Impact of Leadership Style of Teacher on the Performance of Students: An Application of Hersey and Blanchard Situational Model

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Abstract

The study explored the impact of leadership style of teacher on the performance of students in the light of Hersey and Blanchard situational model. Data were collected through readiness level scale and achievement tests from 80 students of 8th grade in Lahore city using a pretest-posttest experimental design. Descriptive and inferential statistics were applied for data analysis. It was revealed that the posttest performance of experimental group was significantly higher than their pretest performance as compared with the control group. Results also showed that readiness level of students can be changed through leadership style of the teacher which has direct impact on students' performance. There was a significant difference in achievement scores of 'telling' and 'selling' intervention techniques against 'participating' and 'delegating' styles reflecting a strong positive impact on the performance of students particularly having low readiness level. It was suggested that educational administrators should provide training to teachers to use situational approach at different learning levels to improve students' performance.

Keywords: Situational leadership, Leadership style of teacher, Students' performance, Hersey and Blanchard situational model

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Introduction

Leadership is a complex behavior reflecting the beliefs, personality, experiences, work environment, and situational assessment of the leader (Stogdill, 1974), and with its interdisciplinary foundations, it has been taken as a measurable personal trait of a person who may be placed at positions matching with the level of such trait (Zaccaro, 2007). Depending upon the nature, complexity, and urgency of the situation i.e. the situational leadership (Grady, 2010), a leader may exhibit the same or different behaviors i.e. the styles (Hersey, 1997; Bass, 1985) the assessment of which seems to be more appropriate to the particular situation of respondents (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). It means that, the situational leadership is concerned with the role of followers (Grady, 2010) at a given developmental level to work in a specific environment (O'Hair & Odell, 1995). Based on the ability of a leader to change the behavior of his followers, Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard developed a situational model in 1969. According to them, successful leadership lies in selecting the most suitable leadership style based on the followers' readiness level (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977).

The application of situational model of leadership in classroom settings is based upon the flexibility and practical aspects of teaching leadership. According to Halema (2006), what is required from the teacher as a leader, is to develop teaching methods, materials and performance norms and improve the teaching quality to achieve educational goals. As every leadership style is impossible to employ in all situations, and a particular leadership style is usually based on the readiness level of subordinates, i.e. the students in this case, hence a teacher is supposed to use different teaching styles in different teaching situations, based upon the readiness levels of students, to achieve instructional targets (Aric, 2007).

The primary purpose of the study is, therefore, to explore the readiness level of students, select a suitable leadership style as recommended (table 1) by Hersey and Blanchard (1977) according to the readiness level of the learners, apply that leadership style by the teacher in classroom setting, and explore the impact of leadership style of the teacher on the performance of students.

Table 1
Readiness Levels and their Corresponding Teaching Leadership Styles

S #	Readiness Level	Teaching Leadership Style	Explanation
1	R_1 (unable and unwilling)	Telling	Redressing style
2	R_2 (unable but willing)	Selling	Persuading style
3	R_3 (able but unwilling)	Participating	Participating style
4	R_4 (able and willing)	Delegating	Empowering style

To be more specific, the study provides answers to the following research questions:

1. What are the readiness levels of students in terms of R_1, R_2, R_3, and R_4 in line with the Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership model?
2. Which leadership styles are applied by the teacher in terms of Telling, Selling, Participating, and Delegating in line with the Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership model?
3. What is the level of performance of R_1, R_2, R_3, and R_4 students?
4. What is the impact of leadership style of the teacher in line with the Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership model on the performance of students?

The discussion on issues of leadership quality, effectiveness, styles, and ability of leaders has resulted in the form of several leadership philosophies, approaches, theories and models in an effort to define the leadership and its effectiveness.

Defining Leadership

It is hard to put all of the leadership perspectives in one simple definition. However, to sum up its different aspects, it may be viewed as the action or ability to lead a group of people or an organization (Anit, 2006); the nature of relationship that could promote and increase the output in the organization (Maxwell, 1999); inspiring others to pursue your vision (Kruse, 2013; Zeitchik, 2012; Northouse, 2007); and an art of organizational improvement through the transformation of people and organization (Sashkin, 2004).

