

AN EMPIRICAL VERIFICATION OF
FIEDLER'S LEADERSHIP CONTINGENCY MODEL

by

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ABSTRACT

This study, conducted in elementary schools on Vancouver Island, attempted to determine whether the Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness, proposed by Fiedler (1967a), would predict the effect of experience on the effectiveness of elementary school principals.

Research has shown that performance is not always improved by experience. The performance of some leaders is improved, and that of others is impaired, by experience. The Contingency Model predicts that an interaction between the leader's leadership style and his years of experience can account for this phenomenon. More specifically, it predicts that among elementary school principals those with a "relationship-oriented" leadership style will lead more effective schools while they are relatively new to the job, and, that principals with a "task-oriented" style will lead more effective schools as they become more established in their positions (Fiedler, 1972b).

This relationship between leadership style, experience and effectiveness was found to exist in Alberta schools by McNamara (1968). The present study attempted to validate those findings and extend them to schools in

British Columbia. If such a relationship could be confirmed it would have very important implications for the theory and practice of appointing and transferring school administrators.

Leadership style was measured by the Least Preferred Coworker Questionnaire (Fiedler, 1967a). Effectiveness of schools, on broadly stated criteria, was determined by school district supervisory staff who volunteered as raters. Data was collected in six Vancouver Island school districts in May and June, 1974.

Hypotheses testing the predictions mentioned above were examined by analysis of variance. Findings failed to support the Contingency Model predictions, in fact, they tended to suggest that the opposite relationship might exist.

Examiners:



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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Researchers in the problem area of leadership have found that experience and leadership training appear to have no systematic effect on organizational performance (Stogdill, 1974; Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick, 1970; Fiedler, 1970; House, 1967; Fleishman, Harris and Burt, 1955). Some leaders seem to become more effective with experience and training, while others become less effective.

Fiedler (1972) suggested a possible explanation for this phenomenon. The Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness developed by him postulates that a certain matching of leader personality and leadership situation is necessary for optimum group performance. This matching may be improved or it may be impaired by experience or training, thus group performance may be similarly improved or impaired.

The personality trait in question is the leader's expressed esteem for his least preferred co-worker (LPC). Leaders with relatively high esteem for their least preferred co-worker (high-LPC) are basically motivated to develop close personal relations with others. In stressful

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situations they approach the group task through "relationship-oriented" behaviour. Leaders who describe their least preferred co-worker in unfavourable terms (low-LPC) exhibit more direct "task-oriented" behaviour.

Defined variables
(parameters, concepts)
used in building the
structure of the
theory

Leadership situations may be categorized as being "more favourable" or "less favourable" for the execution of leadership acts. The Contingency Model postulates that in situations that are either very favourable or very unfavourable, low-LPC leaders will perform best, while high-LPC leaders will tend to perform best in situations that are of intermediate favourableness. In situations that are very favourable to the leader the more effective leader will be the one who becomes involved in more direct task-oriented behaviour. Likewise in situations that are very unfavourable, the more effective leader will be the one whose behaviour bears directly on the task to be accomplished. However, in situations that are only moderately favourable to the leader, the more effective leader will be the one who approaches the task through "relationship-oriented" behaviour.

The favourableness of a situation, indicating the degree of power and influence the situation gives to the leader, is defined by three factors -

- (a) leader-member relations,
- (b) task structure, and
- (c) position power of the leader.

operationalized, specified as

A very favourable situation would be one in which the leader is accepted by the group, has a structured task and has high position power (e.g. a well liked grounds supervisor telling his men how to mark a football field). A very unfavourable situation would be one in which a disliked leader with little power had an unstructured task (e.g. a disliked chairman of a volunteer group discussing new curriculum designs).

Experience and training may be looked upon as factors which increase the favourableness of the situation for the leader. Research indicates that leaders' LPC scores remain relatively constant (Fiedler, 1967a). Therefore, as the favourability of the situation changes due to experience or training and the leader's LPC remains constant, the match of LPC and situation favourableness may be changed by experience and training. This change may produce an improved match of LPC and situation favourableness in some cases but also an impaired match in other cases, resulting in improved group performance for some leaders and a deterioration in performance for others.

The Contingency Model has been validated by studies by Rice and Chemers (1973), Chemers and Skrzypek (1973), and Csoka and Fiedler (1972).

Statement of the Problem

In the field of education no studies have been designed specifically to test whether or not the Contingency Model accurately predicts a relationship between performance and experience. McNamara (1968) working with schools at every level in the province of Alberta attempted to validate the basic Contingency Model. He found little evidence to support the Model. However, in an *ex post facto* analysis of the data he did find that the number of years experience of the principal at his present school was an important intervening variable in the LPC-effectiveness relationship.

He found that in elementary schools, among newly appointed principals, those with high-LPC had more effective schools; among established principals those with low-LPC had more effective schools. In secondary schools he found that the opposite relationship existed. Among newly appointed principals those with low-LPC were more effective, while among established principals those with high-LPC were more effective.

The purpose of the present study will be to test *a priori* hypotheses relating effectiveness with principals' LPC and experience in elementary schools in British Columbia. The study will attempt to validate McNamara's findings and extend their validity to elementary schools in British Columbia and at the same time lend support to the Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness.

Delimitation

This study is concerned only with the principal's years of experience in his present school, the principal's esteem for his least preferred co-worker (LPC) and the relationship of these two factors to the effectiveness of the school. The schools concerned are public elementary schools on Vancouver Island, British Columbia.

Assumptions

It is assumed that

1. school staffs are relatively similar in their potential for effective operation, and
2. principals' intelligence is randomly distributed over the sample.

Definition of Terms

The terms defined in this section have been used throughout this study to convey the following meanings:

Interacting group. A group in which the members work cooperatively and interdependently on a common task. In these groups it is usually difficult to assign credit for good team performance to any one member as the success of the group depends on each member doing his part, e.g. a basketball team.

Coacting group. A group in which the members work on a

common task but each member does his job relatively independently of the others, e.g. sales personnel in a department store.

Counteracting group. A group in which the members work together for the purpose of negotiating or reconciling opposing opinions or points of view. Each member works towards his own or his party's ends at the expense of the other members, e.g. union-management salary bargaining groups.

The groups that are the primary consideration of this study are the staffs of elementary schools and these are considered as coacting groups.

Leader. The leader is defined as "the individual in the group given the task of directing and coordinating task relevant group activities or who, in the absence of a designated leader, carries the primary responsibility for performing these functions in the group." (Fiedler, 1967a, p. 8). In this study the leader is operationally defined as the legally appointed principal of the elementary school in question.

Leadership effectiveness. The performance of the group on its primary task, in this case the education of students. This is operationally defined in terms of the mean of the ratings given a school by the

appointed raters.

LPC. The esteem an individual expresses for his least preferred co-worker, operationally defined in this study as the individual's score on the LPC Questionnaire (Fiedler 1967a, pp. 40-41).

Leadership style Leaders with a high-LPC score have a "relationship-oriented" style; those with a low-LPC score have a "task-oriented" style (Fiedler, 1967a). In this study the operational definition of high-LPC and low-LPC will be respectively a score above or below the median score of the sample.

Experience. The number of years a principal has been principal of his present school.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This study is concerned with the validity of the Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness as a predictor of the effect of experience on the effectiveness of elementary school principals. Therefore, this review of literature will attempt to describe the Contingency Model and review a number of criticisms. Literature on the ability of the Model to predict the effect of leadership training and experience will be considered. A review of a study on the Contingency Model in schools will identify the point of origin of the present study and complete the chapter.

The Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness

In 1967, Fiedler, in his book, *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*, summarized the results of fifteen years of research on the concept of leadership effectiveness. The theory proposed by Fiedler is called the "Contingency Model". The Model postulates an interaction between the leader's style of leadership and the favourableness of the group situation for the leader. More specifically, it

states that a "task oriented" leadership style will be more effective in situations which are either very favourable or very unfavourable to the leader, and that a "relationship oriented" style will be more effective in situations that are moderately favourable to the leader.

This Model is based on empirical work involving a broad range of leaders and situations. These include high school basketball teams, student surveying parties, B-29 bomber crews, army tank crews, anti-aircraft artillery crews, infantry squads, combat engineer squads, sales display teams, gasoline service station crews, open hearth steel shop crews, cooperative sales companies, Dutch and American university students, church discussion groups and Navy ROTC groups.

