

DISSERTATION

LEADERSHIP STYLE COMPARISON:
IOWA COMMUNITY COLLEGE PRESIDENTS AND SUPERINTENDENTS
AND THE IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE PERCEIVED BY THE BOARD
PRESIDENTS OF THESE ORGANIZATIONS

Submitted by

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In partial fulfillment of the requirements

For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Colorado State University

Fort Collins, Colorado

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ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

LEADERSHIP STYLE COMPARISON: IOWA COMMUNITY COLLEGE PRESIDENTS AND SUPERINTENDENTS AND THE IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE PERCEIVED BY THE BOARD PRESIDENTS OF THESE ORGANIZATIONS

This study focused on one aspect of educational leadership called leadership styles to determine if any significant statistical differences in leadership style exist between Iowa community college presidents and K-12 superintendents. A second research question to determine if any significant statistical difference existed in the ideal leadership style for these positions as perceived by the board presidents at Iowa community colleges and K-12 districts. The study focus was a shortage of administration and the possibility of alleviating the shortage by expanding to K-14 governance.

Bolman and Deal's (1997) Leadership Orientation Questionnaire was used as it measures four leadership styles: structural, human resource, political and symbolic. The results found a difference in symbolic leadership style preference with the community college president more likely to use this style of leadership. No differences were discovered in the ideal leadership styles identified by the board presidents. Therefore, the door is open to further study about instituting a K-14 governance structure in Iowa.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Background

Not long ago, school districts across the nation merely had to post a superintendent vacancy notice and the district received between 50 and 100 qualified applicants for each position (Trends and Issues, para. 1). Today, according to the Education Commission of the States (ECS), most states currently report a shortage of candidates for the superintendent's position. Three factors account for the shortage of school superintendents and/or candidates for the superintendency: a high retirement rate among current administrators (Leadership (K-12): Recruitment/Retention, P. 1); a 42% turnover in principals, who usually have been groomed for the superintendency; and an increase in the number of months required to fill superintendent vacancies (Leadership (K-12): Recruitment/Retention-Quick Facts, P.1).

Community colleges face a similar situation. Two surveys, conducted three years apart, reflect the imminent exodus of community college presidents. Vaughan and Weisman (1998) conducted a survey of community college presidents and found that 79% plan to retire within the next 10 years. Likewise, an American Association of Community Colleges on-line survey discovered that 45% of responding community college presidents plan to retire between 2001 and 2007 (Shults, 2001). A survey does not

bind a person to an action; however, these two surveys indicate between 50 to 75% of the community college presidents plan to retire by 2007.

Therefore, replacing these veteran K-14 leaders may be difficult. A review of the literature points to three significant factors that contribute to the challenge of filling current and future community college president and K-12 superintendent positions. These factors are: a retiring workforce, a limited pool of professionals, and dwindling financial resources (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Glass, 2001; Weisman & Vaughan, 2002).

Retiring Workforce

As mentioned earlier, the national picture for K-12 superintendents and community college presidents shows the potential for a high rate of vacancies occurring as a result of retirement. A recent survey of Iowa school superintendents found that Iowa is no exception to this national trend with 35.9% of 224 superintendents eligible for retirement within the next five years (Iowa Administrator Retirement Study, 1999). Likewise, there is a parallel trend occurring within the fifteen Iowa community colleges. According to Ebbers (personal communication, April 6, 2002), Iowa has experienced a 60% turnover within the community college presidency since 2000 with six of these nine vacancies due to retirement. Along with these administrators, many mid- and executive-level (deans and vice-presidents) community college administrators are retiring as well (Shults, 2001).

Applicant Pool

In addition to the superintendents and community college presidents retiring, many faculty members also are reaching retirement age, thus reducing the pool of quality applicants available for these administrative positions. For example, data from the Labor

Management Information Bureau predicted the upcoming teacher shortage. These data indicate that nationwide nearly one-half the current K-12 faculty will be eligible to retire within the next decade (Teacher recruitment, P.3). Likewise, when the Iowa State Education Association (ISEA) polled its members, results indicated that 40% of its membership will be eligible for retirement within the next five years (What's New—The Shortage at a Glance, P.1). Since the typical career path to superintendency progresses from faculty to principal to superintendent, these retirements reduce the K-12 superintendent applicant pool.

Similarly, the career path for developing community college leaders begins within the faculty ranks and having faculty ready to retire interrupts this typical progression (Shults, 2001). Further compounding this problem of finding qualified applicants within the college system is that many of the community college faculty members lack the credentials necessary to become a community college president. The majority of the mid-level community college executives hold the master's degree, yet a doctorate is generally a prerequisite for a community college presidency (Vaughan & Weisman, 1998).

However, two other groups, women and ethnic minorities, are underrepresented in administration. Although ethnic minorities are the fastest growing segment of the United States population, they comprise the lowest representation in the field of educational leadership. For example, Iowa community college faculty in the 2000-2001 fiscal year reported having a 3.49% ethnic minority representation on the staff. During the same fiscal year, 58% of Iowa community college staff members were female (Year-End Data-Human Resources, 2001). Similarly, while 58% of the community college student body

is female, only 18% of community college presidents are female according to a 1998 survey (Vaughan & Weisman, 1998). Currently in Iowa, only 2 of 15 community college presidents are women, and none belong to ethnic minority groups (Year-End Data-Human Resources, 2001).

If the applicant pool is to be expanded, women and minorities with academic preparation and experiences necessary to be a K-12 superintendent or a community college president must be encouraged to apply. Women and minorities are underrepresented as evidenced in Iowa by having 58% of the community college staff as females and 13% women community college presidents (Year-End Data--Human Resources, 2001). Programs have been created to mentor women and minorities nationally (Hudson & Williamson, 2002) and in Iowa (Charles, 2000).

Financial Resources

Self-selection or non-selection of educational administrative careers often occurs before boards of education can provide financial incentives to pursue administrative careers. Furthermore, many students planning to teach, and therefore, enter the pipeline for future leadership positions never make it to the classroom because the private sector offers more attractive financial incentives to accept positions in business and industry (Teacher Recruitment, P. 2-3).

While the majority of community college faculty do not have a doctorate and thus are not currently potential candidates for the community college presidency, ample number of high school faculty are qualified and credentialed school administrators who possess the state endorsement to be a principal. However, low pay in comparison to the required time on task, job stress, and workload cause many potential applicants to

conclude that administrative positions are less than attractive avenues for professional advancement (Leadership (K-12): Recruitment/Retention, P. 1).

Adding to these challenges is the government's declining financial support for graduate education, perceived low salary and benefits for administrators, and the private sector competing for talented leaders all further impact Iowa's ability to fill educational leadership vacancies (Glass, 2001). When the State of Iowa enacted a 4.3% across-the-board cut to all educational systems during the 2001-2002 fiscal year, both K-12 and community colleges were impacted by this decision (State Aid Reduction Information, P.1). These financial constraints caused job stressors for administrators. As a result, administrative opportunities in business and industry look all the more appealing, and hence, limit education's ability to successfully compete with private industry for talented employees (Meeting the Challenges of Recruitment & Retention, National Education Association, P. 17).