Theories and Models of Leadership

The leadership has always been described in terms of its dimensions, aspects, and viewpoints on which the available inventories of theories and models are based. These theories and models reflect the evolutionary description of leadership (Sashkin, 1988; Burns, 1978; House, 1977; Greenleaf; 1977; Downton; 1973; Hersey and Blanchard; 1969; Blake & Mouton, 1964; Halpin &Winer, 1957; Katz & Kahn, 1952; Galton, 1869; Carlyle, 1841) for which the authors have organized table 2 with the help of cited works.

Table 2

Evolutionary Description of Leadership Theories/Models

S#	Leadership Work	Contributors	Year
1	The Great Man Theory of Leadership	Thomas Carlyle	1841
2	Trait theory of Leadership	Francis Galton	1869
		Luther Lee Bernard	1926
3	*Charismatic Leadership*	Max Webber	1922
		Robert House	1977
4	Transactional Leadership	Max Webber	1947
		James MacGregor Burns	1978
5	Iowa Studies of Leadership	Lewin, Lippitt, and White,	1939
6	Group Leadership	Stogdill	1948
7	University of Michigan Studies	Katz and Kahn	1952
8	Ohio State University Studies	Halpin and Winer	1957
9	Managerial Grid	Blake and Mouton	1964
10	Fiedler Contingency Theory	Fred Fiedler	1964
11	Servant Leadership	Robert K. Greenleaf	1970
12	Path-Goal Theory	Robert House	1971
13	Transformational Leadership	James V. Downton	1973
		James MacGregor Burns	1978
14	Situational Leadership Model	Hersey and Blanchard	1969
15	Visionary Leadership	Marshall Sashkin	1988
		Daniel Goleman	2002

A leadership model is the depiction of any theory given by one or many people in one or more than one situations, e.g. the situational model, (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) that illustrates a situational theory of leadership and provides a mechanism of when to tell, sell, participate or delegate. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1977) leadership style means how someone acts in line with a specific theory or model e.g. to be directive or supportive. Leadership models have become more significant as people and organizations face different changes like never before but the important thing is to select a suitable model to run an organization according to its needs (Garner & Stough, 2002). Business balls (2017) have provided typologies of leadership models as trait-based model, behavioral models, situational or contingency models, functional models, and integrated psychological model.

Trait-based model is the oldest description of successful leaders that identifies the traits of effective leaders. The trait approach arose from the "Great Man" theory that describes leaders as exceptional people born with instinctive traits. Some of the consistent traits were explored by Stogdill (1974) like technical skills, task motivation, emotional control and social skills etc, but the consistency of such traits could never be established as such.

Behavioral models such as the well known McGregor's theory, describe leaders on the bases of their behavior where their strategies are influenced by assumptions they keep about the nature of subordinates. He summarized two sets of contrasting assumptions. Firstly, an average human has an innate dislike of work so he prefers to be directed and avoids responsibilities i.e. theory-x and secondly, average human being has the ability to exercise relatively high level of self-control, accepts responsibility and shows commitment to achieve organizational objectives i.e. theory-y. The University of Michigan study elaborated the 'concern for task' i.e. production orientation and 'concern for people' i.e. employee orientation (Katz, Maccoby, & Morse, 1950), and Ohio State University study depicted consideration i.e. concern for people and initiating structure i.e. concern for task (Halpin, & Winer, 1957) and similarly, Fiedler and House (1988) described 'structuring' and 'consideration'. The managerial grid developed by Robert Black and Jane Mouton focuses on task (production) and employee (consideration) orientations of managers. They proposed 'team management' as the most successful type of leader behavior (Blake & Mouton, 1964).

