results of a test of organizational effectiveness done on American schools using the SIVA variables devised by Caplow. The results showed that the schools received a low grade on stability, integration, voluntarism (valences), and achievement also fell short in organizational effectiveness. In order to achieve higher ratings on these variables, proposed by Caplow as criteria of organizational effectiveness, it was recommended that schools change, and consider new approaches to school organization to develop a sensitive adaptiveness to a changing and dynamic society.

## 5.4 Conclusion

Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 115) come to the conclusion that

"... effectiveness is actually determined by whatever the manager and the organization decide are their goals and objectives, but they should remember that effectiveness is a function of:

- output variables (productivity/performance)
- intervening variables (the condition of human resources)
- short-range goals
- long-range goals."

## 6. SITUATIONAL FACTORS DETERMINING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

One of the most important aspects of the task of the manager is diagnosing and evaluating the many factors that may have an impact on the effectiveness of his/her leadership. Therefore, for leaders to be effective, they must diagnose the key situational factors correctly and see that the appropriate style of behaviour is matched with these factors. Different authors emphasize different situational factors determining leadership effectiveness. The viewpoints of a number of authors will be discussed first and then a summary of the most commonly used factors will be given.

### 6.1 Szilagyi and Wallace

These authors are of the opinion that the diagnosis of the situation by the manager should include a close examination of the following areas: Szilagyi and Wallace (1983 : 273).

### 6.1.1 Managerial characteristics

Because the leader's behaviour is dependent on the characteristics of the individual, the following factors should be taken into consideration:

- Personality characteristics, e.g. confidence, disposition, intelligence, capabilities to be an effective leader;
- Needs and motives, which could motivate the leader; and
- Past experience and reinforcement, because this may dictate the manager's current leadership style.

### 6.1.2 Subordinate factors

The leader should consider individual characteristics and behaviour patterns of subordinates before he/she decides on a style of leadership. Important factors include:

- Personality characteristics, e.g. a highly self-confident subordinate might not accept very task-orientated leadership;
- Needs and motives - subordinate need levels may dictate their reaction to the leader's influence attempts; and
- Past experience and reinforcement could also affect the leadership process.

### 6.1.3 Group factors

The characteristics of the group as a prominent feature in the organization may have a significant impact on the appropriate leadership style. The

following should be taken into consideration:

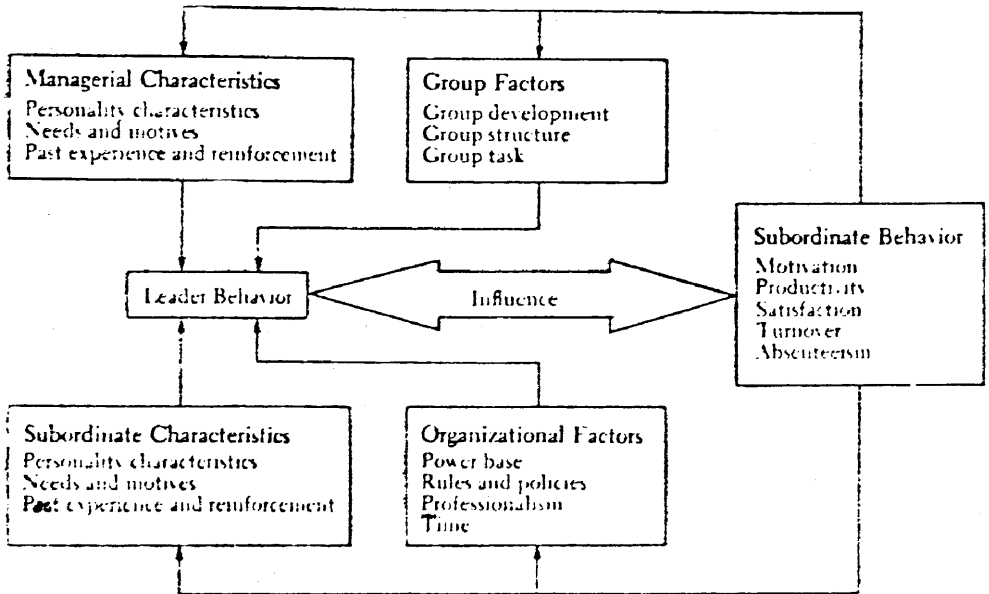
- Group development style, which will influence the effectiveness of a particular leadership style, e.g. the leadership style for the orientation stage would differ considerably from that in the problem-solving stage.
- Group structure, e.g. the cohesiveness of the group will affect the selection of a particular leadership style; and
- Group task: routine tasks would require a different style of leadership as opposed to the style required for ambiguous tasks.

#### 6.1.4 Organizational factors

The type of organization will determine which leadership style would be most appropriate. Some of the most important considerations are:

- Power base, e.g. absence of legitimate and coercive power bases may limit the leader's influence.
- Rules and procedures developed by some organizations may dictate the type of leadership behaviour required.
- Professionalism: highly trained professionals, e.g. teachers may depend more on their educational background to guide their work than on the leader, which would indicate that a specific leadership style is required.
- Time, e.g. in a crisis situation a participative leadership style is impractical because an immediate decision must be made.

These situational factors are illustrated in the following figure.



**FIGURE 3-4 Situational Factors Affecting Leader Behaviour**

Source: Szilagyi and Wallace (1983 : 274).

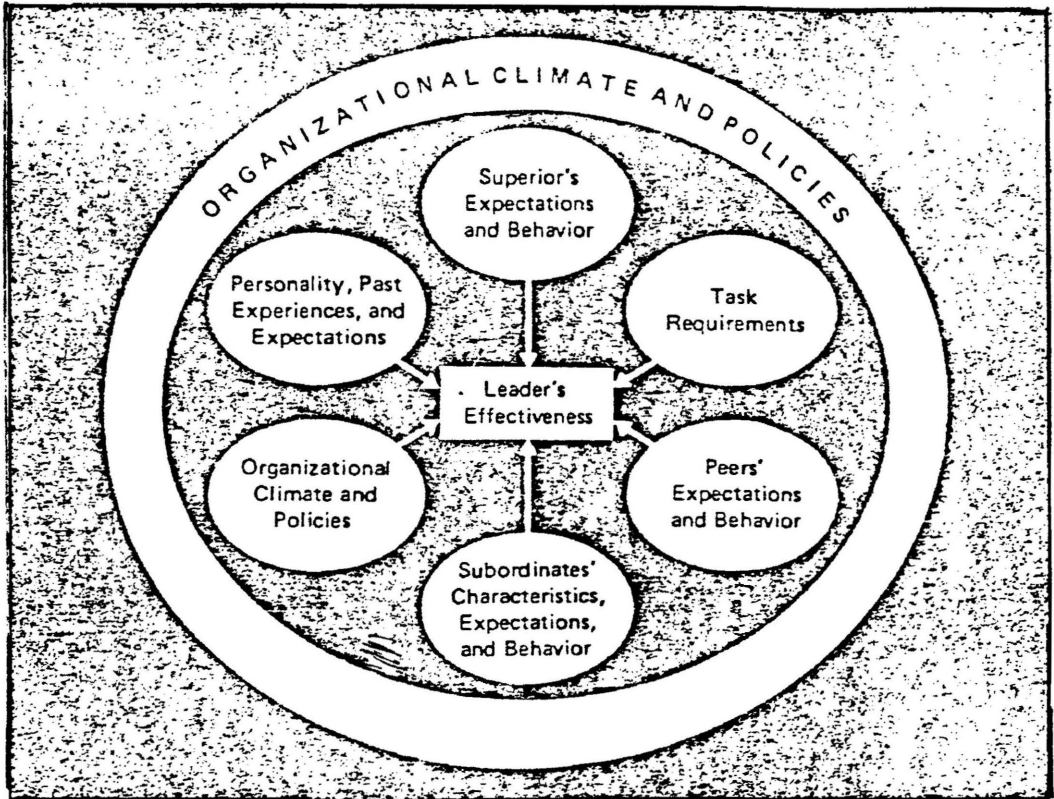
In this figure the influence arrow represent a two-way process because it has been proved that in real life the behaviour of the subordinate can also influence the behaviour of the leader.

## 6.2 James A.F. Stoner

Stoner (1982 : 478) emphasizes the fact that the influence process is reciprocal which means that the leaders and the group members influence each other and affect the effectiveness of the group as a whole.

The following figure depicts the situational factors that influence leader effectiveness.





**FIGURE 3-5 Personality and Situational Factors that influence Effective Leadership**

Source: Stoner (1982 : 478)

### 6.2.1 The Leader's Personality, Past Experiences, and Expectations

In general the leader develops a leadership style with which he/she is most comfortable, but the leader must learn that some styles work better and if a style is inappropriate, it must be altered. The manager's expectations of the style necessary to get subordinates to work effectively mostly lead to the choice of a specific style.

### 6.2.2 The Expectations and Behaviour of Superiors

Superiors will affect the leader behaviour of lower-level managers because:

- superiors have the power to reward with bonuses and/or promotions; and
- lower-level managers tend to model themselves after their superiors.

### 6.2.3 Subordinates' Characteristics, Expectations and Behaviour

The characteristics of the subordinates will affect the manager's leadership style in the following ways:

- Skills and training: highly capable employees will require a less directive approach.
- Attitudes of subordinates: some prefer an authoritarian leader, e.g. the military police, while others want total responsibility for their own work, e.g. research scientists.

The expectations of the subordinates will also determine how appropriate a particular leadership style will be, e.g. subordinates who are used to an employee-orientated manager will expect the same style from a new manager. The reactions of the subordinates to a manager's style will indicate to the manager how effective the specific style is.

### 6.2.4 Task Requirements

The type of leadership style of the manager will be influenced by the nature of the subordinates' job responsibilities, e.g. jobs that require precise instructions require a task-orientated style whereas jobs such as teaching require a more people-centered style.

### 6.2.5 Organizational Climate and Policies

The climate of the organization influences the expectations and behaviours of the members of the organization; and the policies of the organization, e.g. strict accountability, affect the manager's leadership style.

### 6.2.6 Peers' Expectations and Behaviour

The opinions of the manager's colleagues are important to him, and their attitude can often affect how effectively the manager performs.

It is therefore very important for the manager to identify which of these factors is most important under a given set of circumstances, and to select the leadership style that will be most effective under the circumstances.

### 6.3 Hersey and Blanchard

According to these authors the environmental variables can be viewed as having two major components - style and expectations. Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 125). They don't regard their list of variables as all-inclusive but maintains that it contains some of the interacting components that tend to be important to the manager. They include the following:

Leader's style	Leader's expectations
Followers' style	Followers' expectations
Superiors' style	Superiors' expectations
Associates' style	Associates' expectations
Organization's style	Organization's expectations

Job demands

Time

External variables.

### 6.3.1 Leader's style and Expectations

Leaders develop a leadership style over a period of time from experience, education and training. According to Tannenbaum and Schmidt (quoted by Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 127) a manager's leadership style can be influenced by four internal forces:

- the manager's value system,
- confidence in subordinates,
- leadership inclinations, and
- feelings of security in an uncertain situation.

Though leaders have different leadership styles according to their own perception; their true leadership style is how others (their followers) perceive their behaviour. All leaders therefore have certain expectations about the way they should behave in a given situation; based on other situational factors.

### 6.3.2 Followers' style and expectations

The followers' style is a vital factor in determining an appropriate leadership style in a particular situation. If leaders wish to change their followers' style, it is necessary to adapt to their style and then plan the change over a long-term period. Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 132) quote the example of schools where humanistic teachers have tried to turn over significant responsibility to students, without recognizing that many of these students expect the teachers to tell them what to do. Leaders must also know what expectations their followers have about the way the leader should behave in certain situations.

### 6.3.3 Superiors' style and expectations

Meeting the superior's expectations is an important factor affecting the leadership style of the subordinate manager. If the boss is very relationship-orientated, he/she might expect the subordinate leader to operate in the same manner. If managers want to advance in the organization, their superiors' expectations are more important than those of any other group.

### 6.3.4 Associates' style and expectations

The styles and expectations of one's associates are important when the leader has frequent interaction with them. It is also important when the leader is satisfied with his/her present position and is definitely not interested in future promotion. Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 134) quote the example of college professors who are concerned with their peer group in the area of expertise, rather than being promoted to administrative positions.

### 6.3.5 Organization's style and expectations

Organizations become characterized by certain modes of behaviour that are perceived as its style and which must be taken into consideration by the manager in determining his/her leadership style, e.g. some organizations emphasize the importance of the executive's ability to work effectively with people. The organization's expectations are expressed in the form of policy, operating procedures and the manner of control.

### 6.3.6 Job demands

The demands of the job that has been assigned to his group will determine the leadership style of the leader of the

group. This situation variable was called task structure by Fiedler. (Refer to Chapter II, 4.2.1). House suggests a difference between leadership style and task structure. He proposes a style that is high on supportive (relationship) behaviour when followers are performing highly structured tasks. (Chapter II, 4.2.4).

Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 136) quote the research findings of John E. Stinson and Thomas W. Johnson to illustrate the complex relationship between leader behaviour and task structure. They propose that the nature of the followers must be taken into consideration as well and postulate that:

*High leader task behaviour is most effective if:*

- Followers' tasks are highly structured and followers have strong needs for achievement and independence and a high level of education and/or experience - (followers over-qualified for the job).
- Followers' tasks are unstructured and followers have weak needs for achievement and independence and a low level of task relevant education and/or experience.

*Low task behaviour by the leader is most effective if:*

- Followers' tasks are highly structured and followers share weak needs for achievement and independence but an adequate level of task relevant education and/or experience.
- Followers' tasks are unstructured and followers have strong needs for achievement and independence and a high level of education and/or experience.

The following figure indicates the high probability leader behaviour for different combinations of task structure and follower capacity.

		TASK STRUCTURE	
		Low	High
Follower Capacity	High	Low Relationship Low Task	High Task High Relationship
	Low	High Task Low Relationship	High Relationship Low Task

**FIGURE 3-6 The relationship between leadership style and different combinations of task structure and follower capacity**

Source: Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 137)

There are two more aspects to be taken into consideration by the manager in determining a leadership style, viz.

- The amount of interaction required of subordinates by the job, and
- The type of control system to be used.

### 6.3.7 Time

The time available for decision-making will have a significant effect on the appropriate leadership style. An emergency would require task-orientated behaviour, but if time is not a major factor in the situation, the leader will have the opportunity to select from a large number of styles depending on the situation.

### 6.3.8 External variables

Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 139) state that organizations do not exist in a vacuum and are therefore continually

influenced by external variables, such as changes in the society, e.g. the emergence of the Civil Rights Movement. These variables have an important influence on the leadership style of the manager, which means that the leader must be more sensitive and flexible than ever before.