An Intervention Strategy

It has been suggested in the literature that intervention will be necessary to meet the challenges of providing quality leadership in Iowa schools and community colleges (Gates, Ross & Brewer, 2002; Glass, 2001; Lashway, 1997). While there are numerous intervention strategies reported, one that has begun to attract some notice in the state of Iowa is a proposed change in the governance structure of K-12 and community colleges.

The Iowa Legislature attempted to find solutions to funding education by establishing a committee to study the governance structure in Iowa's K-14 educational system. In November 1999 Dr. Katherine Boswell from the Education Commission of the States addressed Iowa's Governance System Committee. She called for legislators to

offer a way to establish K-16 institutions (Final Report of Community College Governance System Study Committee, 1999).

By suggesting that Iowa consider developing K-16 systems, Boswell opened the door for others to consider what they felt was a more obtainable consolidation in a K-14 plan. Vision 2020 was created specifically to develop a seamless transition for students in a K-14 setting using the rationale that Iowa's K-12 and community colleges share similar educational goals, and both have an open door policy (Cohen & Brawer, 1994; Carney, 1999). The Education Study Committee decided not to accept Boswell's rationale and recommendation to combine K-12 and community college and four year college leadership positions because they feared that a K-16 or K-14 governance structure would be unresponsive to local control efforts. In addition, the system would lose the connection to the communities served by the organization (Final Report of Community College Governance System Study Committee, 1999).

Boswell made many interesting assumptions in suggesting her K-16 plan that are worthy of exploring. That governance can be expanded to cover K-16 or K-14 (Final Report of Community College Governance System Study Committee, 1999) assumes that many facets of leadership such as knowledge and experience for the combined position of K-12 superintendent and community college president as well as the leadership style required for the position are at least similar if not the same. Another consideration for this assumption is the community college and the K-12 board presidents' perception of the ideal leadership style for their institution is similar if not the same. Since one study can not cover all facets the suggested K-14 governance model includes, this study examined Iowa's K-12 superintendents' and community college presidents' leadership styles to

identify any similarities that may exist; it also identified the ideal leadership style for each position as perceived by their respective board presidents for similarities.

Statement of the Research Problem

There have been many studies of leadership styles in the field of education. Leadership studies have been conducted with community college presidents (Bax, 1994; Harrison, 2000; Lappas, 1996; Wen, 1999), superintendents (Ford, 1999; Schmit, 1998) and on the general topic of school leadership (Sheski, 1999; Shevey, 1999). Comparisons between the leadership style of community college presidents and K-12 superintendents are not found in the literature.

Past leadership studies were completed for various reasons. Some studies sought to prove a relationship between the leader's style and the organization's effectiveness (Wen, 1999). Other studies sought to compare the leader's self-perception of style to the perception of others within the leader's organization (Brewer, 1987; Schmit, 1998). But no studies were found that asked the K-12 and community college board presidents to identify the ideal leadership style for their respective institutions.

This study compares the leadership styles of community college presidents and K-12 superintendents in Iowa and the ideal leadership style as perceived by the board presidents at each community college and K-12 school district. The traditional pipeline of new administrator candidates has been unable to keep up with the demand according to Shults (2001) and the Iowa State Education Association (What's New-The Shortage at a Glance, P. 1). The increased pressure to find new leadership due to the high rate of retirements among educational leaders only serves to make it more difficult to find a qualified educational leader.

Research Questions

This study was organized around two hypotheses. First hypothesis: No statistical differences exist in the leadership styles of Iowa community college presidents and K-12 superintendents in Iowa. Second hypothesis: No statistical difference exists in the perceived ideal leadership style identified by K-12 board presidents and the perceived ideal leadership style identified by community college board presidents.

Bolman and Deal's Four Major Leadership Styles (Frames)

Bolman and Deal (1997) studied various leadership approaches and their application of each in education, business and industry. They categorized the leadership approaches they found into four major leadership styles or frames: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic leadership styles. While a more extensive development of these frames is found within the literature review, a brief overview is presented here.

Structural leadership style frame is characterized by a concern for efficiency and formal roles. Organizations exist to accomplish a specific task (Bolman & Deal, 1997). People within the organization are successful to the extent that a division of labor occurs which defines each member's role. Taylor (1916/1996) labeled this division of labor as scientific management. In the past, laborers were under the watchful eye of one leader in a hierarchical structure (Weber, 1946/1996). Modern organizational structure utilizes different individuals as leaders to capitalize on the talents in the organization (Helgesen, 1995). The structural leadership style frame is built on the belief that the correct rules and roles for individuals decrease problems and raise productivity (Bolman & Deal, 1997).

Human resource leadership style frame is based on the belief that organizations exist to serve human needs (Bolman & Deal, 1997). Organizations benefit from the

development of a shared vision (Roe, 1992). Maslow's hierarchies of human need serve as a background for the human resource leadership style frame. People must have their basic needs fulfilled before maximization of effort can be achieved (Maslow, 1943/1996). McGregor (1957/1996) further explored two theories about management's view of people. Theory X managers believed that people need direction and money motivates people. Theory Y managers believed people were wanting to be successful. Helgesen (1995) discovered that organizations that fail to meet human needs pay more for their employees. Therefore, human resource leadership style frame places a premium on creating the optimum fit between the people and their organization. This fit between people and the organization satisfies the need for people to devote their energy and talents toward the organization's goal for the benefit of both (Bolman & Deal, 1997).

The third leadership style is the political frame. Political leaders understand that within their organization exist various coalitions of individuals or interest groups. These coalitions constantly struggle for control of scarce resources. Despite differences between individuals or groups, they at times find common ground to seek scarce resources together before parting ways again (Bolman & Deal, 1997). This struggle for power occurs outside the formal hierarchy. Pfeffer (1981/1996) notes the exercise of power at work is politics. Power can be used to create the capacity to be successful or to develop the cooperation necessary to accomplish a task (Kanter, 1979/1996). Bolman and Deal (1997) believe the political leadership style frame opens the door for goals and decisions to surface through bargaining and various coalitions within the organization.

The last leadership style frame is symbolic. The symbolic leadership style seeks to define and give meaning to both the individual and the organization (Bolman & Deal,

1997). The pace of change in the workplace has created a feeling of ambiguity and uncertainty. These feelings are overcome by the development of the organization's culture. The culture is created by rituals and ceremonies that serve to provide meaning to the individuals and the organization (Owens, 1995). Overtime, the rituals and ceremonies validate the past and inspire the new employees (Schein, 1992). Leaders are always accountable for the organization's goals. However, good leaders acknowledge team and culture building as the cornerstone to meeting the basic human need for meaning. "Peak performance emerges as a team discovers its soul" (Bolman & Deal, 1997, p. 262).

Bolman and Deal started developing a means to measure the leadership styles of business, industry and educational leaders in the 1980s. The instrument they developed measures all four leadership styles as leaders face complex situations that move at a rapid pace through an organization (Bolman & Deal, 1997). Their instrument goes beyond identifying the one best leadership style.