The main terms of the Model are defined below.

A. Group. Fiedler (1967a) is concerned with groups which exist to perform a particular task or tasks. He subdivides these into:

(a) Interacting groups. Groups in which the members work co-operatively and interdependently on a common task. In these groups it is usually difficult to assign credit for good team performance to any one member as the success of the group depends on each member doing his part, e.g. a basketball team.

- (b) Coacting groups. These groups also work on a common task but each member does his job relatively independently of the other members, e.g. sales personnel in a department store.
- (c) Counteracting groups. Group members work together for the purpose of negotiating or reconciling opposing opinions or points of view. Each member works towards his own or his party's ends at the expense of the other members, e.g. union-management salary bargaining groups.
- B. Leader. The leader is defined as "the individual in the group given the task of directing and coordinating task-relevant group activities or who, in the absence of a designated leader, carries the primary responsibility for performing these functions in the group". (Fiedler, 1967a, p. 8).
- C. Leadership effectiveness. Performance on the group's primary task is the criterion chosen by Fiedler (1967a).
- D. Leadership style. This is operationally defined as the leader's least preferred co-worker score (LPC). This score is obtained by asking the leader to describe the one person, in all of his experience, with whom he was least well able to work. The description is made on an eight-point semantic differential scale of 16 items (Appendix A). The LPC score is obtained by summing the item values, assigning the values from 8, to the

favourable pole on each scale, down to 1 to the unfavourable pole.

A high score indicates that the subject has described his least preferred co-worker in relatively favourable terms. A low score means that he has described his least preferred co-worker in a negative rejecting manner.

Fiedler visualized high-LPC individuals as people who derive their major satisfactions from successful personal relationships, while low-LPC people derive their major satisfactions from task performance.

E. Situation favourableness. The favourableness of the situation is the variable that moderates between LPC score and group performance. It is operationally defined in three dimensions:

- (a) Leader-member relations, measured by means of a sociometric preference rating or by a group atmosphere scale which is similar in form and content to the LPC scale, but asks the subject (leader) to rate his group as a whole (Appendix B).
- (b) Task structure, measured on a scale based on four of Shaw's (1963) dimensions, which indicates the extent to which the group task is structured or capable of being programmed. This scale has a reliability of from .80 to .88 (Appendix C).
- (c) Position power of the leader, the degree to which

the position itself enables the leader to get the group members to comply with and accept his direction and leadership. It is measured on an eighteen item checklist (Appendix D). Inter-rater agreement among four judges on 35 tasks was .95.

Of these three dimensions, leader-member relations is considered to be the most important.

Using these three dimensions situations may be classified as being above or below the median on each dimension. This yields an eight-celled classification scheme as shown in Figure 1.

Octant	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Leader-member relations	Good	Good	Good	Good	Moderately poor	Moderately poor	Moderately poor	Moderately poor
Task structure	Structured	Structured	Unstructured	Unstructured	Structured	Structured	Unstructured	Unstructured
Leader position power	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak

Figure 1. Cells, or octants, of situation favourableness. (Fiedler, 1973b, p. 471).

Each cell, or "octant", may be scaled in terms of how much power or influence a leader might have in such a situation. Obviously, a leader will have a very favourable position if he is well liked, the group has a

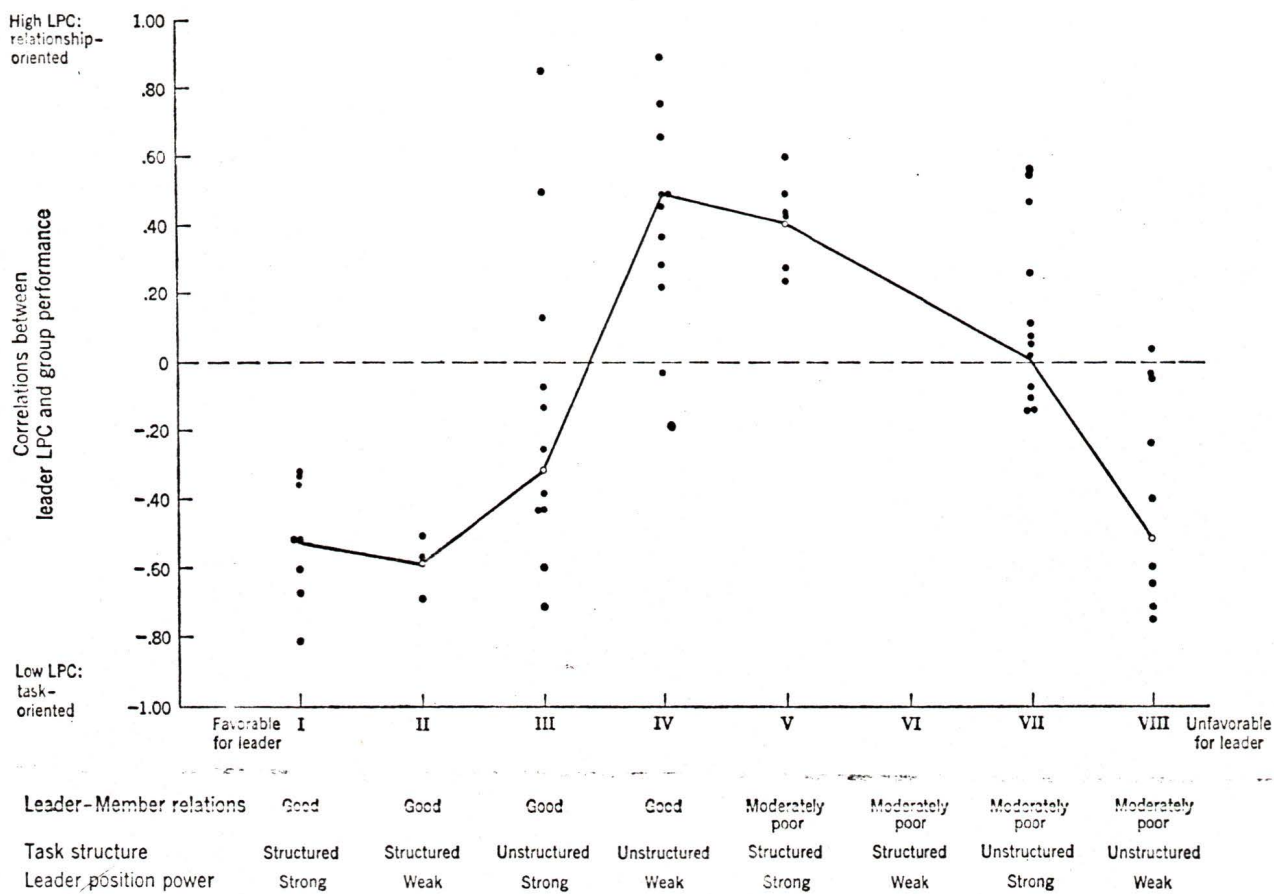
clear cut task and he has considerable power over group members - Octant I. Whereas, in Octant VIII, a person who is a disliked chairperson of a group involved in a creative task has a very unfavourable situation.

In fifteen studies on interacting groups completed prior to 1963 the groups were classified according to their situation favourableness. The correlation between group performance and leader LPC score was then calculated for each group. This correlation was plotted against situation favourableness. The median correlations in each octant were joined to generate the bow shaped curve shown in Figure 2.

This curve indicates that low-LPC leaders performed more effectively in situations that were either very favourable or very unfavourable; high-LPC leaders performed more effectively in situations of intermediate favourableness.

Summarizing these findings, Fiedler (1967a) concludes that the Contingency Model states,

that the group's performance will be contingent upon the appropriate matching of leadership style and the degree of favourableness of the group situation for the leader, that is, the degree to which the situation provides the leader with influence over his group members. The model suggests that group performance can therefore be improved by either modifying the leader's style or by modifying the group task situation (p. 151).



Correlations between leaders' LPC scores and group effectiveness plotted for each cell.

Figure 2. Correlations between leaders' LPC scores and group effectiveness plotted for each cell. Fiedler, 1967a, p. 146.