#### 6.4 Thomas J. Sergiovanni

Sergiovanni (1977 : 144) views situational variables from the school situation and states that:

**"The situational determiners of leadership style effectiveness are difficult to identify entirely and even more difficult for the chairperson to completely read and formally catalogue as he approaches a given situation."**

He defines the three most important aspects of any situation as:

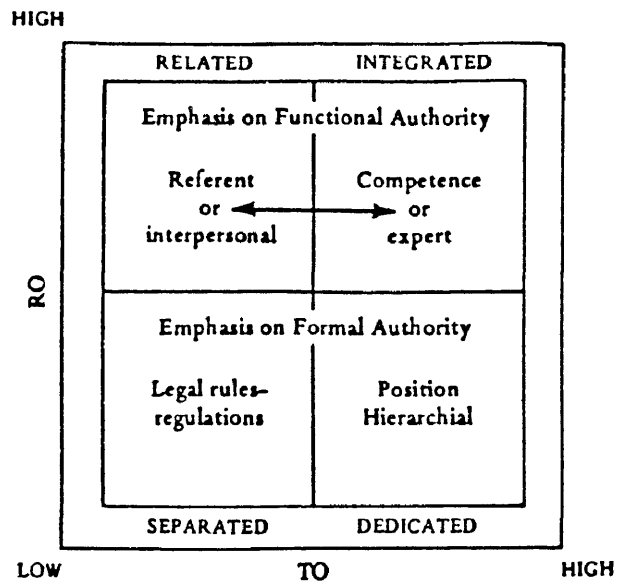
- The nature and distribution of power and authority
- The kinds of demands the job makes on leadership
- The expectations of significant others (teachers, parents, other principals) for the leader's behavior.

##### 6.4.1 The nature and distribution of power and authority

Sergiovanni differentiates between formal and functional authority. Formal authority is associated with the role one occupies in the organization. In the school the education leader relies on formal authority by using school rules, regulations and policies or by "pulling rank". Functional authority refers to the authority that the individual who occupies a certain position brings to that position. Sergiovanni (1977 : 148). The leader's expertise in functioning on the job and interpersonal skills are examples of functional authority.



The following figure indicate the appropriate leadership styles related to the authority relationships in the school.



**FIGURE 3-7** Authority bases for the basic leadership styles. From T.J. Sergiovanni and David Elliott, Educational and Organizational Leadership in Elementary Schools (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975), p. 111.

Source: Sergiovanni (1977 : 149)

The dedicated style relies heavily on formal authority, e.g. the principal can make a decision and implement it because he is the boss. The separated style allows the principal/teacher to blame the system when they enforce rules. When principals express functional authority they rely on related and integrated leadership styles. According to Sergiovanni (1977 : 149) successful related styles rely heavily on interpersonal skills whereas successful integrated styles require substantial expertise in educational matters as well as interpersonal skills.

The ideal is that the education leader should have both formal and functional authority in order to be able to select the most effective leadership style for the specific situation.

#### 6.4.2 The kinds of demands the job makes on leadership

Job demands vary as objectives in the school change or as attention shifts from one set of problems to another set.

Sergiovanni (1977 : 151) prescribes the following as a general guide:

- If the situation involves the following job demands,
  - \*Teachers have high expertness or unusual technical skills.
  - \*Teacher identification and commitment are necessary for success.
  - \*The job is arranged so that teachers can largely decide how tasks will be accomplished.
  - \*It is difficult to evaluate performance outcomes precisely.
  - \*Teachers need to be creative and inventive in their workthen the related style will be the most effective.
- If the situation involves the following job demands,
  - \*The teacher's job is programmed routinely and requires the following of established procedures, curriculum formats, teaching strategies.
  - \*The teacher's job is simple to perform, and easy to regulate.

- \*Automatic feedback is provided so that the teacher can readily note his/her progress.

- \*Intellectual privacy and thinking are much more important than the teacher being actively involved in something

then the separated style will be the most effective.

-If the situation involves the following job demands,

- \*Teachers need to interact with each other in order to complete their tasks

- \*Teachers are interdependent; the success of one depends upon the help of the others

- \*Successful completion requires that the chairperson must interact with teachers as a group

- \*Several solutions are possible and the number of solutions proposed and evaluated are improved by interaction among department members.

- \*Teachers can set their own pace as the department pursues its tasks

then the integrated style will be most effective.

-If the situation involves the following job demands,

- \*The chairperson knows more about the task or problems at hand than the teachers

- \*Numerous unplanned and unanticipated events are likely to occur, requiring attention from the chairperson

- \*Teachers need frequent direction in order to complete their task

- \*The teacher's performance is readily measurable and corrective action by the chairperson is visible and can be easily evaluated

then the dedicated style will be most effective.

### 6.4.3 The expectations of significant others (teachers, parents, other principals)

This is an important determiner of the principal's leadership effectiveness. Sergiovanni (1977 : 150) emphasizes the fact that it is not necessary that there be absolute agreement with superiors and subordinates in regard to role expectations, but that reasonable agreement and mutual understanding of areas of disagreement are prerequisites for effective leadership. Therefore it is important that roles and role expectations be clarified to ensure the selection of an effective leadership style.

### 6.5 Summary

The situational factors emphasized by the four authors described in this chapter are summarized in figure 3.8. Though the terminology used by the authors differ to some extent, the situational variables are classified according to the intrinsic meaning of the term.

SITUATIONAL VARIABLES	AUTHORS			
	Szilagyi & Wallace	James Stoner	Hersey & Blanchard	Sergio=vanni
Managerial characteristics Leader's style and expectations	X	X	X	
Subordinate factors Subordinate style and expectations	X	X	X	X
Superiors' style and expectations		X	X	
Peers/Associates' style and expectations		X	X	X
Organizational factors Organization's style and expectations	X	X	X	X
Job demands and Task requirements		X	X	X
Distribution of power and authority				X
Time	X		X	
Group factors	X			
External variables			X	
Professionalism	X			

**FIGURE 3-8** Summary of the Situational Variables emphasized by different authors

This diagram shows clearly that the most important situational variables pertain to the style (behaviour) and expectations of:

- Leaders
- Followers/subordinates
- Superiors and
- Peers or associates.

Job demands and organizational factors are also very important determinants of leader effectiveness in a given situation.

In an educational setting task related variables are important when a leadership style is selected, but competence, maturity and the commitment levels of teachers are additional variables which should be considered by the education leader.

## 7. CONCLUSION

From the aspects discussed in this chapter it is clear that no single all-purpose leadership style will be effective in all situations. Researchers, e.g. A.K. Korman and Fred Fiedler, have proved that different leadership situations require different leadership styles. The key to becoming an effective leader or manager is to learn to diagnose the situation by taking the situational variables into consideration. The effective managerial leader of the future will need excellent diagnostic skills and must be able and willing to adapt his/her leadership style to meet ever-increasing demands of the environment.

## CHAPTER IV

### SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Contingency theories of leadership are based on the assumption that different situations require different leadership styles if the leader is going to be effective. According to this assumption these leadership theories must consider environmental or situational variables as well as individual-difference variables, when attempting to select the most appropriate leadership style.

Contingency theories are regarded as more complex than 'one-style' theories because they must:

**"-specify the situational variables influencing the leadership process, and**

**-indicate the way in which these situational elements interact to determine the type of leadership behavior that is most appropriate." (Gray and Starke (1984 : 260).**

One of the major issues of the contingency perspective is the extent to which managers are actually able to choose from different leadership styles in different situations. It is clear that if managers are flexible as far as their leadership style is concerned, they will be effective in a number of leadership situations. Flexibility is therefore important and desirable because:

**"... it helps us to respond appropriately to people and situations, and to make adjustments when things don't turn out as anticipated." Stoner (1982 : 489).**

The leader's diagnostic ability is extremely important and cannot be overemphasized, because it is the key to adaptability. It is crucial that managers are able to identify the clues in their environment. Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 149) emphasize the importance of adaptability as follows:

**"Yet even with good diagnostic skills, leaders may still not be effective unless they can adapt their leadership style to meet the demands of their environment."**

## 2. SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY

Situational leadership is a management concept introduced by Hersey and Blanchard to assist leaders, i.e. managers, principals, teachers, administrators, etc. to be more effective in their leadership task. This concept is based on:

- the amount of guidance and direction a leader gives, i.e. task behaviour;
- the amount of socio-emotional support a leader provides, which is relationship behaviour; and
- the readiness level that followers exhibit in performing a specific task, function or objective, termed maturity by Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 150).

The emphasis in this theory is on the behaviour of the leader in relation to his/her followers. It endeavours to provide leaders with a clear understanding of the relationship between an effective style of leadership and the level of maturity of their followers.

### 2.1 Task behaviour and Relationship behaviour

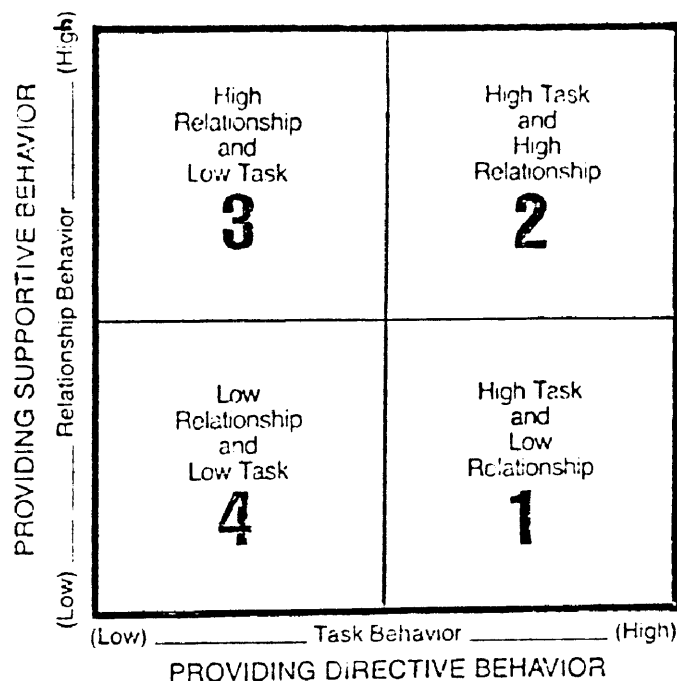
Task behaviour and relationship behaviour have been recognised as critical aspects of leader behaviour by management research (see Chapter II). Researchers at the Ohio State University found that leadership activities could be clas=



sified into two dimensions, viz. Initiating Structure (task behaviour) and Consideration (relationship behaviour). The two dimensions can briefly be defined as follows:

- Task behaviour is the extent to which a leader engages in one-way communication by prescribing what each follower is to do, as well as when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished.
- Relationship behaviour is the extent to which a leader engages in two-way communication by providing socio-emotional support to the followers. (See Chapter II 4.2.3 for Hersey and Blanchard's detailed definitions.)

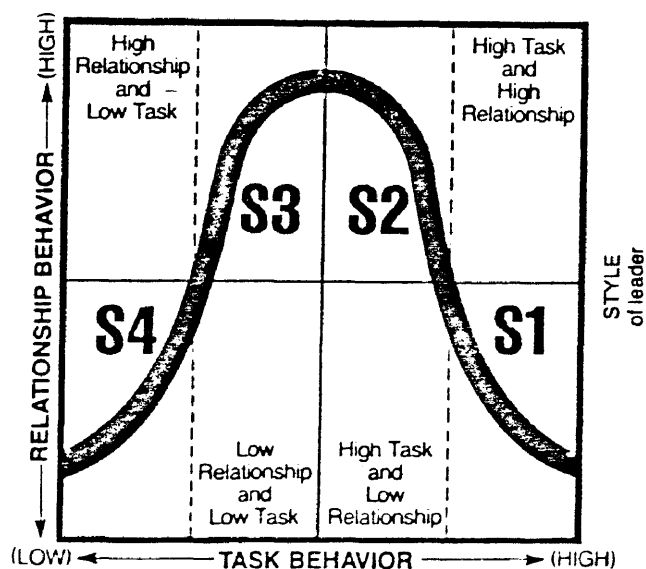
It is important to note that neither task nor relationship behaviour must exist at the expense of the other, which means that if a leader is high on task behaviour, it does not necessarily follow that the leader must be low on relationship behaviour. Task and relationship behaviour are independent of each other and various combinations are possible. The various patterns of leader behaviour can be depicted as follows:



**FIGURE 4-1 Four Basic Leader Behaviour Styles**

Source: Adapted from Hersey and Blanchard

It is also important to know the degree to which the leader is using task behaviour or relationship behaviour; therefore leadership behaviours are described as high or low, in order to give a clear indication of the extent to which the manager is engaged in a specific behaviour. Any of the four basic styles in figure 4-1 could be effective or ineffective. Hersey and Blanchard propose that the effectiveness of a leadership style will depend upon the situation in which it is being applied.



**FIGURE 4-2 Leader Style related to Task and Relationship behaviour**

Source: Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 152) - only a section of the model.

Figure 4-2 shows that the two sets of leadership behaviour can occur in various degrees. This figure indicates how the leader's behaviour changes from S1 to S4. When the leader changes styles from S1 to S2, he/she reduces task behaviour and gradually increases relationship behaviour. Proceeding from S2 to S3 means a further reduction of task behaviour, with more emphasis on leadership behaviour. When moving from S3 to S4, the leader reduces both task and relationship behaviours.

## 2.2 The concept of maturity

Hersey and Blanchard define the most important situational variable as subordinate "task maturity" level. Therefore in the Situational Leadership theory maturity is defined as the willingness and ability of a person to take responsibility for directing his/her own behaviour (refer to Chapter II). It is important to note that this maturity should be considered in relation to a specific task to be performed. This means that a person or group is not mature or immature in a total sense but that people usually have different degrees of maturity for different tasks.