Situational/contingency models recommend varied leader behaviors according to the situation. Fred E. Fielder was the first psychologist who put forth a fully articulated model which deals with both leader traits and situational variables depending on three situational factors i.e. leader member relations, task structure, and leader's position power (Fiedler, 1969; 1967; 1964). Based on Victor Vroom's 'expectancy theory of work motivation' (Gill, 2012), the Path-Goal theory of Robert House describes the situational roles of employees and organizational characteristics in determining the directive, supportive, participative, and achievement oriented styles of the leader (House & Mitchell, 1974; House, 1971). Vroom (1973 & 2003) and Vroom and Yetton (1973) shared with path goal theory a perspective on behavioral contingencies. Though, this theory does not encompass all or even most of what our leaders do, even then it is a good tool for leadership training. Initially a problem is identified and defined and then the leader decides how to solve that keeping in view the responses to conflict arising out of the situation that often depend on the subordinates' acceptance or commitment against a decision (Jago, 1978) and the nature of the situation and subordinates to decide the degree to which the group is to be included in decision making process (Raza & Zaidi, 2003; Yukl, 2001; Vroom, 2000). Similarly, the situational leadership model of Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard describes telling, selling, participating, and delegating behaviors of leader based on four readiness levels of subordinates (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969).

Functional models mainly help the leaders to search out plans of action that they must address to achieve their goals (Businessballs, 2017).

Integrated/psychological models integrate the inner psychological processes and thoughts of leaders (Businessballs, 2017). Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory addresses the psychic behavior of the leader, follower, and their relationship based on three virtues namely the rules, firmness, and gentleness. To be effective in this regard, set and explain rules for peaceful employees; handle violent and offensive employees with iron hand; and deal gently with friendly employees (Gill, 2012).

The Emerging Views

After the above typologies of leadership models, an introduction of emerging view points about leadership i.e. vision, charisma, transactional/transformational leadership seems to be complementary. *Visionary leader*, guided by self-efficacy, power orientation, and cognitive capability i.e. the cause-and-effect chains of the leader (Gill, 2012), transforms the organizational culture in line with his vision about the future of organization (Sashkin, 1988).

In chapter 14: 'charisma and its transformations' of his book *Economy and Society*, published in 1922, Max Weber created three models of legitimacy: tradition, charisma, and legal-rational (Epley, 2015). Weber (1922) describes *charismatic leaders* as individuals, neither appointed nor professionally trained, from psychic, physical, economic, ethical, religious, or political fields with supernatural gifts of body and mind. According to him charisma is seen "as a process of influence and commitment that would arise in opposition to traditional bureaucracy" (Gill, 2012: 91). House (1977) provides an updated version of charisma as a consequence of the relationship between leader and followers. Charismatic leaders create values that shape organizations but these values may not sustain in case the leader is gone (Ciulla, 1999). *Transactional leadership*, according to Gill (2012), is based upon management by exception and contingent reward. The former sets objectives and performance standards and responds to problems as arise or in certain cases responds to and fills the target gaps enforcing standards, whereas the later involves financial or psychological rewards against the expected performance. According to the author, transactional leaders are strongly directive. *Transformational leaders*, on the contrary, help their subordinates perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985). They transform the organizational culture in line with their vision about the future of organization (Sashkin, 1988); practice management by wandering around (MBWA); assess individual potentials, assign jobs accordingly, delegate authority; and provide developmental feedback (Gill, 2012).

Redefining Leadership

Despite the extended literature available on leadership, a continuous struggle is on its way to redefine the leadership to provide a more integrated and interdisciplinary conceptual framework. Burns (2001) has summarized a general theory of leadership consisting of six

universal principles employable in different situations. An effective leader defines and communicates a valid and appealing *vision*; defines and communicates a valid and appealing *mission/purpose*; identifies, displays, promotes and reinforces shared *values* in support of the vision, mission, and strategies; develops, communicates and implements rational *strategies*; takes in account the *empowerment* of people to help them do what needs to be done; and values the *engagement* of people to influence, motivate, and inspire them to do what is needed to be done.

The Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model

With this discussion of the leadership, now we present an account of the Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership model, its application in educational settings, and the impact of leadership style of the teacher on the performance of students for the purpose of this study.