The results of numerous studies in both field and laboratory situations have provided strong support for the Contingency Model. For a review of these the reader is referred to Fiedler (1973b).

The Model has been extended to coacting groups. There is less data available to support the Model for these groups but indications are that the distinction between interacting and coacting task groups may not be

necessary but coacting training groups seem to follow a different pattern.

The results from task groups are highly consistent in showing that groups or organizations with structured tasks and high leader position power perform more effectively under low-LPC leaders when the group climate is rated as favourable, and more effectively under high-LPC leaders when group climate is unfavourable. Classifying coacting groups in the same manner as interacting groups indicates that the correlations are quite similar in the two octants for which data is available, namely Octants I and V. (Fiedler, 1973b, p. 483).

Criticism of the Contingency Model

The Model has been the subject of criticism in recent articles by Mitchell, Biglan, Onker and Fiedler (1970); Graen, Alvares, Orris and Martella (1970); Graen, Orris and Alvares (1971a, 1971b); McMahon (1972); and by Kerr and Harlan (1973). The main points of these criticisms will be reviewed.

A. LPC. McMahon (1972) points out that the construct LPC has not been convincingly explained and that therefore "the model will be viewed by many as raw empiricism without explanatory power expected from a theory" (p. 700).

Fiedler (1967a) and his colleagues have correlated LPC scores with biographical data, numerous response set

measures, personality measures, interpersonal perception measures and SCAT scores. The correlations between LPC and these other variables were, in every case, quite low. Fox et al. (1973) have factor analyzed LPC responses and identified five factors, namely: Hostile-Ineffective, Remote-Rejecting, Tense, Ineffective-Boring and Hesitant. Evans and Dermer (1974) have attempted to give a cognitive interpretation of LPC. The results of their study indicate that the low end of the LPC scale seems to be associated with cognitive simplicity while the high LPC subject may be either cognitively simple or complex.

Kerr and Harlan (1973) and McMahon (1972) question the reliability of LPC measures. Kerr and Harlan point out that "sizeable changes in LPC scores have been reported by Stinson and Tracy (1972)", (p. 116). Test-retest reliability quoted by Fiedler ranges from .35 to .70 (Fiedler, 1967a, p. 48). The lowest of these correlations were obtained on recruits during basic training. McNamara (1968) reported that LPC scores of elementary school principals remained constant over the period of one year.

- B. Leader-member relations. Both McMahon (1972) and Graen et al. (1970) have criticized the fact that group atmosphere is measured after the task has been completed and this allows the possibility of contamina-

tion with group performance.

Two different instruments have been used to determine the leader-member relations: (1) the leader's evaluation of the group atmosphere, and (2) the degree to which the leader is sociometrically chosen by the members. This procedure has been criticized by McMahon (1972) on the basis that no high degree of correlation between the two measures has been established. He points out that "Mitchell et al. (1970) report quite low intercorrelations" (p. 702). Similar results however have been obtained with both instruments.

The similarity between the LPC and group atmosphere instruments has been commented on by McMahon (1972). Some items have face similarity and the degree to which the instruments overlap remains to be determined. In the same article, the author comments on the importance of the influence of the leader and of his expert and referent power. These factors seem to have been ignored and he suggests that their inclusion in the leader-member relations questionnaire would sharpen its discriminatory power. He also thinks that attributes of the group, such as peer goal emphasis and peer work facilitation should be considered.

- C. Task structure. McMahon (1972) finds the structured-unstructured dichotomy an over-simplification.

- D. Position power. McMahon (1972) argues that position-power is not truly an independent variable but that it is related to the nature of the task. Further, he comments that, the position-power measure is contaminated by questions relating to other constructs. Items 8 and 15 (Appendix D) refer to the leaders expert power and as such they might better be considered in leader-member relations together with items 1, 2 and 7 which refer to the leader's charisma and referent power.
- E. Methodology. Graen et al. (1970) charge that the Belgian Navy Study (Fiedler, 1967a) which Fiedler designed as a crucial study to validate the Contingency Model represents a *post hoc* arrangement of research results. They refer to the fact that the study was designed so that each group would complete two structured and two unstructured tasks, but in the final analysis only one structured and one unstructured task were considered. The reason given by the researcher for the omission of those tasks was that they could not be reliably scored. The reason implied by the critics is that the data did not support the hypotheses.

Further, Graen et al. (1970) charged that the Model lacked substantial predictive validity. The authors based their conclusion on the opinion that investigation since its formal exposition had not strongly supported theoretical predictions. They quoted several studies to

support their position but placed the greatest weight on two of their own studies which failed to show the results predicted by the Model. They stressed that their experiments followed the procedures specified by Fiedler in developing the Contingency Model.

In replying to this criticism, Fiedler (1971) challenged the methodology of their experiments and pointed out that the manipulations involving situation favourableness were inadequate and that consequently their results did not present a challenge to the Model.

Chemers and Skrzypek (1972) defended the Model with a study involving strong manipulation of the situation favourableness variables in all eight octants. The rank order correlation between the points predicted by the Model and those obtained in their study yielded a rho of .86, $p < .05$; Pearson's $r = .89$, $p < .01$. This data provided strong support for the Model.

A more general criticism by Graen et al. (1970) is that Fiedler (1967a) has put aside the usual criterion of reliable results, namely the significance of the correlation and has used instead the correspondence of correlations to the hypothesized direction (the sign of the correlation) in claiming that the results of the Belgian Navy Study and the Hunt Studies support the Contingency Model. This practice of using the correspondence of correlations to the hypothesized direction has been

continued more recently by Rice and Chemers (1973).

The range of correlation points within the octants in Figure 1, particularly the range within Octant III, might lead one to be skeptical about the predictive power of the Model. However, Fiedler (1971a), reviewing studies to that date, illustrates that it does in fact have predictive power.

Predicting the Effects of Leadership Training and Experience

A number of studies have failed to show that leadership training and experience improves organizational performance (e.g., Fleishman et al., 1955; House, 1967; Fiedler, 1970; Campbell et al., 1970). Fiedler (1972) attributed this result to the possibility that training or experience improved the match between LPC and situation favourableness for some leaders but impaired the match for others, thus producing no net gain in performance. If one assumes that training or experience does not change the person but rather gives the individual leader skills which might improve the group situation, then, Fiedler states, the Contingency Model is able to predict the effect of leadership training and experience on group performance.

He advanced the following two hypotheses:

1. In either very favourable or in unfavourable situations, training and experience will improve the performance of low-LPC leaders. Specifically

training and experience will correlate positively in these situations for low-LPC leaders but negatively for high-LPC leaders.

2. In intermediate situations, training and experience will improve the performance of high-LPC leaders but degrade that of low-LPC leaders. Training or experience will, therefore, correlate positively in these situations for high-LPC leaders but negatively for low-LPC leaders (1972a, p. 116).

He tested these hypotheses using data obtained in earlier studies. The results indicated that high- and low-LPC leaders do react differently to training and experience, and so, supported the hypotheses.

The Contingency Model and Schools

McNamara (1967) classified elementary schools in Edmonton, Alberta, as interacting groups falling into Octants I and V in situation favourableness. Independent judges (Fiedler, 1973) later reclassified the groups as coacting. Correlations between principal's LPC and performance strongly supported the Contingency Model.

In 1968, McNamara, in a study involving schools at all levels throughout the province of Alberta, could find little evidence to support hypotheses based on the LPC-effectiveness relationship predicted by the Model. However, in a supplementary analysis of the data an interesting relationship did appear. When the experience of the principal was considered as an index of situation

favourableness, complementary LPC-performance relationships were found for newly appointed (2 years or less) and established (3 years or more) principals.

The results indicated that in elementary schools experience improved the performance of low-LPC principals, but it made high-LPC principals less effective. The opposite was true for secondary schools, where experience improved the high-LPC principal's performance and decreased that of the low-LPC principal. This relationship was found to be independent of the size of the school and the sex of the principal but it was found only in elementary and secondary schools, not in multi-level schools.

These findings have important implications for the transfer or rotation of principals. If the findings are confirmed then different rotation policies might be practised at the elementary and secondary levels. At the elementary level the high-LPC principal might be rotated more frequently as he is most effective in the first few years in his position. He should be moved to a new and challenging position every few years, while the low-LPC principal should be allowed to remain longer in one position as he grows more effective after the first few years there. The opposite holds for the secondary level.