### 2.2.1 Components of maturity

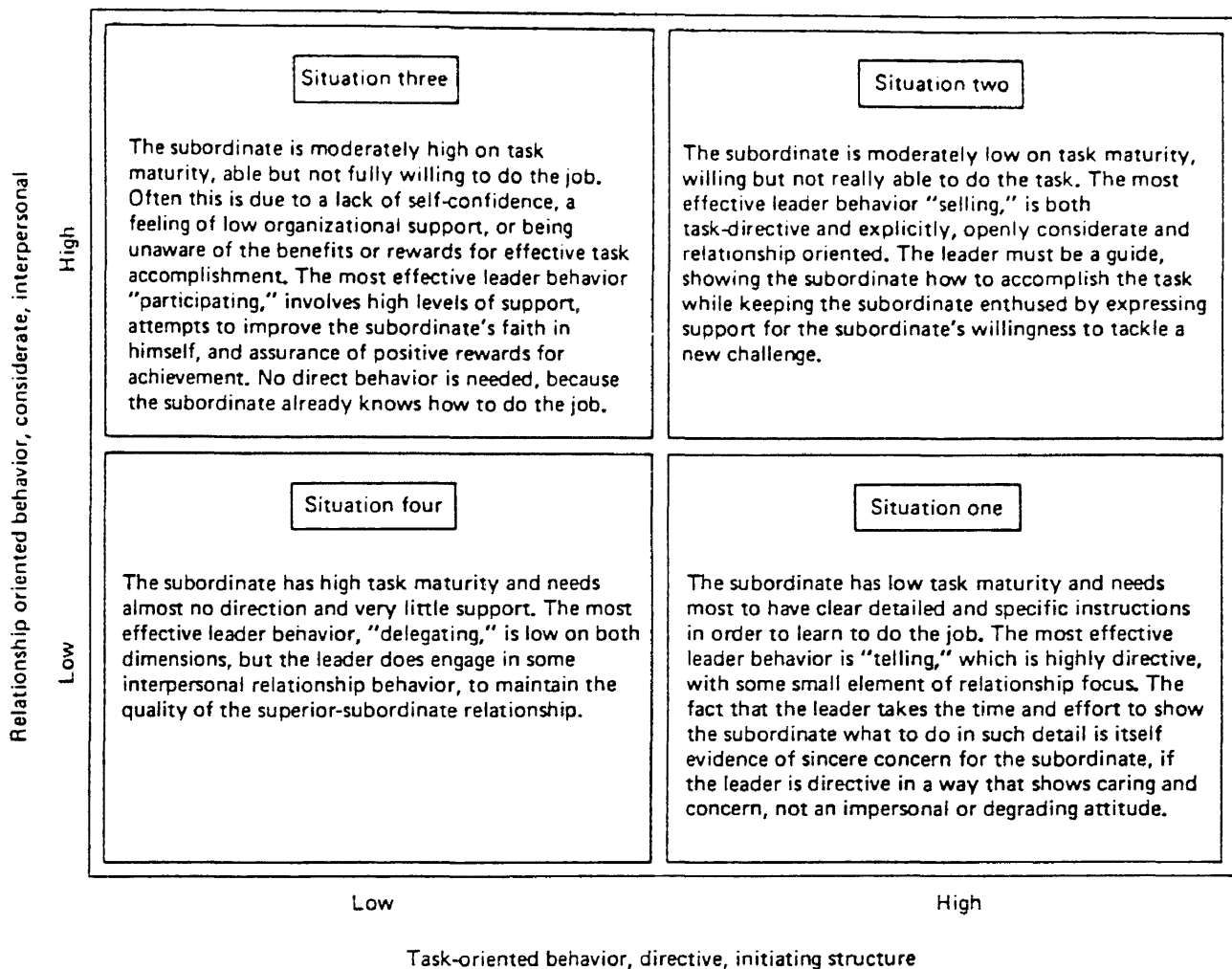
Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 157) refer to the maturity of individuals as their willingness (motivation) and their ability (competence) to take responsibility for directing their own behaviour, and suggest that this concept consist of two dimensions:

- Psychological maturity, which is related to the willingness or motivation to do something. An individual who has high psychological maturity in a particular area will have self-confidence, will regard responsibility as important and will be committed to the successful completion of a specific task in that area.
- Job maturity, which is related to the ability or competence to do something. Therefore an individual who has high job maturity in a particular area of his/her work, has the knowledge, ability as well as experience to do the tasks related to that area without the need for direction from his/her superiors.

By dividing each of these two maturity factors into "high" and "low", we have four possible combinations:

- Individuals who are neither willing nor able to take responsibility (low on both psychological and job maturity), i.e. M 1.
- Individuals who are willing but not able to take responsibility (high psychological maturity but low job maturity), i.e. M2.
- Individuals who are able but not willing to take responsibility (high job maturity but low psychological maturity) i.e. M3.
- Individuals who are both willing and able to take responsibility (high on both psychological and job maturity) i.e. M4. Hersey and Blanchard (1977 : 5).

According to Sashkin and Morris (1984 : 278) the four possible combinations can best be dealt with by one of the four combinations of task and relationship behaviour as is indicated in the following figure:



**FIGURE 4-3 The Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory**

Source: Sashkin and Morris (1984 : 279)

Two important aspects should be noted in this context, viz.

\*There is no conceptual difference between education and experience because a person can obtain task-relevant maturity through education or experience or by a combination of both.

\*Although maturity is an important and useful concept for diagnostic judgements, the other situational variables must also be taken in consideration, e.g. leader, followers, the boss, associates, the organization, job demands and time (refer to discussion in Chapter III.

### 3. THE BASIC CONCEPT OF SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP

According to situational leadership there is no single method of influencing the performance of subordinates. The task-relevant maturity levels of the individuals in a specific situation tend to determine which leadership styles are likely to achieve the best results. Hersey and Goldsmith (1980 : 38) states that:

"The Situational Leadership Model (Figure 4-4) provides leaders with a diagnostic procedure for assessing the maturity of followers regarding specific tasks, and a practical prescriptive tool for selecting the leadership style with the highest probability of success."

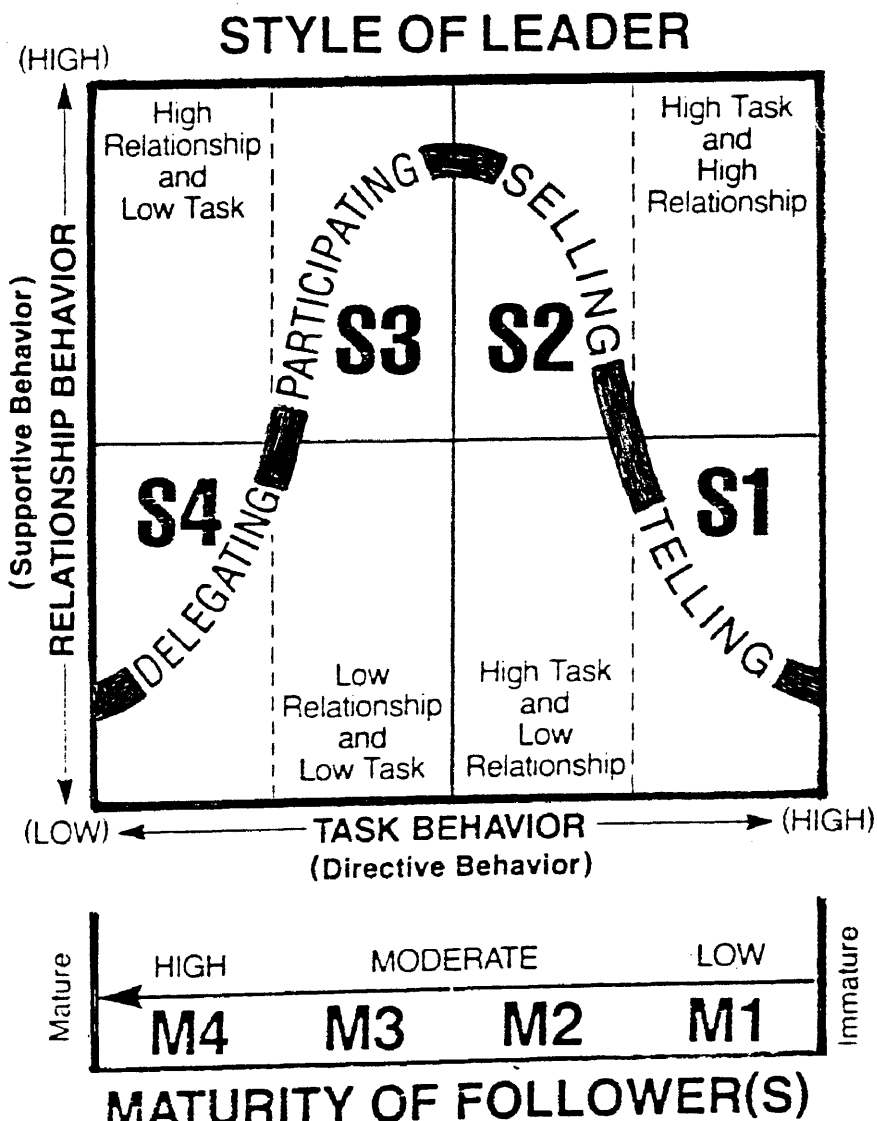


FIGURE 4-4 Situational Leadership Model

This figure represents two different phenomena. Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 152) give the following explanation: "**The appropriate leadership style for given levels of follower maturity is portrayed by the prescriptive curve going through the four leadership quadrants. The bell-shaped curve is called a prescriptive curve because it shows the appropriate leadership style directly above the corresponding level of maturity.**"

The correct combination of task behaviour and relationship behaviour is important when determining the appropriate leadership styles for the four different maturity levels:

- The **TELLING** style has the highest probability of being effective with people on a low maturity level, because it provides clear, specific directions and supervision for people who are unable and unwilling to take responsibility. This style, therefore, involves high task behaviour and low relationship behaviour.
- SELLING** tends to be most effective for people with low to moderate maturity. This style will allow the leader to display directive behaviour to strengthen their willingness and enthusiasm. This style involves high task behaviour as well as high relationship behaviour.
- PARTICIPATING** tends to be most effective for moderate to high maturity individuals, because it is supportive and non-directive. Followers at this level have the ability to perform the specific task but lack confidence or enthusiasm. It involves high relationship behaviour to rectify the follower's lack of confidence or insecurity, and low task behaviour to reduce structure. The primary functions of the leader are facilitating and communicating.

**-DELEGATING** is for people with a high level of maturity, i.e. able and willing or confident to perform the specific task. This style involves low relationship behaviour as well as low task behaviour which means that it provides little direction or support, which is ideal for the psychological mature individual who needs below average amounts of two-way communication and supportive behaviour.

The following table provides a summary of the relationships in the Situational Leadership Model:

WHEN THE FOLLOWER'S MATURITY LEVEL IS:	...THE APPROPRIATE LEADERSHIP STYLE IS:	...WHICH IS COMPOSED OF THE BEHAVIORS IN:
M1 : LOW LEVELS OF ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS	S1 : TELLING	Q1 : HIGH TASK AND LOW RELATIONSHIP
M2 : LOW TO MODERATE LEVELS OF ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS	S2 : SELLING	Q2 : HIGH TASK AND HIGH RELATIONSHIP
M3 : MODERATE TO HIGH LEVELS OF ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS	S3 : PARTICIPATING	Q3 : HIGH RELATIONSHIP AND LOW TASK
M4 : HIGH LEVELS OF ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS	S4 : DELEGATING	Q4 : LOW RELATIONSHIP AND LOW TASK

FIGURE 4-5



One of the primary problems in management is that leadership styles which work well today may not be effective tomorrow, and therefore this model is designed to be dynamic. It aims at enabling the manager to assess the people who work for him/her, and to develop flexibility in changing his/her style according to the demands of changing situations.

### 3.1 Instruments to measure maturity

If a leader and a follower are to come to an agreement regarding an effective leadership style that the leader should use, it is of paramount importance to determine the maturity level of the follower on each job objective, accurately. To enable managers and their followers to make valid judgements about follower maturity, Hambleton, Blanchard and Hersey have developed two different instruments:

- the Manager's Rating Form, and
- a Self-Rating Form. Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 158)

These rating instruments measure:

- \*Job maturity, with reference to past job experience, job knowledge, understanding of job requirements, etc.
- \*Psychological maturity, which includes willingness to take responsibility, achievement motivation, commitment, etc.

It is important to note that usually an individual's ability does not change drastically from one day to the next, but willingness or motivation often fluctuate from one moment to another.

### 3.2 Modifying levels of maturity according to the developmental cycle

Situational leadership provides a way to help the manager

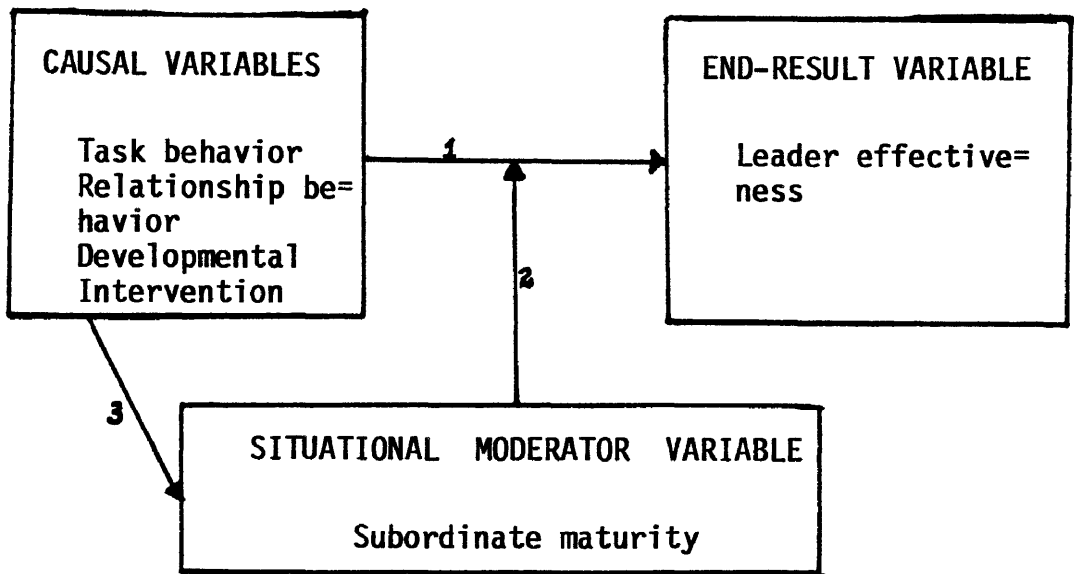
to develop his/her subordinates and to keep the momentum going to achieve higher and higher levels of maturity, which is called the developmental cycle. Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 80). The leader must however be very careful not to delegate responsibility too rapidly. If the follower cannot handle the responsibility yet, it will result in failure and frustration on his part. The process of helping people to develop towards higher levels of maturity along the curvi-linear function consists of two steps; viz.

- The first step is to reduce the amount of task behaviour, which allows employees to begin to attempt new tasks without the benefit of highly directive behaviour on the part of the manager.
- If the employees respond well to the increased responsibility, the manager will increase the amount of relationship behaviour to reward the higher level of employee achievement. Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 84).

### 3.3 Regression in maturity

Managers must also learn to change their style when a subordinate shows a decrease in maturity relative to a particular job objective. Yukl (1981 : 143) quotes the example of a highly motivated and responsible subordinate who have had a personal tragedy that has left him apathetic about his work. It becomes appropriate and necessary for the manager to adjust his/her behaviour backwards through the curve to meet the present maturity level of the subordinate. This means that the manager will have to increase both directive behaviour and supportive behaviour moderately, which is called the regressive cycle.

Yukl (1981 : 142 & 143) draws attention to the causal relationships implied by this theory. He states that "... there is a more delayed causal effect of the leader's behavior on subordinate maturity." (arrow 3 in figure 4-6).



**FIGURE 4-6 Causal Relationships in Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory**

Source: Yukl (1981 : 143)

He refers to 'developmental intervention' as a method by which the leader can alter the maturity level of the subordinate, and 'contingency contracting' where the leader and follower negotiate an agreement regarding the leader's role in helping the subordinate to accomplish his/her objectives. The complexity of the task as well as the characteristics of the subordinate will determine the time period the subordinate will need to mature.