Instrument

Bolman and Deal's (1997) survey instrument was developed following their research that reduced the various leadership categories to four major approaches previously described. The survey instrument allowed this researcher to compare the leadership styles of community college presidents and K-12 superintendents and the ideal community college presidents' and K-12 superintendents' leadership styles as perceived by their board presidents. The data to make these comparisons were collected on Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation Questionnaire (LOQ).

A leader could apply any one style or combination of styles to a given situation. Bolman and Deal (1997) went beyond the emphasis on task and relationship behavior in

the creation of this instrument. Each leadership style the instrument measures are related to one or more of the identified four major approaches to leadership presented in this study. This instrument is explored and discussed in more detail in the Review of Literature and in the Methods section of Chapter 3.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions of terms have a special meaning within the field of education. The definitions are provided for better understanding of the study:

1. Leadership Orientation – Leadership orientation, also referred to as leadership frames, is a belief that leaders respond in four preferred ways to a given situation. In this study, frames will be used synonymously with styles. The four frames or styles identified by Bolman and Deal (1994) are structural, human resource, political, and symbolic.

2. Leadership Style – Behavior and actions taken by an individual to influence and demonstrate for others how to obtain the goals of the organization. Sometimes this term is used to mean the same as leadership orientation or leadership frame (Bolman & Deal, 1997).

3. Transactional Leader – Transactional leader can be used interchangeably for authoritarian leader. This type of leader is mainly concerned with getting the organization's goals accomplished through the use of rewards (Kouzes & Posner, 1995).

4. Transformational Leader – This type of president or superintendent possesses the ability to inspire individuals within the organization to have a shared vision and to demonstrate behaviors that enable the organization to reach its goals (Baker, 1992).

Delimitations

This study has several delimitations. First, the study involves only Iowa community college presidents and K-12 superintendents and their respective board presidents. Secondly, the study is limited by the definition of leadership assumed by the instrument filled out by the presidents, superintendents and the board presidents of each institution. Finally, the study was not intended to determine the leadership effectiveness of the individuals being surveyed in each educational setting but only the self-perception of the leadership style by the presidents, superintendents and board presidents of each institution.

Limitations

There are only a few limitations that affect this study. First, the study was limited by the self-selection rate of Iowa's community college presidents, superintendents and the board presidents of each institution. This survey was sent through the regular mail service, and the assumption of truthful answers was used based on the individual making the effort to fill out and return the form. Secondly, the population size of Iowa community college presidents being equal to 15 limits the confidence level associated with any generalizations to larger populations.

Significance of the Study

Both the community college board and the local school board seek to select a new president or superintendent by matching an individual's leadership style with the needs of the educational institution (Barwick, 2002; Shaw, 2003). This researcher sought to compare the leadership styles of Iowa's community college presidents and K-12 superintendents. In addition, the study compared the ideal leadership style for these two

positions as perceived by the board presidents of Iowa's community colleges and K-12 schools.

The study used Bolman and Deal's survey instrument to determine the types of leadership styles employed by the community college presidents and K-12 superintendents in Iowa (Bolman & Deal, 1997). This study attempts to determine whether a similar set of leadership styles exists between community college presidents and K-12 superintendents. Similarly, this study examined the ideal leadership style as identified by the K-12 and community college board presidents for commonality in leadership style desired by these respective board presidents.

Leadership style is but only one piece of being an educational leader at either the community college or K-12 level. However, if leadership styles are shown to be a close match between Iowa's community college presidents and K-12 superintendents and the board presidents' perception of the ideal, then future studies are worth pursuing to study the other facets necessary to be successful in these positions of leadership.

The potential for implementing a K-14 governance structure has increased if the leadership styles and ideal leadership styles are similar. A K-14 governance structure serves to alleviate the pending administrator shortage.

Researcher's Perspective

This researcher, as a current Iowa K-12 superintendent, is extremely interested in the results. The results could expand job opportunities and the educational leader's ability to have a profound impact in the field of education. In addition, this researcher is prepared to assume a leadership role in a new governance structure such as a K-14 system because of the course work undertaken to obtain a doctorate in community

college leadership along with previous education and experience as a K-12 administrator. Experience in this case includes working closely with the local community college to expand the educational opportunities available to the K-12 students. In addition, this researcher's close proximity to a community college has allowed observation of the community college president-doing tasks similar to functions that a K-12 superintendent performs, such tasks include presiding over ceremonial activities, employment practices, financial considerations, and fund raising.

If null hypotheses are correct, then this researcher would enjoy the chance to try using the leadership skills at his disposal to provide positive educational experiences to students in a K-14 system. This study could lead to further consideration of candidates for many leadership roles and more studies on expansion of the effort to explore K-14 governance structures.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

Publicity regarding an impending administrative shortage in the K-14 arena led this researcher to study the shortage and compare leadership styles of Iowa community college presidents and K-12 superintendents as perceived by the board presidents of their respective institutions. While reviewing literature on administrative shortages, this study focused on the retiring workforce, the applicant pool, and intervention strategies. The literature further identified five factors affecting the applicant pool: recruitment, nontraditional leaders, women and minorities, retention, and finances.

Defining leadership has been the subject of intensive study since the early 1900s. Over time, leadership definitions have been based on a variety of beliefs. After reviewing over a thousand studies, Bennis and Nanus (1985) failed to find a common definition of what distinguishes a leader from a follower. In fact, Bennis and Nannus (1985) identified over 850 definitions of leadership.

In an attempt to make sense of the mass of leadership definitions found in the literature, researchers began to group leadership definitions. After reviewing over 300 books and many articles, Rost (1993) identified 110 definitions and grouped them into six different frameworks. Bolman and Deal (1997) studied leadership in many types of organizations. They placed leadership into four major approaches. The approaches are (1) trait, (2) behavioral, (3) situational, and (4) transformational. The literature review

provided the support to base this study on Bolman and Deal's leadership approaches.

This literature review provides an overview of each approach.

Bolman and Deal's (1997) categorization of leadership gained additional favor in this researcher's eyes after reviewing potential survey instruments to use in this study; thus Bolman and Deal's (1997) Frames of Leadership survey instrument was selected for this study. Frames of Leadership measures four leadership styles identified by Bolman and Deal as structural, human resource, political, and symbolic.

The literature review encompasses three major areas: (1) the impending administrator shortage, (2) four approaches to leadership, and (3) the survey instrument. Information has been gathered about the causes and means to overcome the pending administrator shortage. The literature review for this study also provides a rationale as to why Bolman and Deal's (1997) leadership approaches and their survey instrument were used as the basis to conduct the study.

Administrator Shortage

The first part of this literature review is an overview of the impending shortage of K-12 superintendents and community college presidents. In the past, school districts and community colleges believed they could change administration at any time. The adage "Post it and they will come" was a popular belief for school districts (Trends and Issues, para. 1). The opening was posted and the school boards merely sat back and enjoyed a selection process that ended with the district choosing the best candidate from among the large number of applicants.