There are implications for inservice training of principals. A principal may be able to alter the favourableness of a situation by manipulating the leader-

member relations variable and the task structure variable. Skill in human relations and skill in structuring the everyday tasks that confront the school staff would be essential in manipulating these factors. By developing his skill in these areas the principal may be able to control the LPC-situation favourableness match and in so doing exercise conscious control over a variable that governs the overall performance of the school.

In the light of the implication of McNamara's (1968) results this study will attempt to confirm his findings and extend their validity to British Columbia elementary schools. Hypotheses relating years of experience, LPC and performance of elementary school principals on Vancouver Island will be examined.

CHAPTER III

THE STUDY

Data Collection

Eight Public School Districts on Vancouver Island were asked to cooperate in this study. District Superintendents were approached in seven Districts and in the eighth the initial approach was made to the Assistant Superintendent. The first contact was made by telephone in May and June and it was followed up with a formal letter outlining the requirements of the study [Appendix E]. These requirements included that the elementary schools in the District be rated, on given criteria, by three supervisory personnel who were familiar with all of the elementary schools in the District and that the writer be allowed to approach the principals of the elementary schools to ask for their cooperation in completing the LPC questionnaire. It was made clear that agreement by the District Superintendent to cooperate in the study would in no way commit either potential raters or the elementary school principals to action. Participation by any person was to be on a voluntary basis. Anonymity of School Districts, schools and principals was assured.

Reaction to the initial approach varied. After discussing the requirements of the study, six Districts agreed to cooperate and two refused. Of the two that refused, one reasoned that they would be unable to rate the schools according to the required specifications (near normal distribution) and the other district reasoned that it would be unethical of them to rate their schools as required and, further, that the results of such research would be of little use to them.

In four of the cooperating Districts three raters were appointed who were familiar with all of the schools in their District. Only two raters were appointed in each of the remaining two Districts. In one of these there were only two supervisory staff, while in the other there were three but one chose not to participate in the rating as she felt it would compromise her role within the District.

In each District, at one of their regular monthly meetings, the elementary principals were asked to complete the LPC questionnaire [Appendix F], and to indicate the number of years they had been principal of their present school. The principals understood that participation on their part was voluntary. Questions about confidentiality of the data and the nature of the study were answered frankly. In five Districts the questionnaires were answered immediately and returned to the writer at the meeting. In one District principals took the questionnaires

with them and returned them by mail. In that District a follow up letter [Appendix G] was mailed two weeks later to all principals requesting the return of the completed questionnaires.

In situations where a principal was absent from the meeting he was contacted by telephone and a questionnaire was mailed to him. Two principals who chose not to attend that part of the meeting in which the questionnaire was discussed were not contacted. Two other principals who were on distant field trips from their schools also were not contacted.

Table I shows the percentage of questionnaire responses by District.

TABLE I
Rates of Questionnaire Return by Districts Studied

District	No. of Schools	No. of Responses	% Response
1	22	20	91
2	21	20	95
3	16	16	100
4	14	10	79
5	12	12	100
6	12	8	67
Overall response 87%.			

After the questionnaires had been collected, raters were appointed either by the District Superintendent, or by the Director of Instruction. The criteria for rating, [Appendix H], were discussed and agreement reached on what constituted a normal distribution of the schools in that District. An attempt was made to distribute 2%, 14%, 34%, 34%, 14% and 2% of the schools into the six categories on the rating scale. For example, in a District comprised of 21 schools the distribution agreed upon was 1, 3, 7, 6, 3, 1 in the six categories ranging from outstanding to very poor respectively. In each District all elementary schools, regardless of whether the principal had completed the LPC questionnaire, were included when calculating the desired rating distribution.

The raters were supplied with the rating criteria [Appendix H] and school effectiveness rating sheets [Appendix I]. The rating sheets had a perforated line down the centre. On the right hand side was the name of a school and on the left hand side a code number for that school -- the same code number as on the questionnaire completed by the principal of that school. The rating scale was on the left side of the sheet and raters were instructed to tear off and destroy the right hand side when the rating was completed. Coded ratings were then returned to the writer.

Instrumentation

A. School Effectiveness Ratings

In each District an attempt was made to provide three supervisory personnel who were familiar with all of the elementary schools to act as raters. Three raters were found in four of the Districts but only two in each of the remaining two Districts.

The criteria specified [Appendix H] attempted to cover effectiveness in a broad sense and focused on the "output" of the schools rather than such internal effectiveness as "ability to satisfy teacher needs." The Contingency Model was developed using success in achieving the group's primary goal as the main criterion for effectiveness. It is assumed that educating children is the primary goal of schools and, in this sense, the criteria used in this study are thought by the writer to be consistent with those upon which the Model was developed.

However, a problem lies in the fact that peoples' perceptions of the extent to which a school has accomplished this task will vary considerably and for many reasons. This problem is controlled to some extent by the use of three raters and using the mean of the three ratings as the final criterion.

At the same time, while considering these

difficulties, it must be borne in mind that decisions are made each year in almost every School District on the basis of these types of judgements and so the writer made no attempt to enforce consistent interpretation of the criteria on raters within any School District nor across Districts.

Table II lists the correlations between raters within each School District.

TABLE II
Pearson Product - Moment Correlation Coefficients
Between Effectiveness Ratings Within
Each School District

School District	Raters 1 and 2	Raters 2 and 3	Raters 1 and 3
1 (n = 22)	.34	.21	.31
2 (n = 21)	.71	.40	.39
3 (n = 16)	.67	.59	.15
4 (n = 14)	.76	.76	.79
5 (n = 12)	.83		
6 (n = 12)	.20		

These correlations are very low, a fact which is not surprising when one considers the complexity of educational goals and the lack of agreement among educators in identifying these goals. In interpreting

results based on these ratings, their low reliability should always be borne in mind.

B. Situation Favourableness

The basic contingency model requires that the favourableness of the situation be measured on the three variables: leader member relations, task structure, and position power of the leader. However, as the purpose of the present study was not to validate the basic contingency model, but rather, to validate McNamara's (1968) results and to test Fiedler's (1972b) predictions, [both of these are treated in detail in the section entitled "Hypotheses"], the only situation favourable-ness variable considered was the number of years the principal had held that office in his present school.

At the end of the LPC questionnaire [Appendix F] the subjects were asked to indicate the date on which they were appointed principal of their present school. The responses of those who were two or less years in their present position were grouped together, and those three or more years in that position were also grouped together, for further analysis.

C. Least Preferred Coworker Ratings

People differ in the way in which they rate their least preferred coworker. Differences in the favourableness of their ratings manifest themselves in

differences in interpersonal attitudes. These attitudes are reflected in differences in behaviour, particularly in stressful leadership situations.

1. The Instrument. In the earliest studies using the least preferred coworker concept with task groups, subjects were asked to rate, on a number of traits, their most- and least-preferred coworker within their group. A score called Assumed Similarity between Opposites, or ASO, was calculated. This was computed as the square of the difference between the mean rating of one's most preferred coworker and one's least preferred coworker. A high ASO score indicated that a subject perceived his most- and least-preferred coworker as relatively similar. A low ASO score indicated that he perceived them as relatively dissimilar. In most studies subjects have been asked to select their most- and least-preferred coworkers from all of the people with whom they have ever worked.

Later, it was found that scoring on the most preferred coworker scale was consistently high and that ASO scores and least preferred coworker scores correlated consistently. Therefore only the least preferred coworker score, LPC, was retained (Fiedler, 1967a).

Current forms of this instrument require the subject to describe his least preferred co-worker on a semantic differential type of scale consisting of 16 to 30 bipolar adjective items. The number of items and the choice of adjectives seem to be relatively unimportant. The form used in this study is reproduced in Appendix F. Each of the items is scored by assigning values ranging from 8 to the most favourable pole (e.g. helpful, co-operative), down to 1 to the least favourable (e.g. frustrating, hostile). The LPC score is obtained by summing the item scores.

Correlations between LPC and ASO scores are high, .80 to .90. These scores may be obtained in five to ten minutes and Fiedler (1967a) reports that scores based on twenty items yield split half reliability coefficients around .90.