#### 4. MOTIVATION AND BEHAVIOUR

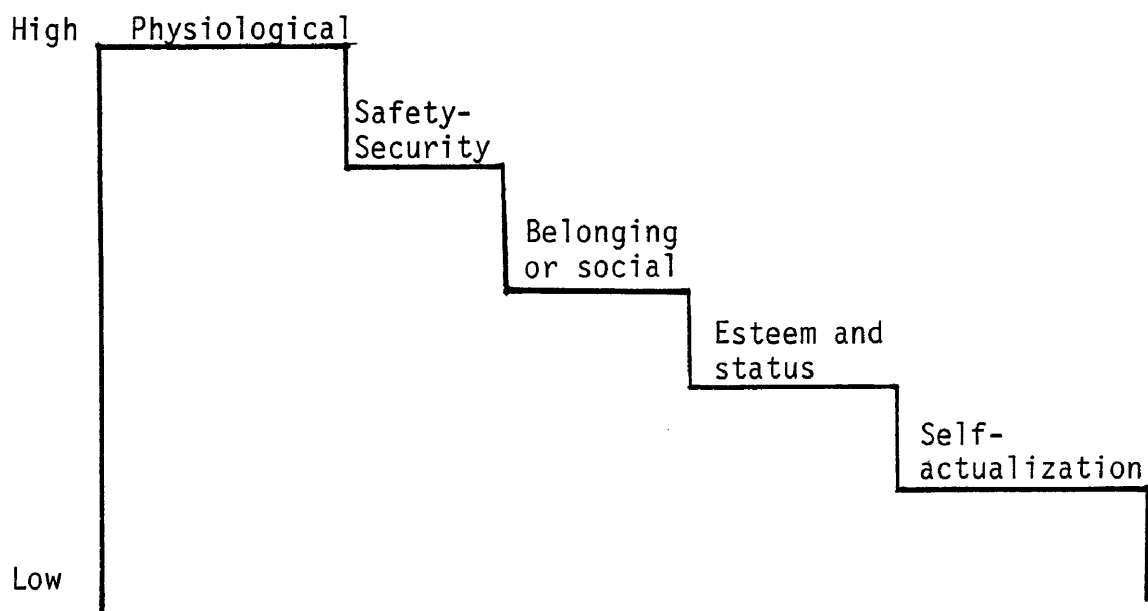
Over the years motivation and behaviour have been studied and researched in order to find answers to all the perplexing questions concerning human nature. According to STONER (1982 : 464) "... motivation is a very significant subject for managers, since managers must influence the motivation of people to achieve personal and organizational goals." Therefore, managers must

understand what motivates their subordinates and must be capable of providing constructive ways for their subordinates to obtain needs satisfaction. It follows that to manage effectively - by working with and through people to achieve organizational goals - a leader must understand why people behave as they do ... what motivates them, both positively and negatively. Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 15) also state that to be able "to predict behavior, managers must know which motives or needs of people evoke a certain action at a particular time."

Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 101) postulate that the theories developed by Maslow, Herzberg and McClelland are compatible with Situational Leadership. Knowledge and an understanding of these theories will also help managers to use Situational Leadership more effectively.

#### 4.1 Maslow and Situational Leadership

Abraham Maslow developed one of the most popular theories to explain why people behave in certain ways. He viewed human behaviour in terms of a hierarchy of needs, classified in five categories:



**FIGURE 4-7 The need hierarchy of A. Maslow**

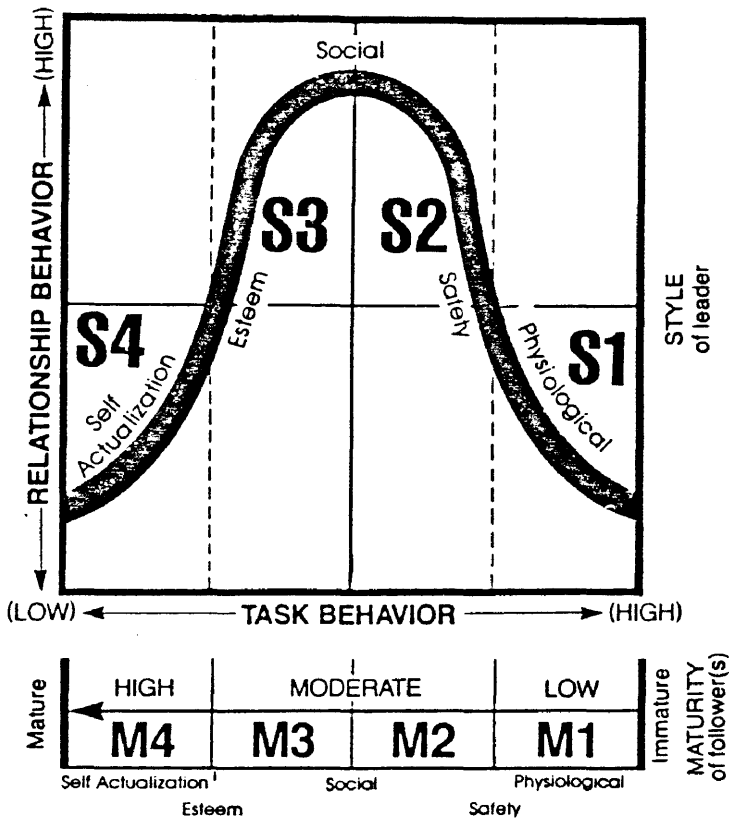
Source: Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 107)

The need hierarchy rests on two fundamental propositions, namely,

**"-that unsatisfied needs motivate behavior, and  
-as a particular need becomes largely satisfied it becomes less of a motivator of behavior, while the next level of need becomes a greater motivator of behavior."** Gray and Starke (1984 : 76)

According to figure 4-7 the first high priority need is physiological, which means that people disregard other needs until their physiological needs are met and somewhat satisfied. Then the safety or security needs become predominant. When this need for self-preservation is fairly well satisfied, the social or affiliation needs will emerge as dominant, which means that the individual will strive for meaningful relations with others. After the individual has satisfied the need to belong, he/she will feel the need for esteem; self-esteem as well as respect from others. Satisfaction of these needs will produce feelings of self-confidence, prestige, power and control. Now the self-actualization needs come to the fore and the individual wants to maximise his/her own potential.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs correlates directly with the concepts of Situational Leadership in terms of the maturity of the followers:



**FIGURE 4-8 Maslow's Need Hierarchy and Situational Leadership**

Source: Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 110)

Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 111) explains this correlation as follows:

- If a person's behaviour reflects the basic needs, i.e. physiological or safety needs, that person tends to fall primarily in the M1 level.
- A subordinate operating at the social and safety need level tends to fall into the M2 level of maturity.
- Subordinates who operate at the social and esteem need level usually falls in the M3 level of maturity.

-People who operate out of need for self-actualization are seen to be at the M4 level of maturity.

These authors postulate that "... **Maslow's hierarchy is an excellent method of cross-checking diagnoses of fol= lower maturity, and deciding which style is appropriate.**" Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 111). It is important to remember that people can operate at various need levels at the same time, depending on the situation.

#### 4.2 Herzberg and Situational Leadership

Frederick Herzberg viewed subordinate motivation from a different angle and he believed that subordinates are influenced positively or negatively, by their perception of conditions in their work environment, which would promote satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Herzberg divided these factors into two categories:

- Conditions that tend to create satisfaction among the subordinates, such as feelings of achievement, professional growth and recognition, called motivators, and
  - Conditions that tend to evoke dissatisfaction, such as supervision, working conditions, money and status, which he termed hygiene or maintenance factors.
- Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 57 & 58).

Herzberg found that the dissatisfying factors or hygiene factors had to do with the environment in which the work was done, while the factors which caused satisfaction - the motivators had to do with the work itself. Herzberg concluded that both hygiene and motivating factors are very important and a successful manager must pay attention to both categories.

Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 12) regard Herzberg's work as useful in making decisions about levels of maturity and the appropriate leadership style. According to figure 4-9 people who are only interested in the hygiene factors as driving goals (policy, pay, supervision, etc.) tend to fall between M1 and M3 maturity levels. People who are predominantly governed by the motivating factors such as challenging work, opportunities for growth, etc. will fall in the M3 and M4 levels of maturity.

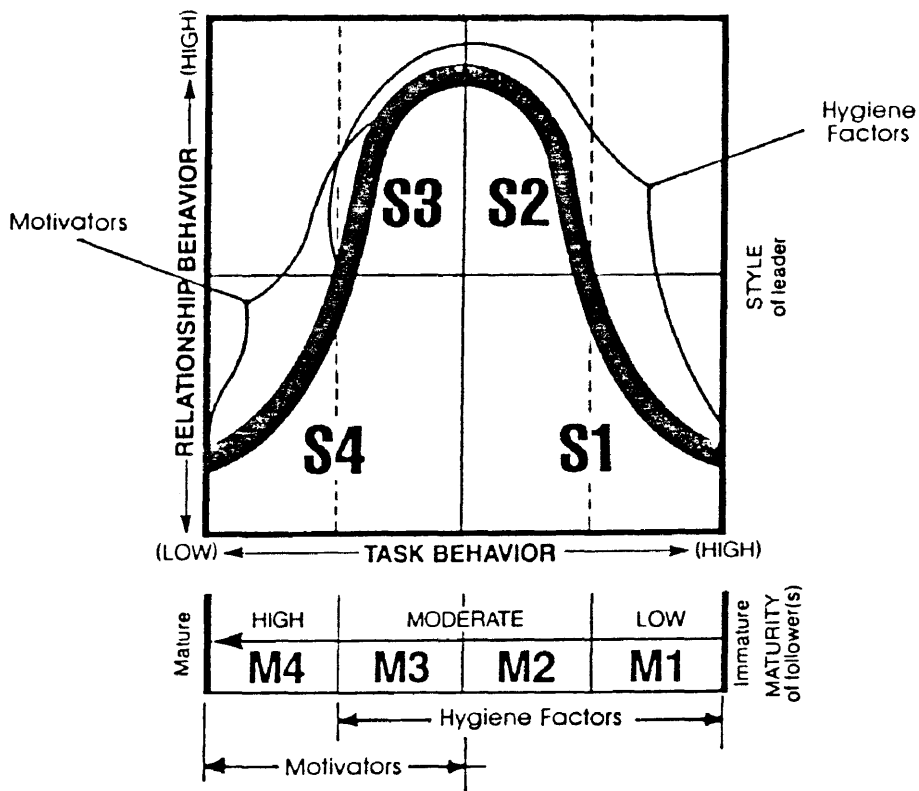


FIGURE 4-9 McClelland's two-factor theory and Situational Leadership

Source: Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 121)

### 4.3 McClelland and Situational Leadership

McClelland developed the Achievement Motivation Theory, which indicated that a strong need for achievement was related to how well individuals were motivated to perform



their work tasks. Individuals who are high in achievement (nAch) derive satisfaction from reaching goals. According to McClelland successful task accomplishment is important to high achievers; they prefer immediate feedback on their performance; they prefer to work independently and usually undertake tasks of moderate difficulty. Gray & Starke (1984 : 83). McClelland also found that this need could be strengthened to some extent by training. Stoner (1982 : 449).

Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 123) regard achievement motivation - which includes the ability to set challenging but realistic goals for oneself - as an important managerial tool for analyzing the maturity of subordinates. They relate the concept of achievement motivation to employee maturity in the following way:

- Subordinates with the desire to achieve, tend to be high in maturity; they set high but realistic goals and provide self-motivation. Therefore the appropriate leadership styles would be participating and delegating.
- Subordinates who fall in the low nAch category tend to be below average in terms of maturity - they need a telling or selling leadership style.

In figure 4-10 the work of Maslow, Hersberg and McClelland have been combined to illustrate their relation to situational leadership.

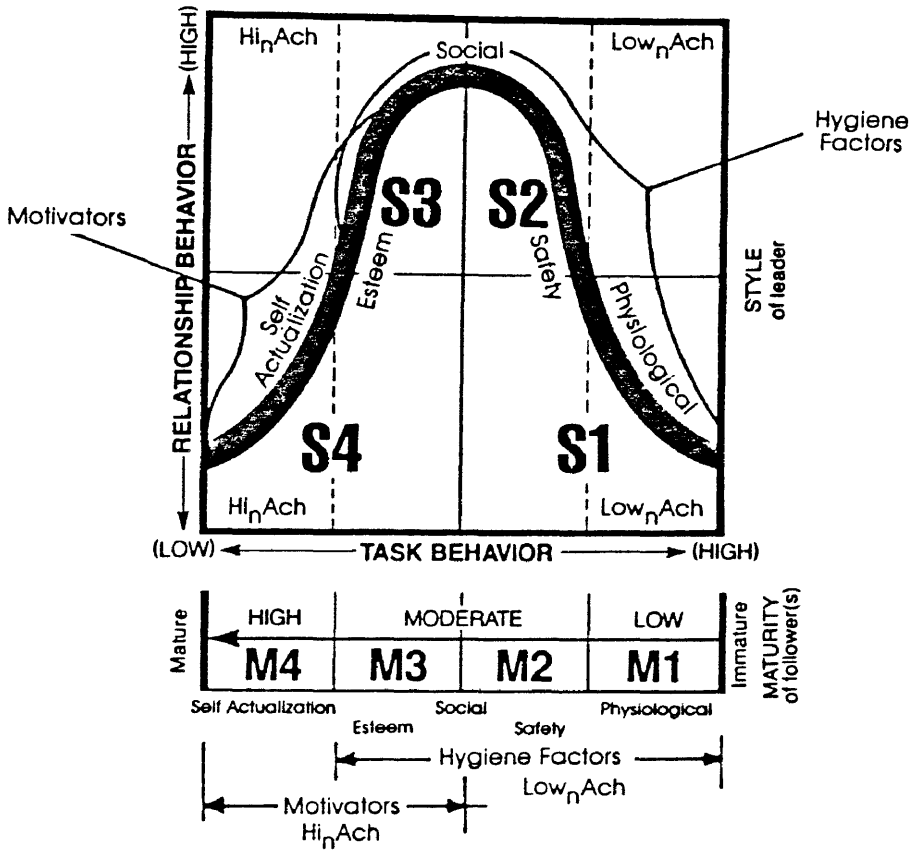


FIGURE 4-10 Motivation Theories related to Situational Leadership

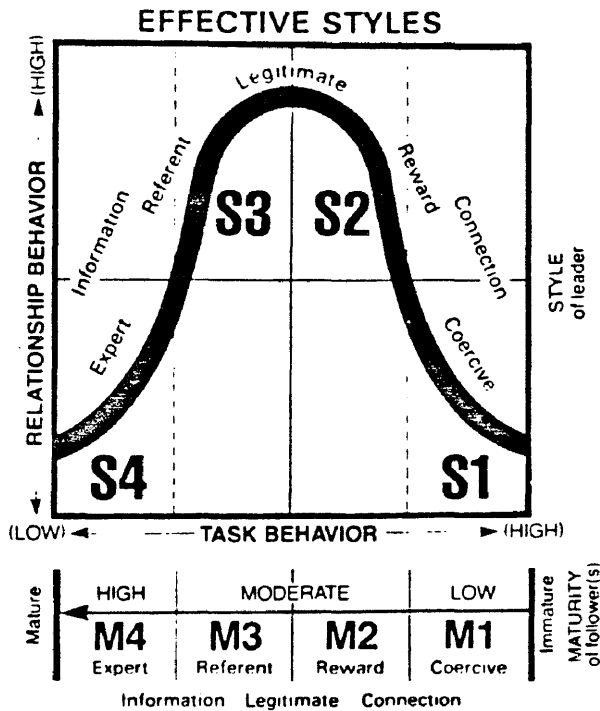
Source: Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 129)

## 5. POWER AND SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 178 & 179) identified seven bases of power as potential means of influencing the behaviour of others successfully, viz. coercive power; legitimate power; expert power; reward power; referent power; information power and connection power. They postulate that: "... just as an effective leader should vary leadership style according to the maturity level of the follower, it may be appropriate to vary the use of power in a similar manner." Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 182)

They explain the relationship between the power bases and corresponding leadership styles as follows:

- Coercive power. If a subordinate is unable and unwilling, i.e. low in maturity, the TELLING style is most effective, and coercive power, which is based on fear, is often necessary.
- Connection power, which is based on the leader's "connection" with influential people, will enhance the leader's effectiveness when using the TELLING or SELLING leadership style appropriate for subordinates on the M1 to M2 maturity level.
- Reward power. Subordinates on a low to moderate maturity level need high supportive as well as high directive behaviour. The use of the SELLING style is made more effective by reward power because these subordinates are willing to try a new pattern of behaviour.
- Legitimate power, which is based on the position of the leader, enhances the effectiveness of the SELLING and PARTICIPATING leadership styles which are most appropriate for subordinates on the M2 and M3 levels of maturity.
- Referent power. Subordinates who are able but unwilling or insecure relate best to the PARTICIPATING style, which may be more effectively utilized if the leader has referent power, based on good relationships with the subordinates.
- Information power is helpful to the leader dealing with subordinates on the above-average maturity levels (M3 and M4) when using the PARTICIPATING or DELEGATING leadership styles.
- Expert power, based on the leader's possession of expertise, skill and knowledge, is ideal for the subordinate on a high maturity level which responds best to a delegating leadership style.