Originally called the life cycle approach, it puts forward the directive and supportive dimensions of leadership applicable differently in different situations. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1981), the leader must learn the situation and select a style accordingly. The situational leadership model is a useful tool that could help leaders in all types of organizations to achieve their targets. It actually addresses the task behavior, relationship behavior of the leader and the readiness level of employees (Hersey & Blanchard, 1984). Basically the model dictates that there is no single way to lead teams. The leader needs to select the way that best suits in a particular situation depending upon the readiness levels of followers. The model describes the followers' readiness as their ability, willingness and the level they assume responsibility to perform organizational tasks. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) explained that with the increase in level of readiness, the leader needs to adapt the task/relationship behavior to improve the confidence and performance of followers as shown in figure 1 where the model recommends four basic styles.
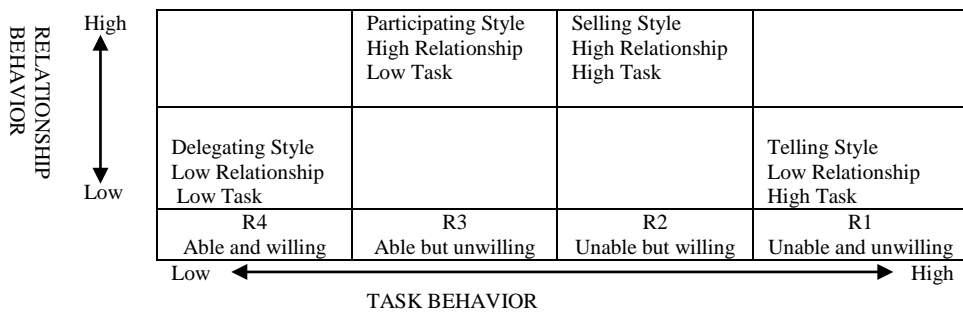
	Participating Style High Relationship Low Task	Selling Style High Relationship High Task	
Delegating Style Low Relationship Low Task			Telling Style Low Relationship High Task
R4 Able and willing	R3 Able but unwilling	R2 Unable but willing	R1 Unable and unwilling

RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR: High ↕ Low

TASK BEHAVIOR: Low ←——————→ High

Figure 1. Adapted from: "Paul Hersey, *Situational Selling: An Approach for Increasing Sales Effectiveness.* Escondido, Calif.: Center for Leadership Studies, 1985, p. 32".

Telling Style: When the follower is unable and unwilling, the model calls for telling style according to the task behavior. The follower lacks capability and is unwilling or insecure about the tasks. In this case more emphasis is on task and less on relationship.

Selling Style: When the follower is unable but willing, the model calls for selling style to the task behavior. Here the follower lacks capability but is willing or confident to perform the task. In this case, there is a high relationship and high task consideration to facilitate performance.

Participating Style: When the follower is able but unwilling, the model calls for participating style to the task behavior. Here the follower possesses capability but is unwilling or insecure about the tasks. In this case, there is a high relationship and low task consideration to facilitate performance.

Delegating Style: When the follower is able and willing, the model calls for delegating style according to the task behavior. The follower possesses capability and is willing or confident about the tasks. In this case, there is less emphasis is on task and relations.

Gill (2012) has combined Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership model with the interdisciplinary approach of Burns (2001) elaborating what to do in which style for better application as given in table 3.

Table 3

Application of Six Core Leadership Themes and Practices: Ability and Willingness

Unable and Willing (Selling Style)	Able and Willing (Delegating Style)
Vision	Vision
Purpose	Purpose
Strategy	
Empowerment	
Unable and Unwilling (Telling Style)	Able and Unwilling (Participating Style)
Vision	Vision
Purpose	Purpose
Value	Value
Strategy	Engagement
Empowerment	
Engagement	

Adapted from: Gill (2012:105)

To conclude, the leaders should be flexible and adjust their styles according to the willingness and capacity of the followers. The model also implies that if correct style is used in low readiness situation, followers will become mature and grow in their abilities and confidence. The leader actually understands followers' development and flexible response, and becomes less directive as followers improve their willingness and capability (Hersey 1997).