2. Stability of LPC Scores over Time. Fiedler (1967a) reports LPC scores test-retest correlations of .68 for B29 bomber crews over an eight week period and similar correlations for army tank crews. He also reports test-retest correlations ranging from .31 to .57 for 1100 army inductees before and after an eight week basic training program. He points out that the variation in scores depends on the inter-

vening experience and "the least consistent scores came from men whose role relation had changed" (p. 48).

McNamara (1968) conducted a study with elementary school principals in 1967. A follow up study the following year with 32 of the original 47 principals yielded the following test-retest correlations:

$$\rho = .45 \text{ (n = 32) [p < .01, two tail].}$$

3. LPC Scores, Orientation and Behaviour. LPC scores have been associated with behaviour which has been described as psychologically close (high LPC) or psychologically distant (low LPC) (Fiedler, 1960). Later analyses (Fiedler, 1967a; McNamara, 1967) have described LPC scores as measuring task-versus relationship-oriented behaviour. Fiedler (1967a) visualizes "the high LPC individual as a person who derives his major satisfaction from successful interpersonal relationships, while the low LPC person derives his major satisfaction from task performance" (p. 46).

However this relationship between LPC scores and behaviour has not been consistent. Sometimes the high LPC leader engaged in more task-oriented behaviour than the low LPC leader.

Analyses showed (Fiedler, 1972c) that the relationship between leader LPC score and leader behaviour was moderated by the favourableness of the situation. In unfavourable, or stressful, situations the high LPC leader indeed tended to be relationship-oriented and the low LPC leader task-oriented but, in favourable situations, the opposite was found, namely, the high LPC leader engaged in task oriented behaviour while the low LPC leader concentrated on relationship oriented behaviour.

These results are explained on a goal hierarchy theory. This assumes that every individual has many goals which vary in importance to him. The same goal might have different importance to different people. An individual seeks first to satisfy his primary goal and when that has been secured, or is not threatened, then he concentrates on secondary and less important goals. (Fiedler (1972c) proposes that high LPC individuals

are primarily motivated to seek 'relatedness' with others. By relatedness we mean here interpersonal interactions with significant others, including superiors, coworkers and subordinates... Their secondary goal is self-enhancement, prominence, and esteem from others..... low LPC individuals... are primarily motivated by explicit competition for material and tangible rewards in the work situation, including

praise and recognition for good work by superiors, or the feeling of accomplishment derived from the knowledge that the job was well done. These individuals seek to have good interpersonal relations with their work associates, especially in so far as they see these good interpersonal relations as leading to the accomplishment of the assigned task (p. 393).

Thus in stressful situations both high- and low-LPC leaders attempt to satisfy primary needs. For the high LPC leader this means developing closer interpersonal relations, while the low LPC leader concentrates on his primary goal of task accomplishment. In favourable situations, where the leader does not feel threat to the accomplishment of his primary goals, he directs his attention to secondary goals. In this case the high LPC leader will behave in a more task directed manner and the low LPC leader will tend to work at developing closer interpersonal relationships with group members.

4. LPC Scores and Group Member Adjustment and Satisfaction. Bovard (1959), writing on social stimuli and the response to stress, suggested that one of the effects of the psycho-therapeutic relationship, an early recognized form of high LPC (Fiedler, 1950), would be to "free the patient

(either in group or in individual therapy) from the stress reaction his own ideas and impulses would ordinarily trigger" (p. 274). Freed from this stress the individual would be able to devote his resources to more practical matters.

High LPC leaders who were permissive, non-directive and considerate in their approach to their groups were found (Fiedler, 1964) to promote better group relations and more member satisfaction.

As more research data became available it was evident that the relationship between LPC and group member adjustment was modified by the favourability of the situation. High LPC leaders were found to interact more intensely with their group as the stress of the situation increased, while low LPC leaders developed a closer relationship with group members when the situation was favourable than when it was unfavourable (Fiedler, 1967a).

In a study involving small medical volunteer teams working in Central American villages, Fiedler, O'Brien and Ilgen (1969) found that

the low LPC leaders appeared to contribute relatively more to the overseas adjustment of members under conditions of low stress, while the high LPC leaders contributed relatively more in teams which were rated as relatively stressful (p. 512).

These results seem to reflect the differences in leader behaviour which occur as the favourableness of the situation changes, as described above. In stressful situations the high LPC leader becomes primarily concerned with developing interpersonal relations, while the low LPC leader concentrates primarily on task accomplishment. However, in situations that are relatively free of stress the high LPC leader concerns himself with task accomplishment, while the low LPC leader tends to become more involved in developing interpersonal relations. In each case the relationship oriented behaviour tends to reduce group member anxiety and increase group member satisfaction.

Intelligence of the leader has also been found to modify the relationship between leader LPC and group member satisfaction. "Member satisfaction was relatively great under high LPC leaders with comparatively low intelligence as well as low LPC leaders with comparatively high intelligence" (Fiedler, 1972c).

Fiedler offers the following explanation. Intellectual tasks seem to be less structured to the less intelligent leader and therefore the situation seems to be less favourable than it would seem to

the more intelligent leader. In such circumstances more intelligent leaders would be less threatened by the situation than would less intelligent leaders. More intelligent leaders would then pursue secondary goals - for the high LPC leader, task accomplishment, and for the low LPC leader, better interpersonal relations. Relatively dull leaders would find the situation more stressful and would therefore tend to pursue primary goals which, for the low LPC leader would be task accomplishment, and, for the high LPC leader, the establishment of close interpersonal relationships with team members. Leader involvement in developing these interpersonal relations would consequently result in increased team member satisfaction.

Hypotheses

McNamara (1968) investigated the effectiveness of elementary and secondary schools in Alberta. The performance of the elementary schools was rated by School District Superintendents and their supervisory staffs. He found no significant relationship between the effectiveness of the schools and the number of years experience of the principal. However, when he separated the principals into those who had been in that position in their present school for three or more years and those who had been two or less years

principal he obtained the results presented in Table 3.

TABLE III
Effectiveness of Leadership Style of
Elementary School Principals Over Time

	Newly Appointed principals (2 ⁻ yrs.)	Established principals (3 ⁺ yrs.)
LPC r Effectiveness	35 (N = 51) [p < .01, two tail]	-25 (N = 77) [p < .05, two tail]

(McNamara, 1968, p. 299).

These results indicate that in the elementary schools among newly appointed principals those with high LPC were more effective than those with low LPC. The reverse is true for the established principals.

Fiedler (1972b) states that the contingency model suggests an interpretation of this data.

The elementary schools in McNamara's sample were relatively small (six to twelve teachers) and were relatively simple organizations which could be easily controlled. The principal's position power was relatively strong; therefore, the leadership situation was likely to be very favourable for the established principals. It would be moderately favourable for the new principals, since they did not yet know their organization or their subordinates. Therefore, better performance might be expected from the experienced task-motivated (low LPC) than the relationship-motivated (high LPC), but the reverse from inexperienced principals (p. 459).

This interpretation looks upon time as a factor which increases the favourability of the situation for the execution of leadership acts, in that it allows the principal to develop relationships with his teachers and affords him the opportunity to learn ways of increasing task structure.

Generalizing from these results Fiedler (1972b) states,

The Contingency model would predict that the experience will change the elementary principal's situation from moderately favourable for the inexperienced to favourable for the experienced principal. The leadership experience should, therefore, make the relationship-motivated principals less effective than they were before while the task motivated principals should become more effective (p. 459).

These predictions might be represented diagrammatically as follows:

TABLE IV
Diagrammatic Representation of Fiedler's (1972b)
Predictions of the Relationship Between Leadership
Style, Experience and Effectiveness of
Elementary School Principals

	Newly appointed principals	Established principals
Relationship-motivated (high LPC)	more effective	less effective
Task-motivated (low LPC)	less effective	more effective

In an attempt to validate McNamara's findings and to test Fiedler's predictions the following hypotheses were tested:

H₁ Among elementary school principals with two or less years experience in their present schools, those with high LPC will lead more effective schools than those with low LPC.

H₂ Among elementary school principals with three or more years experience in their present school those with low LPC will lead more effective schools than those with high LPC.