**FIGURE 4-11 Relationship between Situational Leadership and power bases**

Source: Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 304)

Figure 4-11 indicates clearly that the power bases most relevant to the lower levels of maturity are based on the authority delegated by the leader's superiors or bestowed by the organization on the leader, i.e. POSITION POWER. On the other hand subordinates who are above average maturity relate best to power earned by the leader, i.e. PERSONAL POWER.

## 6. DETERMINING THE APPROPRIATE LEADERSHIP STYLE

### 6.1 Introduction

According to the Situational Leadership theory, the ability to assess the maturity of subordinates effectively, is critical to managerial success in any setting. The previous part of this chapter includes a discussion of the guidelines provided by Situational Leadership for making

decisions about the maturity of subordinates. Popular motivational theories, knowledge of which will enable managers to cross-check their conclusions, have been included.

It is important, however, that managers must know what their current leadership style is. The leadership style of a person is usually defined as the behaviour pattern exhibited by the person when attempting to influence the activities of others (followers) - as perceived by those others. Because of this possible discrepancy in perception, two LEAD instruments were developed, viz. LEAD-Self and LEAD-Other. (LEAD = Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description).

## 6.2 Aspects of Leadership

The LEAD-Self and LEAD-other questionnaires were designed to measure three aspects of leader behaviour, namely style, style range and style adaptability. Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 233).

### 6.2.1 Style

According to the definition in 6.1 there is a difference between the self-perception of a leader's style and the actual leadership style. Research at the Center for Leadership Studies has discovered that all leaders have a primary leadership style, i.e. the behaviour pattern used most often by the leader when attempting to influence the activities of others. This primary leadership style is actually the leader's favourite style. Some leaders may have a secondary leadership style or even up to three secondary styles. Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 233).

## 6.2.2 Style range or flexibility

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 38) the dominating or primary leadership style plus supporting or secondary leadership style determine the leader's style range. This means that style range is actually the extent to which the leader can vary his/her leadership style. Leaders who have the potential to be effective in a number of situations are flexible leaders.

Leadership situations can be categorized into two categories: those that have high flexibility demands and those that demand low flexibility from the leader. High flexibility demands quoted by Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 234) are inter alia high level managerial jobs; unstructured tasks; non-routine decision making and many inter-connecting jobs whereas low flexibility demands include simple managerial jobs, tight procedures and little environmental change.

## 6.2.3 Style adaptability

Style adaptability is the degree to which the leader is able to vary his/her style appropriately to the demands of a specific situation according to Situational Leadership. Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 235) stress the fact that: **"... style range is not as relevant to effectiveness as style adaptability: a wide style range will not guarantee effectiveness."** Therefore the leader must also have good diagnostic skills in order to determine the appropriate leadership style for a given situation.

## 6.3 Use of LEAD Instrumentation

### 6.3.1 Design

The LEAD consists of twelve situations, each related to

four alternatives of action. The twelve situations are differentiated in the following way:

- \*3 situations involve groups of low maturity (M1)
- \*3 situations involve groups of low-to-moderate maturity (M2)
- \*3 situations involve groups of moderate-to-high maturity (M3)
- \*3 situations involve groups of high maturity (M4)

Copies of the LEAD-Self and the LEAD-Other questionnaires as well as score sheets are attached.

### 6.3.2 Implementation and interpretation

The LEAD-Self must be completed by the leader and the LEAD-Other by the leader's superior, his associates or peers and his subordinates.

The Johari window, a framework designed by Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham can be used to explain what the data obtained by the LEAD instruments mean. Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 152). Though the Johari window usually depicts leadership personality, it is applicable to leadership style. It is important to note that leadership personality includes self-perception and the perception of others whereas leadership style consists of leadership behaviour as perceived by others only.

The Johari window consists of four areas:

- known to self** area, i.e. what the leaders know about themselves;
- unknown to self** area, i.e. the leader is unaware of how he/she is coming across;
- known to others** area, i.e. behaviours and attitudes of leaders, perceived by others; and
- unknown to others**, called the unknown.

The public, blind, private and unknown areas are depicted in figure 4-12.

	Known to Self	Unknown to Self
Known to Others	<b>PUBLIC</b>	<b>BLIND</b>
Unknown to Others	<b>PRIVATE</b>	<b>UNKNOWN</b>

**FIGURE 4-12 The Johari Window**

Source: Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 238)

The Johari window can be used with the LEAD information to determine the arena in which the manager is functioning. The LEAD-Self data is based on self-perception and includes the public and private arenas. LEAD-Other data will help to measure the manager's leadership style especially in the known to others area. If the public arena in the Johari window is very small, there is a great discrepancy between self-perception and the way others see the manager. On the other hand, if the public arena is quite large, there is no significant difference between self-perception and the way others see the leadership style of the manager. Thus, LEAD instrumentation can measure the shape of your public arena on both individual and group levels as is indicated in figure 4-13.



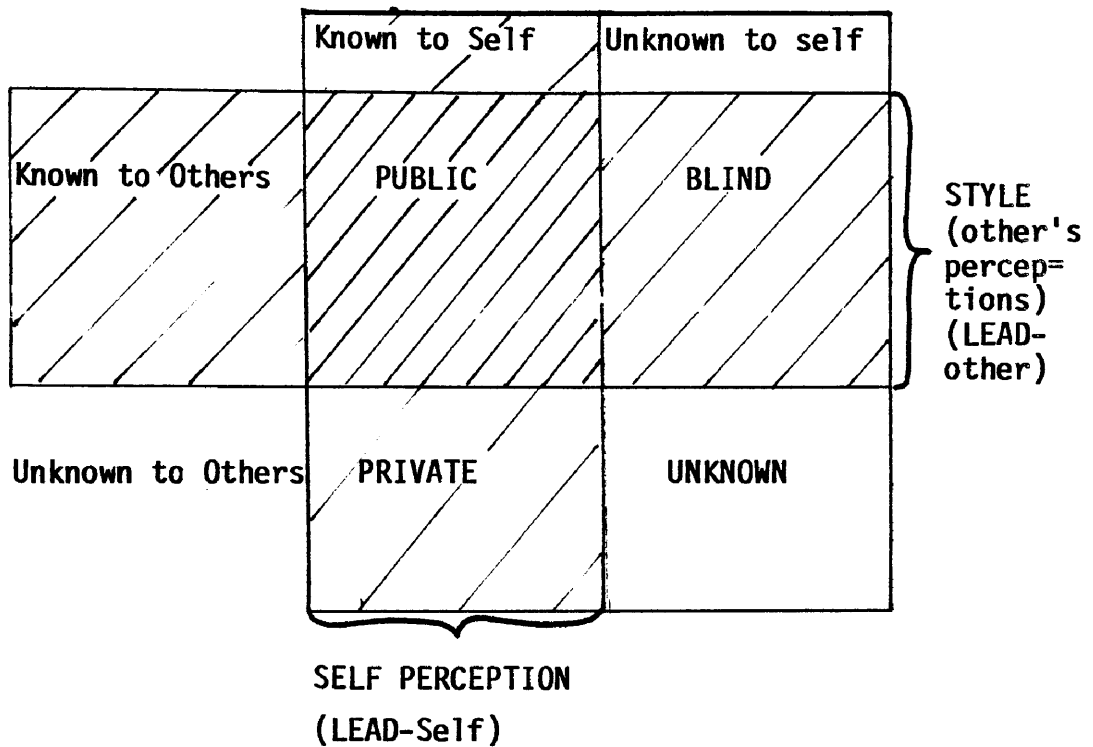


FIGURE 4-13 Johari Window and LEAD Instrumentation

Source: Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 153)

### 6.3.3

#### Determining Style Range

To determine the manager's style range from the LEAD questionnaire, he/she will have to identify the extent of his/her primary and supporting styles. The primary leadership style is the style in which the manager has most responses and the secondary or supporting styles are those with the second highest number of responses. The following types of profiles result from an analysis of the LEAD questionnaire: Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 157-163).

-Style Profile 1-3: managers whose scores place the majority of their responses in styles 1 and 3 fall into the so-called "good guy-bad guy syndrome".

- Style Profile 1-4: Managers who fall in this style range tend to assess subordinates as good or bad according to their competency.
- Style Profile 1-2: Managers whose score place the majority of their responses in these styles are able to raise and to lower relationship behaviour, but also want to provide the structure and direction - the "no one can do things as well as I can" attitude.
- Style Profile 2-3: Managers in these leadership profiles work well with people of average maturity but have difficulty in handling discipline problems.
- Style Profile 2-4: Managers whose scores place the majority of their responses in this profile, want to provide much of the direction, and want to develop a personal relationship with people, but find it difficult to delegate.
- Style Profile 3-4: Managers in this style range are able to raise and lower their relationship behaviour, but often feel uncomfortable when they have to initiate structure or provide direction to subordinates.

Figure 4-14 can be used as a basic framework on which to plot style profiles.

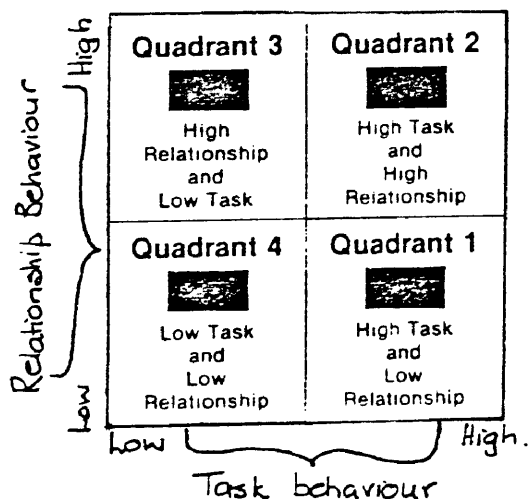


FIGURE 4-14 Framework to plot different style ranges

#### 6.3.4 Determining Style Adaptability

It is important to note that managers with a narrow style range can be effective for a period of time provided that they remain in situations in which their style has a high probability of success. On the other hand, managers with a wide range of styles may be ineffective if their behaviours are not consistent with the demands of the specific situation. In order to help the leader to develop his/her diagnostic skills, the twelve situations in the LEAD questionnaire are analysed and evaluated according to the Situational Leadership approach. Hersey and Blanchard (1980 : 44-54).

##### -SITUATION 1

Subordinates are no longer responding to the leader's friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is declining rapidly.

##### Diagnosis

The group is rapidly decreasing in maturity as evidenced by the sharp decline in performance. The leader may be perceived as permissive because of the high degree of relationship behaviour he/she is displaying. The leader's best bet in the short run is to cut back significantly on relationship behaviour; that is, explain what activities group members are to do and when, where and how tasks are to be accomplished. If the group begins to show some signs of assuming responsibility, the leader can begin to increase the relationship behaviour and start again to delegate. This is an example of the need for a disciplinary intervention in a regressive cycle.

## **-SITUATION 2**

The observable performance of the group is increasing. The leader has been making sure that all members are aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.

### **Diagnosis**

The group has been responding well to structured behaviour from the leader; the maturity of the group seems to be increasing. The leader, although needing to change his/her style to reflect this increased maturity, must be careful not to increase socio-emotional support too rapidly. Too much socio-emotional support and too little structure may be seen by the group as permissiveness. The best bet, therefore, is to reinforce positively successive approximations as the group's behaviour comes closer and closer to the leader's expectations of good performance. This is done by a two-step process of, first, reduction in task behaviour, and then, if adequate performance follows, an increase in relationship behaviour. This illustrates the steps in a developmental cycle.

## **-SITUATION 3**

Members of the group are unable to solve a problem themselves. Their leader has left them alone. Group performance and interpersonal relations have been good.

### **Diagnosis**

The group, above average in maturity in the past as good performance and interpersonal relations suggest, is now unable to solve a problem and needs an intervention from the leader. The leader's best bet is to open up communication channels again by calling the

group together and helping to facilitate problem-solving. This is an example of a leader moving back along the curvilinear function appropriately in a regressive cycle.

#### **-SITUATION 4**

The leader is considering a major change. Subordinates have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.

#### **Diagnosis**

Since the leader is considering a major change and the members of the group are mature and respect the need for change, the leader's best bet is to let the group develop its own direction in terms of the change.

#### **-SITUATION 5**

The performance of the 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.

#### **Diagnosis**

The group is relatively immature, not only in terms of willingness to take responsibility but also in experience; productivity is decreasing. Initiating structure has helped in the past. The leader's best bet in the short run will be to engage in task behaviour, that is, defining roles, spelling out tasks.

## **-SITUATION 6**

The leader stepped into an efficiently run organization, which the previous administrator controlled tightly. The leader wants to maintain a productive situation but would like to begin humanizing the environment.

### **Diagnosis**

The group has responded well in the past to task behaviour as evidenced by the smoothly running situation left by the last administrator. If the new leader wants to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment, the best bet is to maintain some structure but give the group opportunities to take some increased responsibility; if this responsibility is well handled, this behaviour should be reinforced by increases in socio-emotional support. This process should continue until the group is assuming significant responsibility and performing as a more mature group.

## **-SITUATION 7**

The 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 operation.

### **Diagnosis**

The group seems to be high in maturity as demonstrated productivity and flexibility in previous operations suggest. Since the leader is considering making major changes in structure and the members of the group have had an opportunity to make suggestions about needed change, the leader's best bet is to continue to keep

communication channels open with the group. Some participation with the leader, however, may be needed because the change is venturing into areas in which the group has less experience.

### **-SITUATION 8**

Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. The leader feels somewhat unsure about the lack of direction given to the group by the leader.

#### **Diagnosis**

The group is high in maturity, as can be seen from good productivity and group relations. The leader is projecting his/her insecurity to the group, thus this problem lies within the leader rather than within the group. Therefore, the leader's best action is to continue to let the group provide much of its own structure and socio-emotional support.