Application of Hersey and Blanchard's Model in Teaching

Like other fields, Hersey and Blanchard's situation model has also been studied in education. Clark (1981) completed his doctoral study under the supervision of Ken Blanchard, a co-author of the model, and noted an improvement in the learning environment for students and the teaching environment for educators when the teacher used situational leadership model. Halima (2006) too, has reported the success of this model in educational settings at University of Rabat, Morocco.

In order to understand the application of this model in education, it may be beneficial to have a look on instructional leadership.

Instructional leadership

The worth of instructional leadership becomes evident from the fact that the performance of teachers and students is associated with the type of leadership that prevails in academic environment of the school (Karadag, Bektas, Cogaltay, & Yalcin, 2015) and the culture and climate of the institution (MacNeil, Prater, & Busch, 2009) that may impact the attainment of quality academic standards. Preparing teachers as leaders is a common goal of teacher education programs (Rogers & Scales, 2013), hence 'teaching' and 'leading' should be put in the same compartment (Mangin & Stoelinga, 2010).

A teacher performs different duties and roles in school (Raza, Majid, & Abid, 2010) such as "practicing the duties of a leader, including instructional or non-instruction based activities, within their school" (Carter, 2017, P.14). Mangin and Stoelinga (2010) have established the potential of teachers working at different positions for contributing towards school improvement, stressing the formalization of instructional leadership roles. Alam and Ahmed (2017) have too summarized studies as, the principal cannot lead alone; leadership is a collective concern; the changes facing schools today call for teachers to lead the way in making the change effective; teacher leaders are found to be powerful sources of effective and positive school change; and teachers need other teachers to help them lead within their classrooms to support students' achievement in academic and social terms.

In order to understand how the model works in teaching leadership, Halima (2006) enlists the behaviors of teachers in using different teaching styles as given in the table 4 below.

Table 4

Teaching Styles and Corresponding Behaviors

Teacher Behavior	Teaching Style	Teacher Behavior Explained
Directive Teacher Behavior	Telling (R1) (redressing teaching style)	Defines what, were, when, how and by whom to be done. Controls and observes students' work closely under his/ her supervision. Predomination of one way communication. Gives extra instruction according to the situation. Makes decisions for students' regarding teaching/learning activities.
	Selling (R2) (persuading style)	Defines what, were, when, how, why and by whom to be done. Makes and explain decisions. Encourages students' questions. Allows two way communications. Asks questions to know the students level of competence.
Supportive Teacher Behavior	Participating (R3) teaching style	Encouraging students' participation. Listening to students. Encouraging decision making. Two way communication. Praising student's achievement. Building confidence.
	Delegating (R4) (empowering style)	Delegating task and responsibilities of teaching/learning. Delegating students' decision making. Decreasing control on students' activities. Supports students' results.

Adapted from: Halima (2006)

Impact of Instructional leadership on Students' Achievements

Tatlah and Iqbal (2012) have reported the effectiveness of selling style in the performance of school. Teacher leadership has a positive effect on students' achievement (Carter, 2017; Seashore, Dretzke, & Wahlstrom, 2010; Robinson, 2007). Heaven and Bourne (2016) have noted a positive, though weak, relationship of instructional leadership with students' performance. Similarly, Alam and Ahmed (2017) report an impact of instructional leadership on the achievement of students in Pakistani primary schools.

The present study too, is designed to explore the performance of students in classroom teaching by applying the four leadership styles as given by Hersey and Blanchard leadership model according to the students' readiness level. Here teacher acts as leader and students as followers. According to Halima (2006), the teacher is required to carry out new and multiple roles that go beyond the traditional role of knowledge transfer. The teacher as leader is supposed to develop teaching materials and methods and define performance norms and impose them in the class providing students the opportunity for growth and development in order to achieve the goals and needs of the education system.