A third hypothesis arises from Hypotheses 1 and 2. As effectiveness depends upon neither LPC nor years of experience alone, but rather on both together, a significant interaction effect between the two is predicted.

H₃ There will be a significant interaction between principal membership in both independent variable groups and principal effectiveness.

Statistical Analysis

After all the data had been collected the mean of the effectiveness ratings for each school was calculated. The data from all six School Districts was pooled and rank ordered on the basis of LPC scores. The pooled data was

split into thirds on LPC score and the middle one third was deleted from the sample.

Both the high LPC and low LPC subgroups were further subdivided on the basis of the number of years experience of the principal at his present school. Those with two years or less formed one group, while those with three or more years formed the other.

The four subgroups now formed are described in Figure 3.

High LPC Low Experience	High LPC High Experience
Low LPC Low Experience	Low LPC High Experience

Figure 3. Description of cells for analysis of variance.

The computer facilities at the University of Victoria were used to carry out a two way analysis of variance to test Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3. As the number of items in the cells differed, the model for unequal n's was used.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Eighty-three questionnaires, representing a return of 85.5%, were included in the final statistical analysis. The results are presented as two categories. First a description of the data, and secondly, findings with regard to the hypotheses tested.

Descriptive Data

Table V indicates the distribution of the total sample with respect to years of experience of principals at their present schools. The range was from less than 1 to 28 years.

TABLE V
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPAL'S YEARS OF
EXPERIENCE AT HIS PRESENT SCHOOL

Category	Years Experience	f
1	0 - 5	53
2	6 - 10	17
3	11 - 15	8
4	16 - 20	2
5	21 - 25	0
6	26 - 30	3
		N = 83
Mean = 5.67 years	S.D. = 5.80	

The distribution of LPC scores for the total sample is presented in Table VI. The range was from 36 to 101.

TABLE VI
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF LPC SCORES

Category	LPC Score	f
1	30 - 39	1
2	40 - 49	6
3	50 - 59	20
4	60 - 69	27
5	70 - 79	15
6	80 - 89	9
7	90 - 99	4
8	100 - 110	1
Mean = 66.5		N = 83
S.D. = 13.53		

Table VII indicates the distribution of mean effectiveness for the whole sample. This table well illustrates the "regression towards the mean" that took place as a result of calculating the mean of the ratings. The original ratings were distributed over a six point scale but in the process of averaging they have been reduced to virtually a three point spread.

TABLE VII

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN EFFECTIVENESS RATINGS

Category	Mean Effectiveness	f
1	1 - 2	3
2	2.1 - 3	22
3	3.1 - 4	36
4	4.1 - 5	20
5	5.1 - 6	2
		N = 83
Mean = 3.65	S.D. = 0.88	

Correlations were performed to test for relationships between LPC score and experience, LPC score and effectiveness, and, experience and effectiveness. The results of this analysis are presented in Table VIII. The level of correlation in each case indicates that the three measures are each independent of the other.

TABLE VIII

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE VARIABLES LPC SCORES,
MEAN EFFECTIVENESS AND YEARS EXPERIENCE OF THE PRINCIPALLPC r Mean Effectiveness

$$r = 0.1312, n = 83, p > .10$$

LPC r Years Principal

$$r = -0.0862, n = 83, p > .10$$

Years Principal r_{bis} Mean Effectiveness

$$r_{bis} = 0.1018, n = 83, p > .05$$

Results of the Tests of Hypotheses

To test the hypotheses the middle one third of the LPC scores was omitted from the sample in an attempt to ensure reasonably distinct groups. The high- and low-LPC subgroups were further subdivided on the basis of years experience of the principal at his present school. Those with two or less years being classified as "inexperienced" and those with three or more as "established". Tables IX and X describe the data in these subgroups, while the results of the analysis of variance with these groups are described in Table XI.

TABLE IX

RANGE, MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF LPC SCORES
FOR HIGH- AND LOW-LPC SUBSAMPLES
(MIDDLE THIRD OMITTED)

High LPC

Range	=	101 - 71
Mean	=	81.61
Standard Deviation	=	8.42
N	=	28

Low LPC

Range	=	59 - 36
Mean	=	52.41
Standard Deviation	=	6.28
N	=	27

TABLE X
 RANGE, MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF YEARS
 EXPERIENCE OF INEXPERIENCED AND ESTABLISHED PRINCIPALS

Inexperienced

Range	=	≤ 2 years
Mean	=	1.25 years
S.D.	=	0.44
N	=	32

Established

Range	=	3 - 28 years
Mean	=	8.45 years
S.D.	=	5.88
N	=	51

Hypothesis 1. Among elementary school principals with two or less years experience in their present schools, those with high LPC will lead more effective schools than those with low LPC. (NOT SUSTAINED).

The opposite relationship to that predicted was found, as low LPC principals had the more effective schools.

Hypothesis 2. Among elementary school principals with three or more years in their present schools, those with low LPC will lead more effective schools than those with high LPC. (NOT SUSTAINED).

In this case, also, the opposite to the

TABLE XI
 VARIANCE OVER YEARS EXPERIENCE IN THE EFFECTIVENESS OF
 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' LEADERSHIP STYLES
 (TOP AND BOTTOM THIRDS OF THE SAMPLE ONLY)

Cell	N	Years Experience Factor A	LPC Factor B	Mean Effectiveness
1	14	2 ⁻ yrs. - Inexperienced	High	3.568 (least effective)
2	8	2 ⁻ yrs. - Inexperienced	Low	4.143 (most effective)
3	14	3 ⁺ yrs. - Established	High	3.617
4	19	3 ⁺ yrs. - Established	Low	3.602

Source of Variance	df	MS	F	p
Factor A (Years Experience)	1	0.5812	0.881	0.352
Factor B (LPC)	1	0.5993	0.908	0.345
Interaction	1	1.0869	1.647	0.205
Error	51	0.6600		

to the predicted relationship was found, namely that the high LPC leaders had more effective schools.

Hypothesis 3. There will be a significant interaction between principal membership in both independent variable groups and principal effectiveness. (NOT SUSTAINED).

The probability ($p = .205$) does not reach the .05 level which is normally accepted as significant.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions and Discussions

On the basis of the findings of this study, the following observations may be made regarding the sample upon which the study was based.

Firstly, the leadership behaviour, task-oriented or relationship-oriented, of elementary school principals does not contribute significantly to the overall effectiveness of the schools that they lead regardless of whether they are experienced or inexperienced in their position.

Secondly, there is no significant relationship between the number of years experience of the elementary school principal and the effectiveness of the school which he leads, regardless of the principal's leadership style.

The hypotheses tested were based on the Contingency Model of leadership effectiveness (Fiedler, 1972a). It was anticipated that principals' leadership styles would interact with principals' years of experience and that together they would be related significantly to the effectiveness of elementary schools. It was anticipated

that if this type of relationship did indeed exist then the findings might contribute to the formulation of policy regarding the appointment, transfer and inservice training of elementary school administrators. McNamara (1968) found such a relationship to exist in elementary schools in Alberta, but this study failed to support his findings among elementary schools on Vancouver Island.

If one assumes that such significant relationships might exist then one must look for reasons why this study failed to find them. The most obvious places to look might be the effectiveness rating procedures and the sampling procedures.

Firstly, the effectiveness criteria which were specified were very much open to individual rater interpretation, and there may have been as many interpretations as there were raters. Within school districts, correlations between ratings ranged from .83 down to .15. This problem might have been overcome by "training" the raters and having them agree on some compromise of their own ideas of effectiveness. The criteria specified were purposely left open to interpretation as in each district the raters were supervisory personnel who might be expected to have reasonably valid ideas on school effectiveness. In most cases these people had been in their school district and working together for some years and one would reasonably

expect some congruence within a district on what "overall effectiveness" might mean. To a certain extent this seemed to be so (Table 2) but agreement was far from being unanimous. On the other hand, this is the way in which evaluation is in practice effected in the field.

The criteria might have been written in more specific terms or restricted to a limited number of specified aspects of "school output." However it was felt that this would not be consistent with the Contingency Model which evaluates leader effectiveness in terms of "group performance on the group's primary assigned task" (Fiedler, 1967a, p. 9). For the purposes of this study this is interpreted as "the overall effectiveness of the professional personnel of the school in achieving their educational goals with respect to their students." Considering the number of schools and school districts that presume to educate the "whole student" and make references in their school aims or philosophy to producing "well rounded" citizens, then restricting the criteria to less than "overall" effectiveness would not be reasonable except as a means of making the rating task simpler.