### **-SITUATION 9**

The 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 of sessions has been poor. Meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially the group has the talent necessary to help.

#### **Diagnosis**

This group is low in maturity, as can be seen by the tardiness in making requested recommendations, poor attendance at meetings, and low concern for task accomplishment. Because members potentially have the talent to help, the leader's best bet in the short run will be to initiate structure with this group, that is, organize and define the roles of the members of the task force.

### **-SITUATION 10**

Subordinates, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to the leader's recent redefining of standards.

#### **Diagnosis**

This group, usually able to take responsibility, is becoming less mature. This may be partly because the leader has recently structured the group's environment. The leader's best bet now is to keep communication channels open and to delegate more responsibility, but also be sure that the goals and objectives of the organization are maintained by a moderate degree of structure. Reinforcing positively the group's recent decrease in maturity may only increase the probability that this kind of behaviour may continue in the future.

### **-SITUATION 11**

The leader has been promoted to a new position. The previous administrator was uninvolved in the affairs of the group. The group has adequately handled its tasks and direction. Group interrelations are good.

#### **Diagnosis**

The previous administrator left the group alone. Members responded with moderate to high maturity, as average output and good intervening variables reveal. The new leader's best bet is to continue to let the group structure much of its own activities but provide for some focus on improving what is now adequate output. It is also necessary to open up communication channels to establish the position of the leader and gain rapport with this group. As trust and commitment are developed, movement toward leaving the group more on its own again becomes appropriate.



## **-SITUATION 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.

### **Diagnosis**

The group is high in maturity, as can be seen from its record of accomplishment and ability to maintain long-term goals. The leader's best bet in the short run will be to let group members solve their own problems. However, if the difficulties continue or intensify, alternative leadership styles could be considered.

## **7. CONCLUSION**

Effective leaders, especially effective education leaders must endeavour to know their staff; professional, administrative and ground staff, well enough to meet their ever changing abilities and demands on them. The leader may use a specific leadership style when working with a group, but the same leader will often have to behave differently with individual staff members because they are at different levels of maturity. The education leader must make a very special effort to develop the necessary diagnostic skills to select the appropriate leadership style in specific situations. It is important to keep in mind that the process of changes in leadership style cannot be revolutionary but must be evolutionary. This means that it is a gradual process which results from planned developmental growth in maturity and the creation of mutual trust and respect between the leader and his/her followers.

## CHAPTER V

### SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Education of the pupils is the major reason why schools as organizations exist. The principal of the school is responsible for carrying out this educational task which requires people (the school staff), who utilize time (timetable of the school day), space (classrooms and laboratories), and programmes and materials (books, visual aids and other learning materials), information (data organized and analyzed to clarify decisions), and money. Roe and Drake (1980 : 177). It follows that the major function of the principal is to exert educational leadership in order to improve the quality of life of each individual within the school.

In order to be able to optimize the human and material resources available, the effective principal must be a student of people, of organization and of management. Through knowledge of research and theory in these fields as well as an understanding of himself/herself, values, skills, experience and acceptance of certain principles, the principal develops modes of action or a range of management styles. Leadership effectiveness of the principal can thus be viewed as a function of his/her personality style, his/her behaviour as leader, the maturity and expectations of his/her staff as well as other factors, internal and external to the situation.

#### 2. FUNCTIONS AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE PRINCIPAL

According to Roe and Drake (1980 : 14) an analysis of the job of the principal leads to a two-dimensional division, viz.

- the administrative-managerial emphasis, and
- the educational and instruction leadership emphasis.

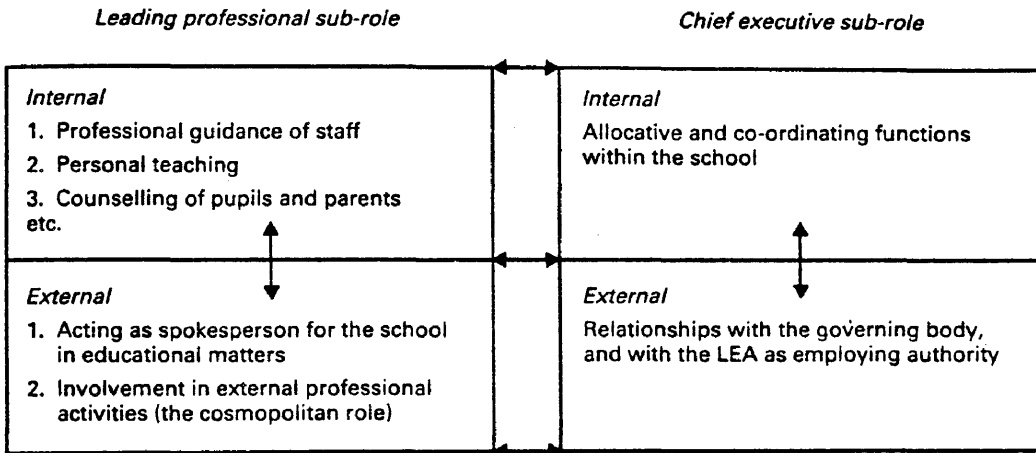
The administrative-managerial functions are relevant to the smooth operation of the school and include the following duties:

- \*maintaining adequate school records of all types;
- \*preparing reports for central office;
- \*budget development and budget control;
- \*personnel administration;
- \*student discipline;
- \*scheduling and maintaining a schedule;
- \*building administration;
- \*administrating supplies and equipment;
- \*pupil accounting;
- \*monitoring programs and instructional processes prescribed by the central office; and
- \*communicating to the students, staff, and the school's community as spokesman for the central office.

The educational and instructional leadership emphasis is concerned with:

- changing the behaviour of the persons involved in the teaching-learning situation, directed towards achieving the aims of the school; and
- building a cohesive social system in which all staff and pupils co-operate to achieve the aims of the school. This involves the implementation of educational processes that will create a stimulating and productive learning environment for all pupils.

Meredydd Hughes *et al* (1985 : 279) give the following diagrammatic representation of the role of the principal.



**FIGURE 5.1 The dual (leading professional-chief executive) role model**

Research confirmed that internal and external aspects of the sub-roles were inter-related as well as supportive. This indicates that professional knowledge, skills and attitudes have a profound effect on the whole range of tasks undertaken by the principal of a school.

According to Van Rooyen (1986 : 11) the complex managerial task of the principal can be sub-divided into the following task areas:

1. **PEDAGOGIC TERRAIN**
  - academic development of the child
  - cultural development of the child
  - social development of the child
  - psychological development of the child
  - physical development of the child.
  
2. **PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT**
  - job analysis
  - job description
  - staff recruitment
  - selection of staff
  - staff development - appointment
    - socialization
    - in-service training
    - career planning
    - managerial training
  - working milieu (quality of work life).

3. **ADMINISTRATION**
  - organizational/administrative infra-structure.
4. **PHYSICAL FACILITIES**
  - buildings
  - furniture
  - stock
  - apparatus.
5. **FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT**
  - budgeting
  - fund raising
  - accounting
  - investing.
6. **PUBLIC RELATIONS**
  - pupils
  - personnel
  - parents
  - community
  - T.E.D.
  - tertiary education institutions
  - employers.
7. **PROFESSIONAL TERRAIN**
  - Teachers' Council
  - Teachers' Associations
  - professional development of staff.

### 3. SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND RELATIONSHIPS IN THE SCHOOL

One of the functions of the principal is to develop his/her staff to their fullest potential. Unfortunately, effective staff training and development has become a problem to educational leaders without the necessary academic-professional training in this field. According to Situational Leadership this involves giving his/her staff various degrees of support or direction according to their maturity in the specific task. Therefore the principal must be flexible, i.e. have the potential to be effective in any number of situations as well as adaptable, which entails using the correct style at the right time.

### 3.1 Principal-Staff relationships

Situational Leadership places the emphasis on the behaviour of the education leader in relation to the staff. It is important that the principal distinguish between experienced staff members and beginner teachers. Experienced teachers are usually at a high maturity level and are therefore able, willing and confident to accept responsibility. The appropriate leadership style for these staff members would be a low-profile delegating style, which provides little direction or support. Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 167) state that: **"The level of education and maturity of these people is often such that they do not need their principal or department chairperson to initiate much structure."**

A new inexperienced teacher will most probably need more direction as well as socio-emotional support while his/her task maturity is still low. Thus the education leader will have to opt for a directive telling style that provides clear specific directions and supervision. This behaviour will alleviate the beginner teacher's insecurity regarding his/her task and give the teacher the opportunity to become more productive. If the teacher's performance is increasing, which indicates that task-relevant maturity is increasing, it would be appropriate for the education leader to shift his/her style to the left along the curvilinear function of the Situational Leadership theory. (See figure 4-4).

### 3.2 Teacher-pupil relationships

Paul Hersey and two colleagues conducted a study to ascertain the influence of Situational Leadership on the teacher-pupil relationship. Their experiments indicated that: **"... the experimental classes (where Situational Leadership applied) showed not only higher performance on content exams, but were also observed to have a higher level of enthusiasm, morale, and motivation as well as less tardiness and absenteeism."**

Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 165 and 166). The teacher started by lecturing from the front of the class, i.e. S1; high task and low relationship behaviour. In accordance with the development of the maturity level of the pupils, the teacher changed her teaching style to S2, which consisted of group discussions with the teacher as group leader. In this case the maturity level of the pupils pertained to their willingness and ability to direct their own learning. The teacher adapted her style accordingly to S3 where the teacher participated in the group discussions to S4 where she only took part when requested by the group.

Situational Leadership can be applied in a meaningful way to assist individual pupils in the classroom situation. The class as a group may have a certain level of maturity in a particular section of work, but one or two pupils could be at a different level of maturity and would need a different style and approach. The teacher, versed in situational leadership will be capable of dealing with different pupils at different maturity levels, in the appropriate way.

#### 4 . STYLE NEEDS FOR DIFFERENT LEVELS OF MANAGEMENT IN THE SCHOOL

Different levels of management exist in the school situation as is depicted in the following figure:

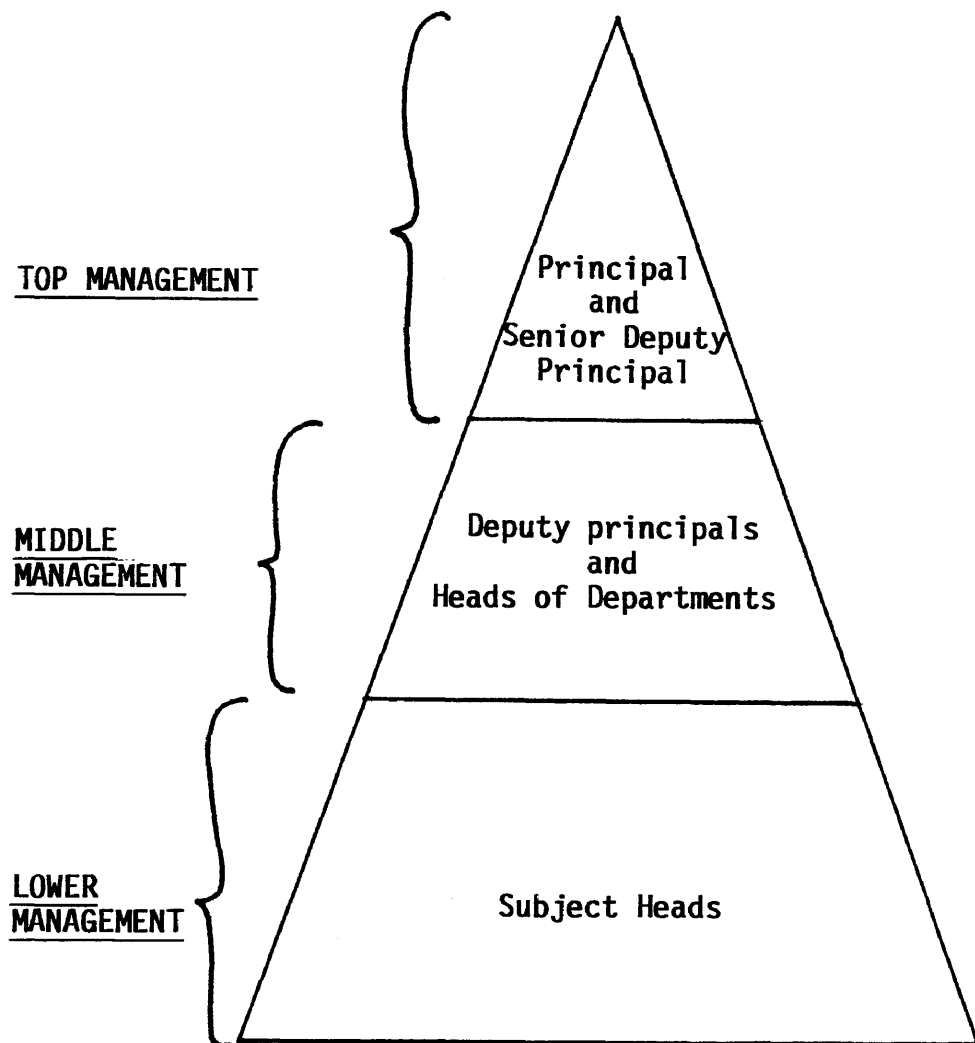


FIGURE 5-2: Levels of management in the school

- The top management includes the Principal, Senior Deputy Principal or Deputy Principal. They are responsible for the overall management of the school.
- Middle management in the school refers to the Heads of Departments as well as Deputy Principals in large schools. Their duty is to control the work of lower management and the teachers.
- Lower management incorporates all Subject Heads, who are responsible for the work of all teachers in their subjects.



According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 256) effective managers at each level require specific management styles. They found that:

- Managers at the lower level (i.e. Subject Heads) tend to use a telling and/or selling style, mainly because they are responsible for the functional work. This applies specifically to the beginner teacher in the subject.
- Middle managers, on the other hand, need the most flexibility because the nature of their responsibilities requires that they must be able to use a telling, selling, participating as well as a delegating style.
- Effective top managers, i.e. principals and senior deputy principals rely heavily on participating and delegating styles, probably because they relate mainly to staff with a high level of task-related maturity.