Within the past few years, reports of shortages have been heard from the National Association of Secondary School Principals and the American Association of School

Administrators (Doud & Keller, 1998). In a quarterly newsletter published by Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning (Changing Schools-Back to School, P. 1), it was pointed out that ten years ago a vacancy notice produced nearly 150 applicants. Today, an administrative opening takes as much as a year to attract and select a replacement (A Crisis in the Making, P. 1). Community colleges held a similar expectation when a vacancy existed for a president's position. The question was never about how many applications were received; yet today, community colleges are fortunate if half of the number from ten years ago apply for a presidency (Kelly, 2002).

Retiring Workforce

The administrator shortage has had many suspected causes. Retirement has been blamed for the majority of the shortage. A quarterly publication by McRel stated that retirements are the number one reason for the shortage (Changing Schools, P. 2). A check of the Education Administrators: State Occupational Projections showed, on average, employment opportunities in each state to be equivalent to 2 to 43% of all educational administrator positions that would be open during the next six years (Education Administrators: State Occupational Projections, P. 1-5). Nationally, a survey conducted by the American Association of School Administrators discovered that 80% of the current superintendents are eligible to retire (Esparro & Rader, 2001). The expected turnover in Iowa was 8%.

This trend has been true for the community college as well: ten years ago a presidential opening brought 100 or more applications. Community college president searches today attract between 25 to 50 applicants (Kelly, 2002). The American Association of Community Colleges discovered in an on-line survey conducted in 2001

that 45% of the community college presidents who responded planned to retire between 2001 and 2007 (Shults, 2001). A 1999 survey of Iowa school superintendents found that 35.9% would be eligible for retirement within the next five years (Iowa Administrator Retirement Study, 1999). Six of Iowa's 15 community colleges have changed presidents within the past two years (Ebberts, personal communication, April 6, 2002).

Applicant Pool

The School Administrators of Iowa predicted in April 2000 that 100 superintendents and 350 principals would retire within the next five years leaving the local Iowa school board members to ponder not whether the shortage of administrators will occur, but how it will affect their school district (Attracting and Retaining, 2000). Iowa community colleges have faced the challenge of replacing four more presidents since April 2002 (Newhouse, personal communication, November 26, 2003). The literature identified five factors affecting the applicant pool: recruitment, nontraditional leaders, women and minorities, retention, and finances.

Recruitment. Community colleges and K-12 districts have struggled to recruit enough people into the applicant pool to make a bona fide selection of a new president or superintendent. Fewer and fewer educators have elected to enter into administration. A superintendent vacancy in Iowa has averaged between 15 to 18 applicants (A Crisis in the Making, P.1). The American Association of School Administrators (AASA) expects more than 1,000 superintendent vacancies each year between 2001 and 2011 (Esparro & Rader, 2001).

In the past, the traditional pipeline has been adequate to supply the community college presidents and K-12 superintendents. The traditional pipeline has been created by

what is called the self-selection process. Self-selection happens as the individual chooses to enter education administration studies. The traditional pipeline has not kept up with administrator demand, and other methods have become necessary. Rather than self-select, school districts need to search for tomorrow's leaders. A key responsibility of leadership is to recruit and develop new leaders; therefore, school districts must actively recruit young people for leadership positions (Hooper, 2001).

The K-12 administration pipeline has been the teacher in the K-12 systems. However, teachers are not enrolling in education administration programs in numbers sufficient to meet the demand according to Christie Johnson, the executive director of the School Administrators of South Dakota. Over the next five to ten years, the Nebraska Council of School Administrators estimates 60% of the current administrators will retire (Changing Schools-Back to School, P. 2).

Some people disagree that the K-12 administrators pipeline has so few to choose from for each opening. They insist many teachers have the proper credentials to be an administrator but are unwilling to tackle the position. In fact, there are literally hundreds of teachers in Iowa who are certified in administration but remain unlikely candidates for any number of reasons (A Crisis in the Making, P.1). Deterrents like high stress, increased expectations, conflicting advice, and ambiguous new roles for administrators are thought to be reasons so many choose to remain in the classroom (Trends and Issues, P. 1). Other factors limiting the self-selection to administrative positions are poor board/superintendent relations, lack of community/parent support, and lack of job security (Esparo & Rader, 2001).

The community college pipeline traditionally has been the faculty. Shults (2001) finds the aging of the faculty mirrors the aging of the community college presidents. Thus, community colleges will have to look beyond the normal pipeline for the next presidential candidate. Kelly (2002) called for community college presidential searches to seek candidates with unusual backgrounds. Iowa's Community College Strategic Plan called for the need to educate more people to be teachers and leaders, as the shortage of personnel due to retirement has become a major force in the staffing of educational institutions (Iowa Department of Education, 2000).

Nontraditional leaders. Faculty organizations have been reluctant to consider presidential candidates from outside academia. Presidential search consultants have faced great difficulty in providing a quality applicant pool let alone sufficient numbers of applicants for a board to consider (Barwick, 2002). Yet, nontraditional community college presidents hold slightly less than 7% of all community college president positions. Weisman and Vaughn (2002) define the nontraditional leader in the community college as a president chosen from outside the vice presidency or academic area assuming a community college presidency. Another form of nontraditional community college president comes from other sectors such as four-year colleges and public schools (Amey & VanDer Linden, 2002).

Requirements are varied across the nation for K-12 superintendency licensure. Iowa superintendents must hold at a minimum a certificate of advanced studies (CAS). This degree requires an individual to have an earned master's degree in educational administration prior to acceptance into a CAS program. Some states are less restrictive, thus allowing a non-educator as a superintendent. In last three years, New Orleans, San

Diego, Seattle and Minneapolis have had non-educators as their superintendent (Shah, 2003).

Hardy (2002) has written in the American School Board Journal about the coming teacher crisis. He states it is here, and it concerns quality and quantity. Hardy further speaks to the shortage in the states of California, Washington, Illinois and Oregon. Hardy addresses the debate over the use of “nontraditional” teacher candidates to fill the vacancies. The nontraditional route has been tried by the K-12 and community college systems for attracting leadership candidates. In a survey of National Association of School Board executive directors and the American Association of School Administrators executive directors, the use of “nontraditional” superintendents as a means to fill vacancies was the sole item of disagreement (Glass, 2001). Community colleges and K-12 school districts are searching for the bottom line and that bottom line is results; whether results are obtained by employing a traditional community college president or K-12 superintendent or not (Mathews, 2001).

Women and minority leaders. Women have struggled since the early 1900s with their place in society. The expected role of women during the time span of 1900 to 1970 was to care for men and children. The community college initially sought to prepare women for careers in health field because of their caring and nurturing ways (Townsend, 1995).

In time women overcame societal norms to become educators, only to be faced with another set of norms that impeded movement from the classroom to administration. In the early 1900s educational leaders made decisions and set priorities without the involvement of the staff. Women have been shown to prefer a leadership style that is

democratic versus autocratic and more relationship oriented than male leaders. Women in leadership tend to adapt to the expectation of being more structural and authoritarian in their leadership style (Hudson & Williamson, 2002).

Other societal norms have deterred women from positions such as the community college presidency or the K-12 superintendency. Traditionally, the family resides in the town in which the male works. If a female wants an administrative position, then she must be prepared to live separately from her family (Harris, Lowery & Arnold, 2002). Therefore, a majority of women in the 1900s were still selecting traditional fields of study (Townsend, 1995).