The second place to look for causes for the lack of significant results might be the sampling procedures. In order to be able to discard the middle one third of the sample and yet retain a sufficiently large number to have reasonable numbers in each cell for the analysis of

variance about eighty to ninety schools were needed. This necessitated pooling together data from a number of school districts. The problem was aggravated by the fact that two school districts chose not to be included in the study. This meant that ratings of schools in one district were pooled with ratings from other districts.

The only controls on this procedure were, firstly, the fact that ratings used in the final analysis were mean ratings of all the district raters and, secondly, that ratings within each district were on a forced normal distribution. This latter assumed that there was an equal percentage of equally effective schools in each district.

This sampling problem could have been overcome by carrying out the study in one school district of eighty to ninety elementary schools.

Significance of this Study to the Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness

The results of this study failed to validate McNamara's (1968) findings regarding the effect of experience on the effectiveness of elementary school principals. On the basis of those findings Fiedler (1972a) made certain claims about the ability of the Contingency Model to predict the effect of experience of the leader on group effectiveness. These claims, as far as elementary

schools are concerned, still remain to be substantiated, and indeed McNamara's findings still stand awaiting empirical confirmation.

Close inspection of the results of this study reveals that not only were the hypotheses not sustained, but relationships in the opposite direction to those predicted were found. In Hypothesis 1 it was predicted that among inexperienced principals those with high LPC would lead more effective schools. The results of this study suggest that the low LPC principals led the more effective schools. Similarly, although the difference in this case was much less, Hypothesis 2 predicted that among established principals, those with low LPC would lead more effective schools, but this study found that high LPC principals led the more effective schools.

Possible sources of error have been discussed in an earlier part of this chapter. If one now was to assume that these results were valid it is reasonable to discuss their significance to the Contingency Model.

The hypotheses were based on the assumption that the leadership situation in elementary schools for newly appointed principals was moderately favourable and that as the principal gained experience the situation changed to very favourable. The favourableness was not measured in this study but was assumed to be similar to the Alberta schools as described by McNamara (1968) and Fiedler (1972a).

The present results do not fit the predicted scheme. If, however, the favourableness of the situation was considered unfavourable to newly appointed principals, changing to moderately favourable with experience, then the results would fit the Contingency Model.

This suggests that future researchers in this area should measure situation favourableness variables. It is possible that the schools involved in this study were very different from those in the Alberta study. This information is necessary before the Contingency Model can be evaluated.

The results of this study do not substantiate the McNamara (1968) findings, nor the Fiedler (1972a) predictions. Also, these results suggest that researchers in this area in future should consider measuring the situation favourableness variables rather than accept them as previously established.

Significance of this Study to Vancouver Island Schools

Low correlations between raters indicated divergent ideas on what constitutes an effective school. In every case the raters were professional educators working in a supervisory capacity within school districts. They included District Superintendents, Directors of Instruction and Supervisors of Instruction. In every case they were people who influence the formation of educational policy in

their districts. These supervisory personnel are responsible for educational leadership at the district level and in many cases are required to evaluate schools and take action on such evaluation. It is reasonable to wonder how supervisory staffs with such disagreement on what constitutes "overall effectiveness" can themselves effectively work towards developing more effective schools within their district.

These results suggest that in some school districts considerable discussion is needed at the highest supervisory level to develop "within district" agreement on what constitutes an effective school.

On the basis of McNamara's (1968) results Fiedler (1972a) proposed that because elementary school principals with high LPC performed better if they were relatively new on the job, they should be rotated between schools more rapidly than low LPC principals who became more effective as they remained longer in the same place. The results of this study do not support McNamara's findings, indeed they suggest that the reverse might be true. Regardless of the direction of the results, - and possible causes of this conflict have been discussed - if a relationship between effectiveness and experience is even suggested in this research then school districts should not only support studies investigating it but they should actively encourage it because school district policies regarding rotation of

principals seem to lack a coherent theoretical base.

Recommendations for Further Research

1. This study indicates a need for exploration of the favourableness of the leadership situation in British Columbia schools on the variables position power of the principal and task structure. These measures might be compared with McNamara's (1968) and reasons for any differences explored. Possible reasons for differences might lie within the educational systems of British Columbia and Alberta, or they may be social/political differences in the climate within which the two school systems operate.
2. This study also suggests a need for replication in a school district large enough to provide all the schools needed for adequate sampling and in this way avoid pooling ratings across districts.
3. This study might be replicated in one large school district and the raters "trained" so that consensus might be reached on perceived levels of effectiveness.
4. As this study failed to confirm McNamara's findings for elementary schools it indicates a need to question his results for secondary schools.

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APPENDICES

Look at the words at both ends of the line before you put in your "X". Please remember that there are *no right or wrong answers*. Work rapidly; your first answer is likely to be the best. Please do not omit any items, and mark each item only once.

LPC

Think of the person *with whom you can work least well*. He may be someone you work with now, or he may be someone you knew in the past.

He does not have to be the person you like least well, but should be the person with whom you had the most difficulty in getting a job done. Describe this person as he appears to you.

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	
Helpful	:—:—:—:—:	:—:—:—:—:	Frustrating
	8 7 6 5	4 3 2 1	
Unenthusiastic	:—:—:—:—:	:—:—:—:—:	Enthusiastic
	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	
Cooperative	:—:—:—:—:	:—:—:—:—:	Uncooperative
	8 7 6 5	4 3 2 1	
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	
Self-assured	:—:—:—:—:	:—:—:—:—:	Hesitant
	8 7 6 5	4 3 2 1	
Efficient	:—:—:—:—:	:—:—:—:—:	Inefficient
	8 7 6 5	4 3 2 1	
Gloomy	:—:—:—:—:	:—:—:—:—:	Cheerful
	1 2 3 4	5 6 7 8	
Open	:—:—:—:—:	:—:—:—:—:	Guarded
	8 7 6 5	4 3 2 1	

APPENDIX B

GROUP ATMOSPHERE SCALE

Describe the atmosphere of your group by checking the following items.

	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
1. Friendly	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Unfriendly
2. Accepting	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Rejecting
3. Satisfying	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Frustrating
4. Enthusiastic	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Unenthusiastic
5. Productive	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Nonproductive
6. Warm	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Cold
7. Cooperative	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Uncooperative
8. Supportive	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Hostile
9. Interesting	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Boring
10. Successful	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	Unsuccessful

Fiedler, 1967a, p. 269.

APPENDIX C

TASK STRUCTURE SCALE

1. *Decision verifiability* The degree to which the correctness of the solution or decision can be demonstrated either by appeal to authority (e.g., the census of 1960), by logical procedures (e.g., mathematical proof), or by feedback (e.g., examination of consequences of decision, as in action tasks).
2. *Goal clarity* The degree to which the requirements of the task are clearly stated or known to the group members.
3. *Goal path multiplicity* The degree to which the task can be solved by a variety of procedures (number of different methods to reach the goal, number of alternative solutions, number of different ways the task can be completed) (reversed scoring).
4. *Solution specificity* The degree to which there is more than one correct solution. (Some tasks, such as arithmetic problems, have only one correct solution; others have two or more, e.g., a sorting task where items could be sorted in several different ways; still others have an almost infinite number of possible solutions, e.g., human relations problems or matters of opinion.)²

² Interrater agreement over thirty-five different tasks used in our studies was fairly high (viz., .80 and .88) when the raters were asked to score each of the dimensions on an eight-point scale. The four scale values were then summed for each task. This procedure can undoubtedly be further improved by adding or modifying the subscales. Hunt (1966) has developed a more sensitive scale, which is reported in Chapter 10.