These style needs for different levels of management in the school situation can be illustrated as follows:

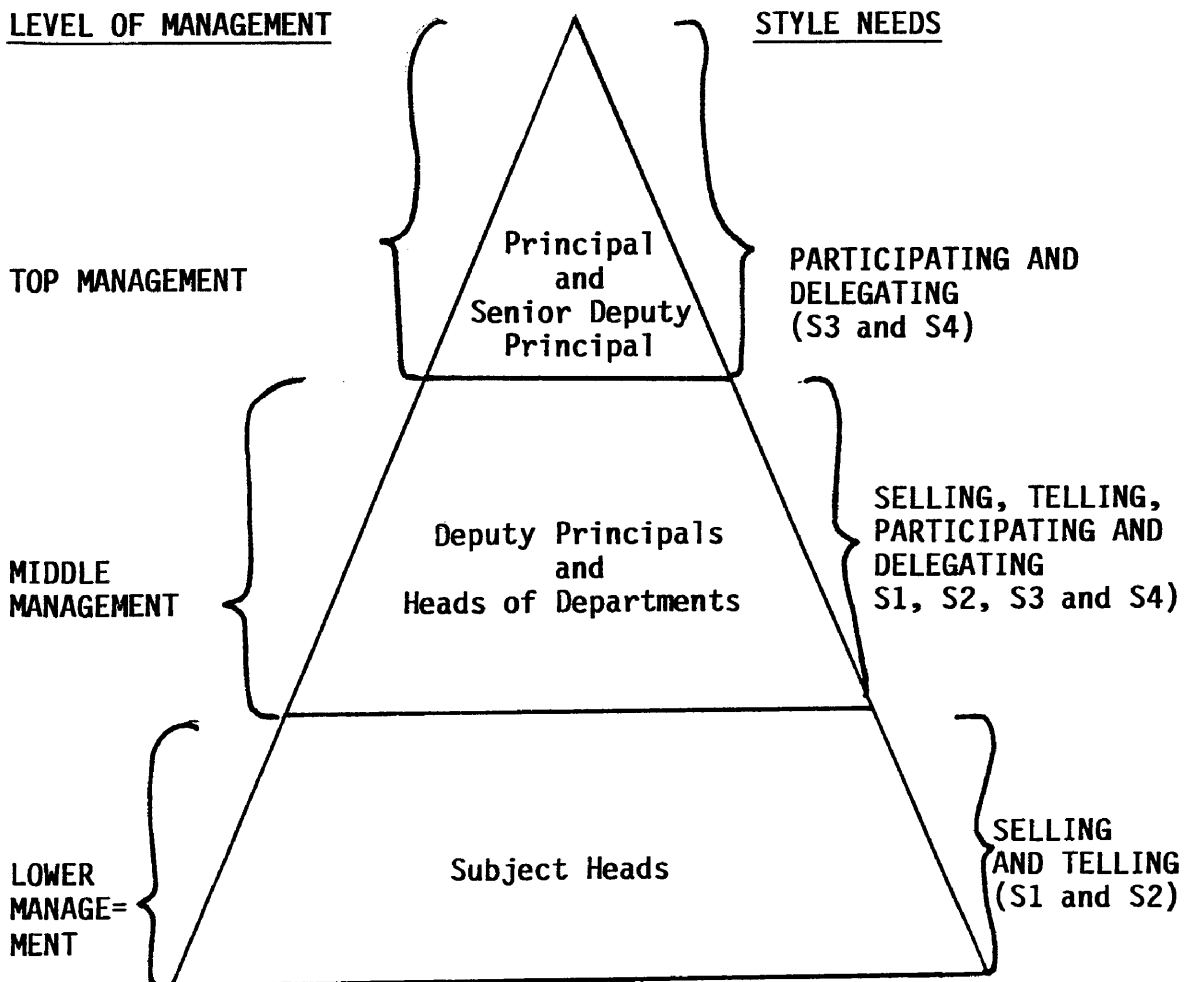


FIGURE 5-3: Style needs for different levels of management  
Adapted from: Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 156)

## 5. CONTRACTING FOR LEADERSHIP STYLES IN A SCHOOL

Hersey, Blanchard and Hambleton (1977 : 11) emphasize three important aspects relating to the negotiation of leadership style:

- The contract for leadership style should be an "open" contract, i.e. can be opened for renegotiation by either party.
- It implies a shared responsibility if objectives are not met, which means that if a manager has contracted for close supervision, he cannot withhold help from his subordinate without sharing some of the responsibility for lack of accomplishing the objective.
- It is not always appropriate for the manager to engage in a joint process of objective-setting, because this approach may not lead to the best results with subordinates at either end of the maturity continuum.

### 5.1 Who determines the leadership style of the education leader?

It is essential that education leaders share the concept of Situational Leadership with their management team and their staff. The staff quickly understand that if they behave in a mature, responsible manner, the education leader will either leave them alone (S4) or provide the necessary support. They then realize that it is their behaviour that determines the leadership style of the education leader. When the staff know what is expected of them, they will gradually develop into more responsible, self-motivated persons. Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 258) however point out that "... this is effective only if managers are consistent (that is, they treat their people in the same way in similar circumstances), even when it is inconvenient and/or unpopular with their people."

## 5.2 MBO and contracting for leadership style

George Odiorne, a pioneer in articulating MBO as a system of management, defines it as:

**"A management process whereby the supervisor and the subordinate, operating with a clear definition of the organizational goals and priorities established by top management, jointly identify the individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him or her, and use their measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contributions of each of its members."** GIEGOLD (1978 : 2).

From this definition it is clear that MBO offers tremendous potential as a participatory management approach, but problems developed when this approach was implemented. Hersey et al (1977 : 3) contend that there has been a major missing link, namely contracting for leadership style. They explain this contention as follows:

**"In most MBO programs, an effort is made only for managers and their subordinates to reach agreement on performance goals; there is little attention given to developing 'contracts' between managers and their subordinates regarding the role of managers in helping their subordinates accomplish the negotiated objectives."**

Once the education leader and the teacher have agreed on specific objectives for the teacher, a S4 style (delegating) is adopted in supervising the work of that teacher. This management style can only be effective if the teacher is highly motivated as well as experienced in his/her task, i.e. maturity level M4. Unfortunately, this is not always applicable because most teachers will be at different maturity levels for different task-related objectives. It is therefore necessary that after specific objectives for a teacher

are established, the education leader and the teacher must negotiate the proper leadership style to be used to help the teacher accomplish each objective.

### 5.3 Staff evaluation and Situational Leadership

School principals are required to do class visits for merit assessment purposes as well as staff supervision and staff development. Because teachers vary in experience and competence, their need for supervision will also vary. Therefore, it often happens that the highly motivated, experienced teacher interprets a minimum amount of supervision as a lack of interest on the part of the principal. On the other hand, the inexperienced teacher very often feels that frequent visits by the principal denotes lack of trust or confidence in his/her work. The result is that teachers on both ends of the maturity scale are inclined to regard supervision by the education leader in a negative light. These problems are experienced by all staff in a supervisory position, i.e. deputy principals, heads of departments as well as subject heads.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 261) found that these problems were eliminated when the principal shared Situational Leadership with his staff. When the teachers realized what was expected from them, they negotiated what the principal's management style should be with each one. This meant that the principal and the highly motivated, experienced teacher could agree on a low relationship/low task style (S4), where the teacher could work on his/her own and where infrequent visits by the principal would suffice. The teacher then perceived a visit by the principal as recognition and positive motivation, where the principal could use One Minute Manager praise (a recent management technique of Blanchard et al) to reward the deserving teacher.

This same contract for leadership style is applicable to the inexperienced teacher, especially the beginner-teacher. They quickly realize that they need initial close supervision and direction until they are capable of working on their own. They then perceive this leadership style in a positive sense and are more willing to share their problems relating to their teaching task with the education leader.

A common problem that occurs in the school evaluation system is that many principals are usually effective in letting staff members know that performance problems exist, but they neglect to help staff members determine why these problems exist. This indicates that principals need to become more effective in problem analysis or diagnosis. It also emphasizes the need for effective management training of individuals in promotion posts. Paul Hersey and Marshall Goldsmith (1980 : 40) developed an Achievement Model, which includes seven variables related to effective performance management, viz.

- A - Ability
- C - Clarity
- H - Help
- I - Incentive
- E - Evaluation
- V - Validity
- E - Environment

These seven factors can be explained as follows:

- Ability:** If the member of staff has an ability problem, specific training, formal educational courses or a re-assignment of duties may solve the problem.
- Clarity:** Clarity or understanding may pose a problem, but can be solved by formally recorded objectives and opportunities for the staff member to ask questions.

- Help:** A lack of organizational support, e.g. lack of equipment or facilities create a problem for staff. If these resources cannot be acquired, the principal must revise objectives in order to avoid holding the staff member responsible for these circumstances.
- Incentive:** Sometimes the motivation to complete a task successfully is a problem for the teacher. The principal can solve this problem by recognition of work well-done as well as an on-going process of evaluation.
- Evaluation:** An evaluation problem in the school is usually caused by a lack of regular feedback on both effective and ineffective performance. Recognition, support and feedback from the principal usually solves this problem.
- Validity:** To solve this problem the principal must ensure that all decisions related to the teaching staff are based on the law of education, education policy and performance-oriented criteria.

They highlighted an important aspect, namely feedback, which they called evaluation. This is a very important aspect in the principal's evaluation function, because teachers need to know how well they are doing on an on-going basis. Many principals tend to focus on the problem areas and forget to recognize when things are going well. (Refer to ONE-MINUTE MANAGER). In the school situation recognition for a job well-done is a vital part of the on-going evaluation process, which will increase staff motivation.

This method of evaluation or performance management is based on the philosophy of Situational Leadership, i.e. that there is no "one best" way to solve human resource problems. The principal should use the problem-solving strategy that best fits the needs of staff members in their unique situations.

## 6. CONCLUSION

It is of paramount importance that education leaders must realize their responsibility to develop the task-relevant maturity of the teachers on their staff. Principals are responsible for developing their teachers into "**winner**s" and this is what the Situational Leadership developmental cycle is all about - it is a growth cycle. It is important, however, to point out that principals must be consistent at all times, which means using the same style for all similar situations and varying the style appropriately as the situation changes.

## CHAPTER VI

### APPLICATION OF SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP

In order to determine the appropriate leadership style to be used with a person in a given situation, the following steps should be taken:

- Decide on what areas of an individual or group's activities should be influenced.
  - Determine the ability and motivation or maturity level of the individual or group in each of the selected areas.
  - Decide which of the four leadership styles would be appropriate with this individual or group in these areas.
- Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 156).

It is important that the principal realize that style adaptability is of paramount importance in dealing with the staff. This emphasizes the importance of the principal's diagnostic skills in order to determine the correct style for the specific situation.

#### 1. SITUATIONS DETERMINING THE SELECTION OF A MANAGEMENT STYLE

In this section ten situations, which are adapted to the school situation from the LEAD-questionnaire, are analysed and discussed. Two situations are left out because they concern structural aspects, usually not within the direct jurisdiction of the education leader.

##### SITUATION 1

The deputy principal is responsible for good relations amongst staff and acts as liaison between the headmaster and staff members. He makes a special effort to converse with all members of staff; keeps track of personal problems and/or achievements, e.g. children of staff members. Suddenly he is cold-shouldered and receives no feedback from a certain group of staff members. The same group show a declining interest in their teaching duties.



### **Diagnosis**

The deputy principal may be seen by the group as too permissive as a result of his high degree of relationship behaviour. The specific group of staff members show a decline in their task maturity level.

### **Appropriate leadership style**

The deputy principal should adopt a high task/low relationship (S1) style until the performance of the group improves, when a high task/high relationship (S2) style would become more appropriate.

### **SITUATION 2**

The newly appointed Head of Department for Natural Sciences set recorded, realistic objectives for the improvement of the academic standards of Mathematics, Physical Sciences and Biology. After six months the observable performance of the teachers in this department increased notably.

### **Diagnosis**

The teachers in this department accepted the high task/low relationship (S1) behaviour of the head of department and responded well to this leadership style. The task maturity of these teachers are gradually increasing.

### **Appropriate leadership style**

The head of department should turn to a high task/high relationship (S2) style, whereby he would engage in friendly interaction but at the same time ensure that all the teachers are aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.

### **SITUATION 3**

The principal requested his Executive staff to solve the problem of a fair allocation of extra-mural duties. He left these teachers to solve the problem on their own, because group performance and inter-personal relations have always been good. The Executive staff however, are unable to solve the problem by themselves.

### **Diagnosis**

The Executive staff, which rated high on the maturity scale in the past, are unable to solve the problem on their own. They need the assistance of the principal to facilitate solving this problem.

### **Appropriate leadership style**

The principal should revert to a high relationship/low task (S3) style, which means that the Executive staff can still find their own solution to the problem, but the principal will be available to provide any assistance, if necessary.

### **SITUATION 4**

The subject head for Geography has been instructed by the relevant head of department to implement the new syllabi for this subject. Luckily the Geography teachers have performed very well in the past and they respect the necessity of introducing this change.

### **Diagnosis**

The staff members rate high on the task maturity scale and are motivated to implement the necessary change.

### **Appropriate leadership style**

This subject head should adopt a low relationship/low task (S4) style, which would allow the experienced teachers to formulate their own direction and would also ensure maximum involvement of these teachers to implement the changed syllabi.

### **SITUATION 5**

The deputy principal responsible for the teaching of Religious Instruction in the school has a problem with the performance of the teachers teaching this subject. These teachers are not making the objectives set at the beginning of the year and never hand in their work on time.

### **Diagnosis**

These teachers are immature in terms of willingness and experience because most of them are not qualified or interested in teaching the subject - therefore productivity is decreasing and the objectives are not met.

### **Appropriate style of leadership**

The deputy principal has a difficult task and will have to revert to a directive leadership style, i.e. high task/low relationship (S1). It is important that he redefine tasks and responsibilities very clearly and that he supervise carefully in the beginning. As soon as these teachers begin to mature, a high task/high relationship (S2) behaviour may be a more appropriate style.

### **SITUATION 6**

When Mr. Brown was appointed principal, he inherited an efficiently run school with good results. The previous principal was known for his tight control of all aspects regarding the school. The new principal intended to maintain the standard of achievement but at the same time wanted to introduce a more human element into the set-up.

### **Diagnosis**

The teaching staff of this school is familiar with, and responded well to high task behaviour. The staff is not used to relationship-orientated behaviour and will need gradual increases in socio-emotional support to become a more mature group.

### **Appropriate style of leadership**

A high task/high relationship (S2) style would be appropriate for the principal in the beginning. In this way task-directed behaviour is maintained while socio-emotional support and group responsibility are increased, when the principal gradually involves the staff in the decision-making process.

## **SITUATION 7**

After two years as Head of Department, Humanities, Mr. Greene has built-up a group of teachers who are highly motivated and experienced members of staff. They are performing very well and the inter-personal relations in the department are very good. Mr. Greene is unsure and worried about the lack of direction he gives to these teachers.

### **Diagnosis**

The teachers in this department rate high on the maturity scale as a result of their achievements and interpersonal relations. Therefore the problem is not within the group but correlates with the insecurity of the head of department, which is projected to the group.

### **Appropriate style of leadership**

This head of department should follow a low relationship/low task (S4) style to allow the teachers to continue on their own, providing their own structure and socio-emotional support. There is no need for this head of department to intervene.

## **SITUATION 8**

The principal appointed the deputy principal, in charge of the girls, to lead a committee investigating a change in school uniform. This committee is far overdue in making any recommendations; is not clear on its goals; has had poor attendance at meetings, which turned into social gatherings, but has the potential necessary to function effectively.

### **Diagnosis**

The low level of performance and low concern for the accomplishment of the task clearly indicate that this committee rates low on the maturity scale. It is emphasized though, that the individual members of the committee potentially have the talent to help.

### **Appropriate style of leadership**

This deputy principal will have to redefine goals, set specific objectives and supervise the progress of the committee carefully. This indicates a high task/low relationship (S1) style until the committee begins to accomplish its goals.

### **SITUATION 9**

The subject head is promoted to a head of department post. The previous head of department did not involve himself in the affairs of the department. The teachers in this department worked well and met the objectives set for them. The relations among the teachers in the department are good.