The literature strongly encouraged educational institutions to hire women and ethnic minorities as leaders. Doing so would make the institution reflect societal change, considering 58% of the students in the nation attending a community college are women (Vaughan, 2002). Yet, the latest survey of community college presidents only found 28% to be women (Vaughan & Weisman, 2002). Women as community college presidents grew by 10% over a three-year period (Vaughan & Weisman, 1998). Ethnic minorities, on the other hand, lag behind the advances made by women into administration.

Ethnic minorities are the fastest growing segment of the American population. But Weisman and Vaughan (2002) have discovered no change in the percentage of minorities as community college presidents from 1996 to 2001; the percentage remained at 14%. The community colleges' current leadership must become more active in the selection of individuals to train for leadership. These 'selected' individuals must include more minority and women in their representation than white males in order to meet the needs of the diverse student population (Kelly, 2002).

Minorities have faced similar difficulty as women have in pursuing an educational administrative position. Cultural or societal norms have hindered minorities from advancing to leadership roles. Minority community college faculty members are often given committee assignments or other tasks that do not provide experiences that develop leadership capacity (Barwick, 2002). Therefore, minorities are underprepared and underrepresented in the community college presidential ranks (Iowa Colleges Struggle to Recruit Minority Leaders, 2003).

Only two of 10 teachers in the K-12 systems, according to a recent National Education Association survey, are men and one in 10 teachers is a minority. In K-12, the teaching staff has been the normal pipeline to administration. However, teaching has become less attractive to men and minorities mainly because these groups can earn more and have less stress in other occupations. Minority students account for 40% of the K-12 student body. Thus, minority students lack sufficient role models, as a majority of teachers are white and female (Feller, 2003).

Women and minorities need to be given the opportunity to lead at either the community college or the K-12 level. Various means provide the support to make a community college presidency or a K-12 superintendency open to women and minorities. First, the door to higher education needs to be cleared of obstacles such as the cost of an education. The budget problems experienced at most community colleges have become known as the “silent killer” of minority enrollments (Evelyn, 2003). Secondly, an educated woman or minority applicant for a community college presidency or a K-12 superintendency needs to face a diverse hiring committee (Kelly, 2002). Finally, community colleges and K-12 school districts actively recruit women and minorities into

leadership positions thus opening the door of opportunity to all qualified candidates (Esparó & Rader, 2001; Kelly, 2002).

Retention of leaders. Retention of educational administrators has surfaced in the literature as a focus to maintain and improve student progress. Strong leadership has been identified as one of the means to increase student achievement. Strong educational leadership has surfaced as a must for ensuring a quality program for students (Summary: Leadership In Crisis, P.1). As stated earlier, the bottom line results in the age of accountability is the goal for K-12 school districts and community colleges (Mathews, 2001; Amey & VanDer Linden, 2002). Therefore, community colleges and K-12 school districts have established administrator retention as a means to ensure quality programs (Esparó & Rader, 2001; Kelly, 2002).

Retaining educational leaders has become a national concern as the larger cities average tenure of the superintendent has dipped to 28 months (Johnson, 2000). The relationship between the chief administrator and the institution's board has played an important role in the retention of an administrator. The administrator and board relationship has to be based on teamwork and accountability. Open and honest communication has become the means to obtaining an optimum working relationship (Attracting, Recruiting and Retaining Quality School Administrators, P.9). The board and superintendent relations play a key role in the retention of the superintendent (Esparó & Rader, 2001). Loss of continuity of leadership impedes the organization from reaching the goals set forth for the student body. Thus, retention of administrators is critical to the success of any educational institution (Prior, personal communication, November 26, 2003).

Finances. There are some who believe the community college presidency has more accountability and funding issues than ever before in the history of community colleges. Likewise, the salaries to attract individuals to being a community college president have failed to keep up with the demands of the job (Little, 2002). This fact coupled with dwindling federal and state financial support has put added pressure on community college boards to fund all aspects of their college (Parinno, 2003).

Nationally, K-12 schools have struggled to make financial ends meet. Portland, Seattle, and New Orleans have deficits in the millions (Bhatt, 2003; Shaw, 2003). In Iowa, K-12 schools received a 4.3% across the board cut in state revenue during the 2001-2002 school year and a 2.5% across the board cut for fiscal year 2004 during October 2003 (Roos, 2003).

State budgets are facing deficits across the nation. Half of the states recently have reduced funding for public schools and higher education. Coupled with the financial burden facing school districts as a result of new Federal legislation, No Child Left Behind, schools are guaranteed more financial difficulties ahead (Colgan, 2003). In fact, a recent Fiscal Survey of States revealed most states are in a fiscal crisis and unable to provide financial relief to public schools and higher education (Smith, Myers & Underwood, 2003).

During financial crises, school administration is normally one of the first areas identified by the public for reduction. This demonstrates a lack of public understanding of the training, education, and experience required to perform the superintendency (Boyce, 2003). In reality, administration skills are more crucial in planning and leadership to manage enrollment decline and financial difficulties (Smette, 2003). The 2000 U.S.

Bureau of Labor Statistics indicated education had a 12.8 to 1 ratio of employees to administration, while the public administration's ratio was 3 to 1 (Forsyth, 2003).

In summary, the applicant pool is being affected by five factors. One factor is the self-selection to transition from the classroom to administration (A Crisis in the Making, P. 1; Esparo & Rader, 2001). K-12 schools and community colleges must recruit individuals to leadership positions (Hooper, 2001; Kelly, 2002). Another factor is a trend to find nontraditional leaders whether the individual is from outside academia or from academia but lacks a background in administration (Weisman & Vaughan, 2002; Amey & VanDer Linden, 2002; Glass, 2001). The third factor affecting the applicant pool is the selection of women and minorities for leadership positions with societal norms and the lack of role models working against their pursuit of a K-12 superintendency or a community college presidency (Feller, 2003; Barwick, 2002; Townsend, 1995). A fourth factor is the educational institution ability to retain those in leadership positions. K-12 schools and community colleges have identified the continuity of leadership as a positive force to ensure a quality school or college (Esparo & Rader, 2001; Kelly, 2002). Finally, the finances necessary to attract and overcome the stress and work load associated with being a K-12 superintendent or a community college president are a major piece in providing a quality applicant pool (Little, 2002; Smette, 2003).

Intervention Strategies

Interventions will be necessary to meet the challenges of providing a quality leadership in Iowa schools and community colleges. While there have been many different sources of interventions, the two described in this literature review are finances and expansion of the applicant pool.

Finances. State legislators across the nation are being urged to implement new taxes or re-instate recent tax cuts to fund education. One type of new tax under consideration is a sales tax with revenues earmarked for education (Parrino, 2003). Raising additional revenue is but one means to solve the educational funding problem.

Other financial solutions include adjusting the school calendar, revising employee work schedules and sharing staff with other educational institutions (Parrino, 2003). Sharing administration has been a strategy used in Iowa to reduce expenses and free up dollars for the classroom (Bergani, 2003). For example, the Hamburg, Iowa school district with 330 K-12 students recently advertised for a superintendent with a minimum salary of \$80,000. Even at that salary, the district expects to have trouble attracting candidates (Iowa Faces, 2002). Hamburg could seek to share the position with a neighboring school district and perhaps pay only half of that amount for an educational leader. Thus, sharing an administrator is one creative means to overcome the lack of finances to attract a quality leader.