APPENDIX D

MEASURE OF POSITION POWER

Measure of Position Power *

-
1. Compliments from the leader are appreciated more than compliments from other group members.
 2. Compliments are highly valued, criticisms are considered damaging.
 3. Leader can recommend punishments and rewards.
 4. Leader can punish or reward members on his own accord.
 5. Leader can effect (or can recommend) promotion or demotion.
 6. Leader chairs or coordinates group but may or may not have other advantages, i.e., is appointed or acknowledged chairman or leader.
 7. Leader's opinion is accorded considerable respect and attention.
 8. Leader's special knowledge or information (and members' lack of it) permits leader to decide how task is to be done or how group is to proceed.
 9. Leader cues members or instructs them on what to do.
 10. Leader tells or directs members what to do or what to say.
 11. Leader is expected to motivate group.
 12. Leader is expected to suggest and evaluate the members' work.
 13. Leader has superior or special knowledge about the job, or has special instructions but requires members to do job.
 14. Leader can supervise each member's job and evaluate it or correct it.
 15. Leader knows his own as well as members' job and could finish the work himself if necessary, e.g., writing a report for which all information is available.
 16. Leader enjoys special or official rank and status in real life which sets him apart from or above group members, e.g., military rank or elected office in a company or organization. (+5 points)
 17. Leader is given special or official rank by experimenter to simulate for role playing purposes, e.g., "You are a general" or "the manager." This simulated rank must be clearly superior to members' rank and must not be just that of "chairman" or "group leader" of the group during its work period. (+3 points)
 18. Leader's position is dependent on members; members can replace or depose leader. (-5 points)
-

* The dimension of leader position power is defined by the above checklist in which all "true" items are given 1 point, except for items 16, 17, and 18, which are weighted +5, +3, and -5 points respectively.

APPENDIX E

RESEARCH REQUEST

1654 McKenzie Avenue,
Victoria, B.C.,
April, 1974.

Dear Sir,

I am writing to you in regard to a research project on the effect of experience on leadership in schools. I am working on this project as part of the requirements for the M.A. degree in education. Dr. Christopher Hodgkinsen, Professor of Education at the University of Victoria, is my Graduate Supervisor.

The study involves a conceptual model which relates the interpersonal perceptions of the principal to changes over time in the effectiveness of his leadership. To adequately study the problem requires the assistance of a number of school districts and it is my hope that you will assist me.

The requirements for the study are:

1. that you rate the elementary schools in your district on an effectiveness criterion outlined on the attached sheet;
2. that you allow me to approach two other supervisory personnel in your district for ratings on the effectiveness of the elementary schools;
3. that you allow me to approach the principals of the elementary schools in your district to ask for their cooperation in completing a questionnaire, a sample of which is enclosed.

The study will make only very slight demands on the principals cooperating. Reasonable measures have been taken to ensure the confidentiality of data. Data gathered will be used in this study only.

...70

The theoretical model being employed in the study has been partially validated in schools in Alberta. It is hoped that the results of this projected study will further validate the model and provide school administrators with additional research evidence regarding leadership effectiveness in schools.

As the school year is fast progressing I would be grateful for an early reply to this request.

Sincerely yours,

Thomas J. Browne.

APPENDIX F

LEAST PREFERRED CO-WORKER QUESTIONNAIRE

School Code Number _____.

- A. People differ in the ways they think about those with whom they work. This may be important in working with others. Please give your immediate, first reaction to the items on the following two pages.

Below are pairs of words which are opposite in meaning, such as "Very neat" and "Not neat." You are asked to describe someone with whom you have worked by placing an "X" in one of the eight spaces on the line between the two words.

Each space represents how well the adjective fits the person you are describing, as if it were written:

Very neat	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	Not neat
		8		7		6		5		4		3		2		1
		Very neat		Quite neat		Some- what neat		Slight- ly neat		Slight- ly untidy		Some- what untidy		Quite un- tidy		Very un- tidy

FOR EXAMPLE: If you were to describe the person with whom you are able to work least well, and you ordinarily think of him as being *quite neat*, you would put an "X" in the second space from the words Very Neat, like this:

Very neat	:	_____	:	X	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	Not neat
		8		7		6		5		4		3		2		1
		Very neat		Quite neat		Some- what neat		Slight- ly neat		Slight- ly untidy		Some- what untidy		Quite un- tidy		Very un- tidy

If you ordinarily think of the person with whom you can work least well as being only *slightly neat*, you would put your "X" as follows:

Very neat	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	X	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	Not neat
		8		7		6		5		4		3		2		1
		Very neat		Quite neat		Some- what neat		Slight- ly neat		Slight- ly untidy		Some- what untidy		Quite un- tidy		Very un- tidy

If you would think of him as being *very untidy*, you would use the space nearest the words Not Neat.

Very neat	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	X	:	_____	:	Not neat
		8		7		6		5		4		3		2		1
		Very neat		Quite neat		Some- what neat		Slight- ly neat		Slight- ly untidy		Some- what untidy		Quite un- tidy		Very un- tidy

Look at the words at both ends of the line before you put in your "X". Please remember that there are *no right or wrong answers*. Work rapidly; your first answer is likely to be the best. Please do not omit any items, and mark each item only once.

LPC

Think of the person *with whom you can work least well*. He or she may be someone you work with now, or someone you knew in the past.

It does not have to be the person you like least well, but should be the person with whom you had the most difficulty in getting a job done.

Describe this person as he or she appears to you.

	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
Pleasant	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Unpleasant
Friendly	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Unfriendly
Rejecting	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Accepting
Helpful	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Frustrating
Unenthusias- tic	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Enthusiastic
Tense	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Relaxed
Distant	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Close
Cold	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Warm
Cooperative	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Uncooperative
Supportive	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Hostile
Boring	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Interesting
Quarrelsome	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Harmonious
Self-assured	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Hesitant
Efficient	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Inefficient
Gloomy	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Cheerful
Open	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Guarded

B. On what date did you assume responsibility as principal of your present school?
_____.

Thank you for your assistance.

APPENDIX G

FOLLOW-UP LETTER

1654 McKenzie Avenue,
Victoria, B.C.
May 15, 1974

Dear

I am writing as a follow-up to my meeting with you on May 8th at which time I outlined the project on which I am working.

If you have not already done so, may I ask again that you please complete the project questionnaire. The task should take no more than five minutes and I assure you that the data will be treated in the strictest confidence. No individual principals, schools nor school districts will be identified in the final report.

Enclosed please find another copy of the questionnaire together with a stamped addressed envelope to facilitate your returning the completed form to me.

Thank you for considering this request.

Sincerely yours

Thomas J. Browne

N.B. If you have already completed the questionnaire and returned it to the School Board Office please accept my thanks and disregard the earlier part of this letter.

T.J.B.

APPENDIX H
EFFECTIVENESS CRITERIA

In this study effectiveness is defined as the "overall effectiveness of the professional personnel of the school in achieving their educational goals with respect to their students":

As many facets as possible of the educational output will be considered with a view to achieving an overall effectiveness score for each school.

Consideration will be given to such environmental factors as the attitudes, ability and socio-economic background of the students. These are factors which tend to make the task of one school more difficult than that of another. Educational and administrative processes within the school will be considered only in so far as they facilitate the attainment of educational goals.

Schools will be ranked in a 6-point forced normal distribution by three raters. The average of the three ratings will be the final rating of each school.

APPENDIX I

RATING SHEET

School Code Number
and Rating Score

Tear-Off
Code Key

Outstanding

Very good

Slightly above average

Slightly below average

Poor

Very poor

Outstanding

Very good

Slightly above average

Slightly below average

Poor

Very poor

Outstanding

Very good

Slightly above average

Slightly below average

Poor

Very poor

Outstanding

Very good

Slightly above average

Slightly below average

Poor

Very poor

VITA

Surname: BROWNE Given Names: THOMAS JOSEPH

Place of Birth: GALWAY, IRELAND Date of Birth: JULY 17, 1939

Educational Institutions Attended, with Dates of Entering and Leaving:

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, GALWAY 1957 to 1962

UNIVERSITY OF VICTORIA 1966 to 1974

_____ to _____

_____ to _____

Degrees, Diplomas, Etc., Awarded, with Dates and Names of Institutions:

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H. Dip. Ed. 1962 University College, Galway

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Publications:

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Title of Thesis/Dissertation

AN EMPIRICAL VERIFICATION OF

FIEDLER'S LEADERSHIP CONTINGENCY MODEL

Author


Signature

December 17th, 1974

Date

Thomas J. Browne

Name