### **Diagnosis**

The teachers in this department are used to working on their own. They displayed a moderate to high maturity level revealed by their achievement and inter-personal relations.

### **Appropriate style of leadership**

The newly-appointed Head of Department will have to follow a high relationship/low task (S3) style in order to involve the teachers in decision-making and to reinforce good contributions. It is also essential for this person to ensure that all communication channels are open to establish his position as leader and to promote meaningful communication.

### **SITUATION 10**

The principal becomes aware of internal friction and discord amongst the members of his staff. There is little staff turnover and the present staff group has worked extremely well; achieved remarkable results and has worked together in harmony for at least the past year. All staff members are well-qualified for their teaching responsibilities.

## Diagnosis

This teaching staff as a group rates high on the maturity scale as is evidenced by their achievement and harmonious co-operation. The problem seems to be of a temporary nature.

## Appropriate style of leadership

The principal should allow the staff members to work out their problem by themselves. This would entail a low relationship/low task (S4) style, whereby the group can maintain independence. If, however, the difficulties continue or intensify, alternative leadership styles, e.g. high relationship/low task (S3) should be considered.

## 2. A MODEL TO FACILITATE THE SELECTION OF A MANAGEMENT STYLE

### 2.1 Composition

Schein (1980 : 112) displays an interesting flow-chart depicting the components of a leadership situation.

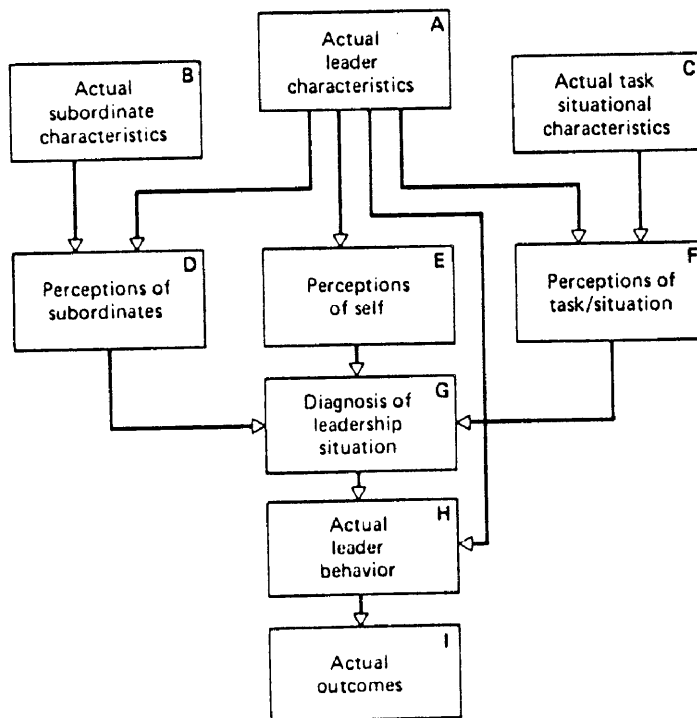


FIGURE 6-1: Components of a leadership situation

This model is based on Box A, B and C, i.e. the leader, subordinates or followers and the task. Although Situational Leadership mainly emphasizes the behaviour of the leader in relation to the followers, it is necessary to take the task into consideration as well, because the leader rates the follower on the maturity scale according to his/her ability to meet the demands of the task.

#### 2.1.1 **The Education Leader**

When considering this component it is suggested that the following variables be taken into account, viz. experience; diagnostic ability; correct analysis of the situation; adaptability and consistency.

#### 2.1.2 **The Teacher (follower)**

Important variables to be considered in connection with this component are qualifications; training, experience and task maturity.

#### 2.1.3 **Task**

Variables related to the task are inter alia, structure; complexity, clear objectives and the time limit.

It is postulated that if the above-mentioned variables are taken into consideration by the education leader, he or she will be able to utilize high-probability leadership styles based on the various combinations of task behaviour and relationship behaviour, presented in the Situational Leadership Model.

### 3. **RECOMMENDATIONS**

The following have been identified as possible areas of research:

- \*An empirical study to ascertain whether education leaders who apply Situational Leadership
  - are more effective managers;
  - have a better motivated staff; and
  - are more successful in staff training and development.

\*The development of a structural model based on the components of the leadership situation.

\*The implementation of in-service training courses for all teachers in promotion posts.

It is also recommended that assessment centres be established to evaluate the performance of education leaders in order to facilitate management training.



## SUMMARY

### CONDITIONS DETERMINING THE SELECTION OF EDUCATION MANAGEMENT STYLES

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The current technological development has led to an increase in the complexity of reality which in turn has complicated the task of the education leader as manager.

The education leader has become a personnel manager responsible for the management of both staff and pupil activities in order to realize the school's objectives effectively. These tendencies indicate that the education leader must be capable of adapting his management style to the needs of his staff in order to be able to increase the productivity of his staff. The education leader must also have the necessary flexibility to select from a variety of management styles according to the demands of the specific situation.

Situational Leadership is ideally suited to meet the demands of the task of the education leader, because it accommodates the level of task maturity of each staff member. The emphasis is placed on the relationship between the leader and the follower with the needs of the follower as the most crucial factor in the relationship.

Three aspects are essential for successful Situational Leadership, viz., the correct amount of task behaviour or direction by the leader; the correct amount of relationship behaviour or support by the leader correlating with the level of task maturity of the followers. However, other situational variables, such as superiors, the organization and time must also be taken into consideration.

Situational Leadership also makes provision for contracting for a leadership style whereby the education leader and the teacher come to an agreement about the appropriate leadership style to be used to help the teacher accomplish his/her objectives.

The developmental aspect of Situational Leadership provides the means by which the education leader can contribute meaningfully to the development of his staff, e.g. leadership potential, motivation, morale, commitment to objectives, decision-making, communication and problem solving.

## SAMEVATTING

### VOORWAARDES VIR DIE KEUSE VAN ONDERWYS-BESTUURSTYLE

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Die huidige tegnologiese ontwikkeling het gelei tot 'n toename in die kompleksiteit van die werklikheid wat op sy beurt die taak van die onderwysbestuurder gekompliseer het.

Die onderwysleier het 'n personeelbestuurder geword wat verantwoordelik is vir die bestuur van personeel sowel as leerling-aktiwiteite ten einde die doelwitte van die skool effektief te realiseer. Hierdie tendense dui aan dat die onderwysleier in staat moet wees om sy bestuurstyl by die behoeftes van sy personeel aan te pas om sodoende die produktiwiteit van sy personeel te verhoog. Die onderwysleier moet verder ook oor die nodige soepelheid beskik om 'n keuse te maak uit 'n verskeidenheid bestuurstyle om by die vereistes van 'n spesifieke situasie aan te pas.

Situasie Leierskap is by uitnemendheid geskik om aan die vereistes wat aan die taak van die onderwysleier gestel word te voldoen, aangesien dit voorsiening maak vir die taak-volwassenheid van elke personeellid. Die klem word geplaas op die verhouding tussen die leier en sy volgelinge met die behoeftes van die volgelinge as die belangrikste faktor in hierdie verhouding.

Drie aspekte word as essensieel beskou vir suksesvolle Situasielierskap, naamlik die korrekte hoeveelheid taakgedrag of rigtinggewing deur die leier; die korrekte hoeveelheid verhoudingsgedrag of ondersteuning deur die leier in ooreenstemming met die vlak van taakvolwassenheid van die volgelinge. Die ander veranderlikes wat betrekking het op die situasie soos werkgewers, die organisasie en tyd moet egter ook in aanmerking geneem word.

Situasie Leierskap maak ook voorsiening vir onderhandeling met betrekking tot 'n leierskapstyl wanneer die onderwysleier en die onderwyser ooreenkom watter leierskapstyl die mees gepaste sou wees om die onderwyser te help om sy/haar doelwitte te realiseer.

Die ontwikkelingsaspek van Situasie Leierskap verskaf die middel waardeur die onderwysleier sinvol kan bydra tot die ontwikkeling van sy personeel, byvoorbeeld leierskap potensiaal, motivering, moraal, doelwit-betrokkenheid, besluitneming, kommunikasie en probleem-oplossing.

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LEAST PREFERRED COWORKER (LPC) SCALE

Pleasant	_____	Unpleasant	_____
	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1		
Friendly	_____	Unfriendly	_____
	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1		
Rejecting	_____	Accepting	_____
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8		
Tense	_____	Relaxed	_____
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8		
Distant	_____	Close	_____
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8		
Cold	_____	Warm	_____
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8		
Supportive	_____	Hostile	_____
	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1		
Boring	_____	Interesting	_____
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8		
Quarrelsome	_____	Harmonious	_____
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8		
Gloomy	_____	Cheerful	_____
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8		
Open	_____	Guarded	_____
	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1		
Backbiting	_____	Loyal	_____
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8		
Untrustworthy	_____	Trustworthy	_____
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8		
Inconsiderate	_____	Inconsiderate	_____
	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1		
Nasty	_____	Nice	_____
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8		
Agreeable	_____	Disagreeable	_____
	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1		
Insincere	_____	Sincere	_____
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8		
Kind	_____	Unkind	_____
	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1		

## APPENDIX B

### LEAD-SELF QUESTIONNAIRE

SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
<p>1. Your subordinates are not responding lately to your friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is in a tailspin.</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.</p> <p>C. Talk with subordinates and then set goals.</p> <p>D. Intentionally do not intervene.</p>
<p>2. The observable performance of your group is increasing. You have been making sure that all members were aware of their roles and standards.</p>	<p>A. Engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure that all members are aware of their roles and standards.</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>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>A. Involve 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 available for discussion.</p>
<p>4. You are considering a major change. Your subordinates have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.</p>	<p>A. Allow group involvement in developing the change, but don't push.</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>

SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
<p>5. The performance of your group has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their task done on time.</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 goals and supervise carefully.</p> <p>D. Allow group involvement in setting goals, but don't push.</p>
<p>6. You stepped into an efficiently run situation. The previous administrator ran a tight ship. You want to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment.</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>7. You are considering major changes in your organizational structure. Members of the group have made suggestions about needed change. The group has demonstrated flexibility in its day-to-day operations.</p>	<p>A. Define the change and supervise carefully.</p> <p>B. Acquire group's approval on the change and allow members to organize the implementation.</p> <p>C. Be willing to make changes as recommended, but maintain control of implementation.</p> <p>D. Avoid confrontation; leave things alone.</p>
<p>8. Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. You feel somewhat unsure about your lack of direction of the group.</p>	<p>A. Leave the group alone.</p> <p>B. Discuss the situation with the group and then initiate necessary changes.</p> <p>C. Take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner.</p> <p>D. Be careful of hurting boss-subordinate relations by being too directive.</p>

SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
<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>A. Let the group work it out.</p> <p>B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.</p> <p>C. Redefine goals and supervise carefully.</p> <p>D. Allow group involvement in setting goals, but don't push.</p>
<p>10. Your subordinates, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to your recent redefining of standards.</p>	<p>A. Allow group involvement in redefining standards, but don't push.</p> <p>B. Redefine standards and supervise carefully.</p> <p>C. Avoid confrontation by not applying pressure.</p> <p>D. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that new standards are met.</p>
<p>11. You have been promoted to a new position. The previous supervisor was uninvolved in the affairs of the group. The group has adequately handled its tasks and direction. Group interrelations are good.</p>	<p>A. Take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner.</p> <p>B. Involve subordinates in decision-making and reinforce good contributions.</p> <p>C. Discuss past performance with group and then you examine the need for new practices.</p> <p>D. Continue to leave group alone.</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>A. Try out your solution with subordinates and examine the need for new practices.</p> <p>B. Allow group members to work it out themselves.</p> <p>C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.</p> <p>D. Make yourself available for discussion, but be careful of hurting boss-subordinate relations.</p>

## APPENDIX C

### LEAD OTHER QUESTIONNAIRE

SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
<p>1. Subordinates are not corresponding lately to this leader's friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is declining rapidly.</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>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><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 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>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><i>This leader would ...</i></p> <p>A. work with the group and together engage in problem-solving</p> <p>B. let die 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>

SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
<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><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>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><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>6. This leader stepped into an efficiently run organization. The previous administrator rightly controlled the situation. The leader wants to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment.</p>	<p><i>This leader would ...</i></p> <p>A. do what could be done to make the 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>



SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
<p>7. 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><i>This leader would ...</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>A. define the change and supervise carefully</li> <li>B. participate with the group in developing the change but allow members to organize the implementation</li> <li>C. be willing to make changes as recommended, but maintain control of implementation</li> <li>D. avoid confrontation; leave things alone.</li> </ul>
<p>8. Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. This leader feels somewhat unsure about his lack of direction of the group.</p>	<p><i>This leader would ...</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>A. leave the group alone</li> <li>B. discuss the situation with the group and then he would initiate necessary changes</li> <li>C. take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner</li> <li>D. be supportive in discussing the situation with the group but not too directive.</li> </ul>
<p>9. 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><i>This leader would ...</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>A. let the group work out its problems</li> <li>B. incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met</li> <li>C. redefine goals and supervise carefully</li> <li>D. allow group involvement in setting goals, but would not push.</li> </ul>

SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
<p>10. Subordinates, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to the leader's recent redefining of standards.</p>	<p><i>This leader would ...</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>A. allow group involvement in redefining standards, but would not take control</li> <li>B. redefine standards and supervise carefully</li> <li>C. avoid confrontation by not applying pressure; leave situation alone</li> <li>D. incorporate group recommendations, but see that new standards are met.</li> </ul>
<p>11. 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><i>This leader would ...</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>A. take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner</li> <li>B. involve subordinates in decision-making and reinforce good contributions</li> <li>C. discuss past performance with group and then examine the need for new practices</li> <li>D. continue to leave the group alone.</li> </ul>
<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><i>This leader would ...</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>A. try out his solution with subordinates and examine the need for new practices</li> <li>B. allow group members to work it out themselves</li> <li>C. act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect</li> <li>D. participate in problem discussion while providing support for subordinates.</li> </ul>

## APPENDIX D

### SCORE SHEET FOR DETERMINING LEADERSHIP STYLE AND STYLE RANGE

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<b>SITUATIONS</b>	1	A	C	B	D
	2	D	A	C	B
	3	C	A	D	B
	4	B	D	A	C
	5	C	B	D	A
	6	B	D	A	C
	7	A	C	B	D
	8	C	B	D	A
	9	C	B	D	A
	10	B	D	A	C
	11	A	C	B	D
	12	C	A	D	B
<b>Sub-Columns</b>		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

## APPENDIX E

### SCORE SHEET FOR DETERMINING STYLE ADAPTABILITY

		ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS			
		A	B	C	D
<b>SITUATIONS</b>	1	+2	-1	+1	-2
	3	+1	-1	-2	+2
	4	+1	-2	+2	-1
	5	-2	+1	+2	-1
	6	-1	+1	-2	+2
	7	-2	+2	-1	+1
	8	+2	-1	-2	+1
	9	-2	+1	+2	-1
	10	+1	-2	-1	+2
	11	-2	+2	-1	+1
	12	-1	+2	-2	+1
	<b>Subtotal:</b>		+	+	+
		=		<b>Total</b>	