Expansion of the applicant pool. Expanding the applicant pool can most easily be accomplished through leadership preparation, developing nontraditional leaders, recruiting women and minorities, and K-14 or K-16 governance structure. The first three concepts are more common strategies to expanding the applicant pool. The fourth concept, K-14 or K-16 governance is less common and is the primary focus of this study.

Leadership preparation is one means chosen by many organizations to provide future leaders (Murphy, 2001; Newsom, 2001). The next challenge facing educational institutions becomes recruiting administrator applicants for various positions and new trainees to administrator development programs. Attracting the best educational leader

has always been the number one priority and job for an educational institution's board. Iowa has given this responsibility as a legal mandate to the board (The Board's Role in Hiring District Staff, P. 1).

Self-selection limits the number of people entering the applicant pool. Therefore, institutions and supporting organizations need to implement a leadership preparation program and identify future leaders from within their organization. The preparation program must include mentoring and internship activities (Vaughan, 2001). State educational groups are calling for recruitment efforts at the grass root level. K-12 districts must seek to identify teachers for school administrator programs. This activity needs to include the strategy of recruiting women and minorities for school leadership (Policy Statement on the School Administrator Shortage, P.2).

After recruitment, preparation programs play a vital role in filling the void of administrators available to educational institutions. Criticism of the preparation programs has come from all corners. Most of the criticism focuses on programs that provide ineffective and irrelevant courses of study. The literature abounds with claims of preparation programs that merely develop managers to act as custodians of the institution as compared to leaders (Trends and Issues, P. 2).

Within the last decade, there has been movement towards preparation programs based on standards of leadership. The School Administrators of Iowa have adopted the following six standards for educational leaders:

1. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community.

2. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by advocating, nurturing and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional development.
3. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.
4. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.
5. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.
6. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context (Iowa Standards for School Leaders, p. 1).

These standards have been adopted without change from the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLC). Iowa State University has developed six new courses for aspiring administrators based on the standards. Several other universities have taken similar action and the standards have been adopted by thirty-five states as of November 2001 (Murphy, 2001).

Even though traditional administrative preparation programs have received considerable scrutiny, most educators agree that there is a body of knowledge necessary to be an administrator. A trend has developed demonstrating changes to administrator preparation programs. One of the new programs mixes administrators with teachers in teams to work on development of leadership. A large part of the learning evolves around the mentoring process. The missing piece to preparation programs has been integrating traditional program preparation with actual experience (Gates, Ross & Brewer, P. 1-2).

The State of North Carolina implements a principal training program called LAUNCH. Participants in LAUNCH have found the internship to be the most valuable portion of the training as the internship brings theory into practice (Newsom, 2001).

Another new innovative programs can be found at Indiana University South Bend. This program brings together higher education and the K-12 system. The University of Buffalo in conjunction with several area schools created the Leadership Initiative for Tomorrow's Schools (LIFTS) program. LIFTS immerses the administrative student into the program with the district selecting the candidate, providing a mentor and a full-time paid internship program at local districts. All of these programs reflect the need for application of the knowledge and accountability through meeting standards of performance (Trends and Issues, P. 3).

A second concept being used to fill educational leadership positions is the recruitment of nontraditional leaders. Both the community college and K-12 boards use this concept when filling president and/or superintendent positions. Nontraditional meaning the leader's educational degree background was outside of educational administration. However, the boards select their leader based on finding the correct fit (Barwick, 2002; Shaw, 2003). The literature reveals K-12 boards that hire a nontraditional leader generally are school districts with a deficit cash balance. Therefore, the K-12 school finds a person with a business background to lead the school (Shaw, 2003). Another type of nontraditional leader in K-12 is the person selected to drive the quick changes through the system as the board has lost patience with the traditional slow to change K-12 administration (Mathews, 2003).

The community college boards seek nontraditional business leaders for slightly different reasons. The only common thread between K-12 and community college nontraditional was the desire to have a leader with business savvy. Beyond a business background the community college board wants this person to be adept in politics, fund raising and marketing. These roles are quickly becoming desirable in the community college (Basinger, 2002).

In either setting, the literature points towards a gap between the nontraditional leader and the faculty. At the community college level, the astute nontraditional president relies heavily on the chief academic officer to maintain internal relations with the faculty (Basinger, 2002). Likewise, the K-12 nontraditional superintendent seeks to maintain good relations with the teachers by employing an assistant superintendent who has a traditional background (Shah, 2003).

Another concept identified in the literature review was the role women and minorities play in securing educational leaders for the future. Statistics from the Condition of Iowa Community Colleges 2001 (January, 2002) report indicate Iowa, similar to the nation, has 58% female enrollment at the community college. Further, the staff at Iowa community colleges includes 58% women. The student minority population at Iowa community colleges totals slightly less than 10% of the student body. Minorities represented less than 3.5% of Iowa community college staffs. One means to increase the number of women and minorities in leadership positions for Iowa is a program called Leadership Institute for a New Century (LINC). LINC provides professional development opportunities for women and minorities selected by their community college as potential future leaders. Over 70% of the participants have received a

promotion after involvement in the program and nearly all participants have indicated LINC has played a major role in their efforts to become a leader (Ebbbers, Gallisath, Rockel, & Coyan, 2000).

A more diverse population of administrators provides every student with the opportunity to view a role model to whom the student can relate in his/her life (Vaughan, 2001). Women and minorities need a door opened to educational opportunities – that door can be extended by the educational institution. The institution that strives to provide access to advanced degrees, opportunities for professional development and engage in mentoring of the potential administrator has taken a huge step towards expanding the applicant pool for leadership positions (Vaughn & Weisman, 2002).

The governance structure at K-14 or K-16 educational institutions is the last concept identified in this literature review in regard to expansion of the applicant pool. The possibility of expanding educational leadership from being specifically K-12 or specifically community college has begun to attract some notice in the state of Iowa. The thought of having a K-16 or a K-14 governance structure was the topic of a study sanctioned by the Iowa Legislature, which attempted to find solutions to funding education. In November 1999, Dr. Katherine Boswell from the Education Commission of the States addressed Iowa's Governance System Committee. She called for legislators to offer a way to establish K-16 institutions (Final Report of Community College Governance System Study Committee, 1999).

By suggesting that Iowa consider developing K-16 systems, Boswell opened the door for others to consider what they felt was a more obtainable consolidation in a K-14 plan. Vision 2020 was created specifically to develop a seamless transition for students in

a K-14 setting using the rationale that Iowa's K-12 and community colleges share similar educational goals, and both have an open door policy (Cohen & Brawer, 1994; Carney, 1999). The Education Study Committee decided not to accept Boswell's rationale and recommendation to combine K-12 and community college and four-year college leadership positions because they feared that a K-16 or K-14 governance structure would be unresponsive to local control efforts. In addition, the system would lose the connection to the communities served by the organization (Final Report of Community College Governance System Study Committee, 1999).