Framework of the Study

Based on the review of literature and opinion of experts, the following framework for the current study was developed.
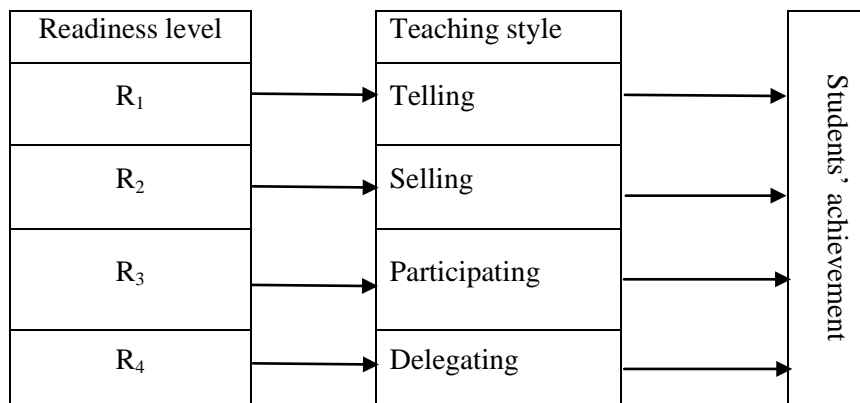

Figure 2. Framework of the study

Research Methodology

In the positivistic research domain, this study was experimental in nature and a pretest-posttest design was used to collect the data by the second author for her MPhil thesis from where this paper is derived by the first author.

Quantitative method was used to collect the data. The study consisted of two parts. In the first part, students of experimental group were divided into four categories by using the readiness level measurement techniques. After pre-test of control and experimental groups, treatment was given over a period of 10 weeks to the experimental group. In the second part, posttest was conducted for both, the control and experimental groups, to collect the quantitative data.

All the 150 students of grade VIII of an urban school for girls constituted the population of the study. From these students of grade VIII, 80 students were selected systematically. Students were divided into two equal groups of 40 each. One group was labeled as control group and the other as experimental group which was given treatment.

In the first part of the study, a self-constructed questionnaire prepared on general and environmental preferences bases, was used (after expert evaluation and piloting) for measuring the readiness level of the students belonging to experimental group. On the basis of the results of this activity, 40 students of experimental group were divided into four categories of readiness level, according to the following criteria.

Table 5
Readiness Level Selection Criteria

Category	% age	Readiness level
I	Up to 25 % positive response	Unable and unwilling; R1
II	26-50% positive response	Unable but willing; R2
III	51-75% positive response	Able but unwilling; R3
IV	Above 75% positive response	Able and willing; R4

In the second part of the study, pre-test of both experimental and control groups were conducted and achievement scores were calculated. The chapter 5, 6, and 7 of General Science book VIII of Punjab Textbook Board Lahore, were selected as syllabus for teaching to control and experimental groups. Pretest and posttest questions were selected from the previous five year papers of Punjab Examination Commission (PEC) approved by the related experts.

For posttest, the control group was taught the same content as per traditional methods of teaching and the experimental group was taught by following the four styles as suggested by Hersey and Blanchard model, to the students of four categories of readiness levels given in table 1 and 5 above. At the end, posttest was conducted for both the groups and achievement scores were calculated.

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were employed to analyze the data. Percentages are used to categorize the readiness levels of the experimental group students as given in table 1 and 5 above for the purpose of question 1 and 2 of the study. Frequencies, mean scores and standard deviations are calculated for the purpose of question 3 of the study. Independent samples *t*-test and one-way ANOVA are used to establish the impact of (teaching) leadership styles of the teacher on the performance of the students for the purpose of question 4 of the study.

Results

There were 40 students in the control and 40 in the experimental group. The participants' strength in readiness level/treatment categories was as; delegating 11 (13.8%), participating 15 (18.8%), selling 8 (10%), and telling 6 (7.5%).