The demands on an administrator of a K-14 system outweigh those of a typical K-12 or community college system. An administrator of a K-14 system must understand learning theory from birth through adulthood, funding formulas, corporate structures, politics, curriculum development, budgets, admission and many more areas of leadership (Barwick, 2002). Boswell's K-14 concept assumes that many facets of leadership, such as knowledge and experience as well as leadership style, for the combined position of K-12 superintendent and community college president are at least similar if not the same (Final Report of Community College Governance System Study Committee, 1999). Another consideration for this assumption is the community college and the K-12 board presidents' perception of the ideal leadership style for their institution is similar if not the same.

In summary, while leadership preparation programs, recruitment of future leaders, women and minority leaders, nontraditional leaders and the employment of a K-14 governance model are potential means to expand the applicant pool, one study can not thoroughly examine all facets of the suggested K-14 governance model and other means

to expand the applicant pool (Basinger, 2002; Murphy, 2001; Final Report, 1999; Shaw, 2003; Vaughn, 2001). However, expansion of the applicant pool has the potential to provide applicants for a community college presidency or a K-12 superintendency.

Leadership styles are only one facet of a K-14 governance model, but the literature that follows fails to identify one style as being exclusive of a community college president or a K-12 superintendent (Bolman & Deal, 1997; Northouse, 2001; Schmit, 1998; Wen, 1999). Therefore, this study examined Iowa's K-12 superintendents' and community college presidents' leadership styles using Bolman and Deal's (1997) categorization of leadership. This study also identified the ideal leadership style for each position as perceived by their respective board presidents and further examined such for similarities.

Four Leadership Approaches

Bolman and Deal's (1997) effort to summarize leadership into four approaches is the organizational pattern used in presenting this literature section on leadership. The four approaches are trait, behavioral, situational and transformational. The review literature on leadership started to make sense to this researcher upon reading and understanding the work of Bolman and Deal. Each of the four major approaches presented from the literature review are from Bolman and Deal's perspective and the literature review clarifies their relationship to the survey instrument.

Trait Approach

The early 1900s marked the beginning of intensified studies of leadership traits by Jennings (as cited in Schmit 1998) and Stogdill (1974). Trait studies included the "Great Man Theory." Those who subscribed to this theory believe significant leaders

possessed special traits not found in the normal population (Stogdill, 1974). The “Great Man Theory” seemed to fit the early stages of leadership study.

Leaders were seen as individuals who possessed, in fact were born with, qualities admired by followers. Traits such as energy, willingness to assume responsibility, physical size, and decisiveness were valued in leaders (Yukl, 1989). Gibb (1969) blended numerous trait studies and discovered that the trait approach to leadership failed to reveal significant or consistent findings. He concluded that personal characteristics were but one of several major variables involved in a theory of leadership.

A leader is more than a person with physical or social traits. Studies started to surface that concluded leaders didn’t just come from a person with social status. Even though the possession of certain traits did not guarantee effective leadership, Yukl (1989) believed possession of these traits increased the likelihood of becoming an effective leader.

Stogdill (1974) completed 287 research projects between 1904 and the early 1970s in order to determine common leadership traits. He claimed that it required more than the possession of certain traits to be a leader. Stogdill classified leader traits into six categories:

1. Capacity (intelligence, alertness, verbal ability, originality),
2. Achievement (scholarship, knowledge, athletic),
3. Responsibility (dependability, initiative, persistence, desire to excel),
4. Participation (activity, social skills, cooperation, sense of humor),
5. Status (position, socioeconomic), and
6. Situation (mental, needs and interest of followers).

Stogdill (1974) argued that different leadership skills and traits are needed based on the situation being faced. Situational leadership will be discussed later in this review of literature. The fact remains that many years of leadership study have failed to produce a set of leadership qualities to separate leaders from non-leaders (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996).

Jennings 1961 (as cited in Schmit, 1998), Gibb (1969), and Yukl (1989) agreed with Stodgill's (1974) conclusion that a person does not become a leader by possession of certain qualities or personal traits. A leader does possess certain qualities and characteristics that bear some relationship to the characteristics, activities and goals of the organization. Jennings 1961 (as cited in Schmit, 1998) determined that fifty years of research has been unfruitful in producing a set of personality traits or qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders and non-leaders.

However, a high correlation to being a successful leader was evident among leaders who possessed or lacked originality, social ability and judgment, desire to excel, a sense of humor, cooperative approaches, liveliness, and some athletic ability. Success was highly correlated to leaders possessing these traits. Bass (1990) was quick to point out that just possessing these traits were not a guarantee of being an effective leader; however, possessing basic traits increased the chances of being a successful leader.

Trait studies have been used to predict who will be promoted. McClelland (1985) developed a model to measure the needs of a leader based on three conditions: achievement, affiliation, and power. McClelland's model determined that a person with a high need for achievement was motivated by successfully accomplishing a task, or developing a better process. Someone with a high need for affiliation was more

concerned with being liked and accepted by everyone. In contrast, a person with a high need for power would find satisfaction in influencing people through fear, awe, anger or pleasure. McClelland concluded that effective leaders had a strong need for power and achievement. Effective leaders showed very little need for affiliation.

Studies that summarized trait research referred to traits as characteristics; thus, this study uses traits and characteristics synonymously (Bass, 1960; Stogdill, 1974). Trait studies begin to identify a set of skills that leaders must possess. Yukl (1989) believed that there are some traits and skills inherent in successful leaders. These are shown in Figure 1. Yukl (1989) stressed the possession of these traits and skills by a leader did not guarantee effectiveness, and the relative importance of each trait depended on the situation being acted upon by the leader.

Every leader has relative strengths and weaknesses regardless of whether or not the leader is considered successful as an executive. McCall and Lombardo (1983) looked at the differences between leaders who reached the pinnacle of their profession and those who were unsuccessful in their efforts to reach the top. They described unsuccessful executives as having one or more of the following fatal flaws:

1. Insensitive to others, abrasive, intimidating, bullying style.
2. Cold, aloof, arrogant.
3. Betrayal of trust.
4. Overly ambitious: Thinking of next job, playing politics.
5. Specific performance problems with the business.
6. Overmanaging: Unable to delegate or build a team.
7. Unable to staff effectively.

8. Unable to think strategically.
9. Unable to adapt to boss with different style.
10. Overdependence on advocate or mentor. (McCall & Lombardo, 1983, p. 26-31)

TRAITS	SKILLS
Adaptable to situations	Clever (intelligent)
Alert to social environment	Conceptually skilled
Ambitious in achievement-oriented	Creating
Assertive	Diplomatic and tactful
Cooperative	Fluent in speaking
Decisive	Knowledgeable about group task
Dependable	Organized (administrative ability)
Dominant (desire to influence others)	Persuasive
Energetic (high activity level)	Socially skilled
Persistent	
Self-confident	
Tolerant of stress	
Willingness to assume responsibility	

Figure 1. Traits and skills found most frequently to be characteristics of successful leaders. (Yulk, 1989, p. 70)

Northouse (2001) identified several traits and characteristics over the past century of studies as being desired in leaders. Table 1 displays these traits and characteristics.