Table 6
Pretest Achievement Scores of Class VIII Control and Experimental Groups

Category	Control Group			Experimental Group			Independent samples *t*-test	
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t*-value	*p*-value
Pre-test	40	31.63	8.88	40	33.80	8.15	-1.14	0.25
Post-test	40	31.58	8.10	40	37.25	6.03	-3.64	0.00

No significant difference is found between the achievement scores of control group and experimental group before intervention. Whereas, a significant difference in mean scores of control group (31.58) and experimental group (37.25) is found i.e. the achievement scores of experimental group are better than those of control group. Secondly, the pretest-posttest performance of control group is almost same whereas there is a marked such difference in the performance of experimental group as a consequence of intervention by using techniques as given in Hersey and Blanchard situational model.

The pretest-posttest style split analysis of control group also reveals significant differences in the mean scores.

Table 7

Level of Pretest-Posttest Performance of Control and Experimental Groups

Category	Control Group			Experimental Group				
	N	*M*	*SD*	Intervention Technique	R Level	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Pre-test	40	31.63	8.88	Telling	R_1	6	20.67	3.72
				Selling	R_2	8	28.00	5.25
				Participating	R_3	11	37.00	4.56
				Delegating	R_4	15	39.80	2.83
				Total group		40	33.80	8.15
Post-test	40	31.58	8.10	Telling	R_1	6	26.83	4.72
				Selling	R_2	8	37.00	4.56
				Participating	R_3	11	39.80	2.83
				Delegating	R_4	15	40.63	4.59
				Total group		40	37.25	6.03

Pre-test			Post-test			Pre-test			Post-test		
N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
40	31.63	8.88	40	31.58	8.10	40	33.80	8.15	40	37.25	6.03
Independent samples *t*-test						Independent samples *t*-test					
t-value			*p*-value			*t*-value			*p*-value		
0.026			0.97			-2.15			0.03		

The posttest mean scores of style split of experimental group are significantly higher than their pretest scores especially in the telling and selling styles as compared with participating and delegating styles. The mean score of telling style though is improved in posttest; it is less than the mean score of control group before and after intervention.

Table 8

One-Way ANOVA for Pretest-Posttest Performance Scores of Control and Experimental Group with Telling, Selling, Participating, and Delegating Styles

Test	Factors	Sum of Squares	*d*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
Pretest	Between Groups	2051.279	4	512.82	10.36	0.00
	Within Groups	3713.108	75	49.51		
	Total	5764.387	79			
Posttest	Between Groups	1542.504	4	385.63	8.83	0.00
	Within Groups	3273.883	75	43.65		
	Total	4816.388	79			

There is a significant difference in the pretest-posttest performance scores of control and experimental group with telling, selling, participating, and delegating styles. But where these differences could actually be found, that is evident from the table 9 given below.

Table 9

Tukey HSD Multiple Comparisons of Control and Treatment Groups for Pretest and Posttest

Test	(I) Treatment	(J) Treatment Mean Difference (I-J)			
		Delegating	Participating	Selling	Telling
Pretest	Control	-5.375	-8.175(*)	3.625	10.958(*)
	Delegating		-2.800	9.000	16.333(*)
	Participating			11.800(*)	19.133(*)
	Selling				7.333
Posttest	Control	-5.675	-8.475(*)	-9.300(*)	4.492
	Delegating		-2.800	-3.625	10.167(*)
	Participating			-0.825	12.967(*)
	Selling				13.792(*)

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

There is a significant difference of achievement scores between control and participating and telling categories of experimental group at pretest level where participating category has higher achievement than control and telling has lower achievement than control. Intra treatment group analysis indicates that delegating has significant higher achievement than telling and that participating has higher significant achievement than both selling and telling styles.

In posttest comparison, the achievement of experimental group is significantly higher than that of control group except delegating and telling styles and within readiness level groups; the achievement of delegating, participating and selling is higher than that of telling style.

Discussion

In pursuance of the first research question of the study the readiness level of the students was to be measured in terms of R_1, R_2, R_3, and R_4 according to Hersey & Blanchard situational model.

Using the procedure listed in methodology section, the level of readiness was measured and the 40 students in the experimental group were distributed to the treatment categories as delegating 11 (able and willing; R_4), participating 15 (able but unwilling; R_3), selling 8 (unable but willing; R_2), and telling 6 (unable and unwilling; R_1) students. In this way the first research question is answered here in line with Hersey and Blanchard (1969).

To answer the second research question, telling style was employed to the students with R1 level of readiness; selling style was employed to the students with R2 level of readiness; participating style was employed to the students with R3 level of readiness; and delegating style was employed to the students with R4 level of readiness in line with the guidelines of model provided by Hersey and Blanchard (1977; 1969).

For the purpose of third research question, the level of posttest achievements in terms of mean scores of the four teaching interventions employed to the experimental group are found as telling (R1), 26.83; selling (R2), 37.00; participating (R3), 39.83; and delegating (R4), 40.63 which are higher than their pretest scores and that of the control group (31.58) except for the telling category regardless the fact that it has been improved from 20.67 (pretest) to 26.83 (posttest). It means that the level of performance of R_1, R_2, R_3, and R_4 students has been improved as a consequence of the application of guidelines provided by Hersey and Blanchard (1977; 1969). These findings support the work of Carter (2017), Heaven and Bourne (2016), Tatlah and Iqbal (2012), Seashore, Dretzke and Wahlstrom, 2010; Robinson, 2007, Halima (2006) and Clark (1981).

For providing answer to the fourth research question, it is found that the posttest performance of experimental group (37.25) is significantly higher than the performance of control group (31.58) indicating a significant positive impact on the performance of students as a consequence of instructional leadership style of the teacher (Carter, 2017; Heaven & Bourne, 2016). Multi comparison shows a significant difference of achievement score between control group and participating and telling categories at pretest level where participating category has higher achievement than control and telling has lower achievement than control. Intra treatment group analysis indicates that delegating has higher achievement than telling and participating has higher achievement than both selling and telling. In posttest, participating and selling categories of experimental group have significantly higher performance than control group (Tatlah & Iqbal, 2012; Halima, 2006). Intra group analysis reveals a significant higher performance of delegating, participating, and selling against telling group despite the fact that their posttest performance has been improved as compared with their pretest scores.

Interestingly, the highest performance impact is noticed in case of selling group reflecting the importance of guidance and facilitation provided by the instructional leader to this group (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; 1969).

To sum up the discussion, it has been revealed that the application of situational leadership model of Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard has established its significant impact on the performance of students as a consequence of effective instruction where the teacher plays the role of instructional leader and can improve the performance of students with the application of teaching styles provided by this model.

Conclusion

On the basis of findings, the study concludes that participants of the experimental group can safely be distributed in R_1, R_2, R_3, and R_4 readiness levels to teach them with delegating, participating, selling, and telling styles of the situational leadership model of Hersey and Blanchard.

It is concluded that at posttest level, there is a significant difference in the scores of control group and experimental group as a consequence of intervention by applying delegating, participating, selling, and telling styles of the situational leadership model of Hersey and Blanchard. It is also concluded that the posttest performance of individual intervention categories has been improved against that of the control group except for telling which did improve against its pretest score.

It is further concluded that there is a significant difference in the pretest and posttest achievement scores of the students which shows a significant impact of situational model given by Hersey and Blanchard on the performance of students. The highest significant improvement is noticed in selling category of the intervention categories among all other categories.

Recommendations

There are some recommendations based on the basis of results which may enhance the quality of impact of leadership style of the teacher on the performance of students.

The present study was conducted on students of grade 8 of a private school. Further research should be carried on to produce more data through extended and varied samples from public as well as private schools.

The study has proved the significant impact of instructional leadership style of the teacher on the performance of students. But, for an individual teacher it is very difficult to organize the content in line with the four teaching styles recommended by the Hersey and Blanchard model. Therefore, educational administrators are recommended to chalk out plans for the training of teachers under this model to get the improved performance of students, a major national education objective.

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