Table 1

Studies of Leadership Traits and Characteristics

Stogdil (1948)	Mann (1959)	Stogdil (1974)	Lord, DeVader, and Alliger (1986)	Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991)
Intelligence	Intelligence	Achievement	Intelligence	Drive
Alertness	Masculinity	Persistence	Masculinity	Motivation
Insight	Adjustment	Insight	Dominance	Integrity
Responsibility	Dominance	Initiative		Confidence
Initiative	Extroversion	Self-confidence		Cognitive ability
Persistence	Conservatism	Responsibility		Task knowledge
Self-confidence		Cooperativeness		
Sociability		Tolerance		
		Influence		
		Sociability		

Note: Northouse (2001, p. 18)

Trait research is applied to individuals to determine how they might fit within the organization and can benefit the individual by identifying the areas for personal development. However, trait leadership emphasizes having a leader to accomplish a task, whereas others believe the followers or the situation play a role in the success of an organization. Leadership involves more than traits, as traits are about the leader. And, leadership is about the process of influence on an individual or a group to reach a goal (Northouse, 2001).

In summary, trait leadership studies evolved from studies that focused on the leader's innate qualities (Northouse, 2001). The assumption that leaders were "born" was discredited according to Yukl (1989) and to believe that certain leader traits were absolutely necessary for effective leadership has not been substantiated in decades of trait research.

Behavioral Approach

In contrast to the trait approach, the behavioral approach focuses on two kinds of behavior: task behaviors and relationship behaviors. Task behaviors are associated with a leader's actions to accomplish the task or goal, and relationship behaviors are associated with a leader's concern for the individual. The behavioral approach has also been referred to as the style approach. The main purpose of behavioral studies is to determine how a leader balances his/her concern for task completion with his/her concern for individuals (Northouse, 2001).

In the early 1920s and 1930s a new leadership theory evolved with a focus on human relationships. The two-dimensional theory was in contrast to the scientific management method because it believed production was increased by concern for human social factors. Elton Mayo conducted one of the most famous human behavior studies at the Western Electric Company's Hawthorne plant in Chicago. The experiment tried to determine if the level of illumination in a shop had an effect on the efficiency of the employees (Mayo, 1933). This was the first in a series of studies at this plant called the Hawthorne studies. One common result of the Hawthorne studies was that employee production increased as management provided either positive or negative attention on the employees.

The human behavior theory was given a boost when Chester Barnard (1938), president of the New Jersey Bell Telephone Company wrote that a manager must have both human and technical skills. Barnard promoted the concept of an executive meeting two conditions for achieving the organizational goals (1) effectiveness measured by the degree to which the common goals are achieved, and (2) efficiency measured by the degree to which the individuals within the organization achieve personal goals. Leadership, according to Barnard, centered on the successful organization operating with both individual and organizational goals in balance.

The behavioral approach to leadership became the focus of leadership studies in the mid-1940s through the 1970s. Frederick Taylor (1947) and Henri Fayol (1949) conducted the first recognized studies of behavior leadership and are given credit for development of a one-dimensional theory of leadership based on getting the task completed. Taylor later developed the concept of scientific management, which deals with increasing production through precise employee movements. Scientific management focuses on task behaviors.

Taylor's (1947) four principles of scientific management are (1) scientific job analysis, (2) selection of personnel, (3) management cooperation, and (4) functional supervision. The leaders in a scientific management organization value the needs of the company over employee job satisfaction. Taylor recognized a division of labor between managers and workers. According to Taylor, it is the manager's duty to encourage the employees to complete their task in the most efficient way possible for the benefit of the organization.

In contrast to Taylor's emphasis on efficiency of effort, Henri Fayol (1949) recognized successful managers operate on a set of principles, beyond a concern for accomplishing the task at hand. Fayol (1949) believed managers use five basic principles: (1) planning, (2) organizing, (3) commanding, (4) coordinating, and (5) controlling. Successful managers use these principles continuously while focusing on getting the job done.

This one-dimensional theory of leadership gained further recognition through the work of German sociologist, Max Weber (1946/1996). He attributed the success of an organization to the process used to lead the company. Weber called the process a bureaucracy. He described a bureaucracy as a set of rational guidelines that provided the structure for organizational effectiveness. A bureaucracy eliminates the emotional factors and other irrational actions, leaving the employees with less friction or confusion about their task (Fuller, 2000). Clearly, the focus at this point of the early studies remained on the singular dimension of getting the job done.

The focus on getting the job done was an outgrowth of the need for a factory model during the industrial age. Applied to schools, the factory model translated into large classes, timed classes/schedules and uniform approaches to instruction (Johnson, 1996). Early educational leaders responded to these parameters by becoming managers instead of instructional leaders. Heavy emphasis was placed on order rather than freedom, work rather than play, and effect rather than interest (Cremin, 1964; Cohen & Brawer, 2003). Bureaucracy demanded strict order to rules and regulations because task completion was the priority (Wheatley, 1994).

Clear rules and procedures were set up to establish standards and guide actions; control and power were centralized at the top of a hierarchy (Owens, 1998). Tichy and Devanna (1986) proclaimed this type of leadership was needed by the earlier era of expanding markets and nonexistent competition. In return for workers' compliance, the leader provided rewards. Leadership was looked upon as working with and through others to achieve organizational goals. The early educational leaders were aligned with the scientific management process in that their style was authoritarian and autocratic. However, educational leaders were limited in the type of rewards to be bestowed upon employees; therefore, leadership seemed to need something beyond the one-dimensional approach for educational organizations to be successful.

The debate started by Frederick Taylor (1947) and Henri Fayol (1949) in the 1940s was whether to lead by concern for accomplishing the organizational goals as efficiently as possible or to lead by a concern for people. This debate continued into the 1960s when Blake and Mouton (1964) developed a grid called the Managerial Grid, to analyze leaders by their concern for people and their concern for the mission of the organization. The Managerial Grid describes five different types of leadership based on the degree of concern for production (task) and concern for people (relationship):

1. Impoverished – Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done appropriate to sustain organization membership.
2. Country Club – Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable, friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.
3. Task – Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

4. Middle-of-the-Road – Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get work done while maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.
5. Team – Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a “common stake” in organization purpose leads to relationships, trust and respect. (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996, p. 100)

Using the grid, a correlation is established between the emphasis given to production and the emphasis given to people. Blake and Mouton demonstrate a belief that there is one best style of leadership. The best style of leadership is one that maximizes productivity and job satisfaction in all situations (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996).

Other studies conducted at Ohio State University started in 1945 to identify various dimensions of leader behavior. The Ohio State University studies placed leadership behavior into two categories: Initiating structure and consideration. Halpin (1959, p. 4) defined the two categories:

1. Initiating structure – refers to the leader’s behavior in delineating the relationship between himself or herself and members of the work group and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure.
2. Consideration – refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationships between the leaders and the members of his staff.

Hemphill (1955) developed an instrument called the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) to measure the leader behavior on the two dimensions of initiating structure and used the instrument to assess the effectiveness of 22 college department heads at a Midwestern university. The results indicated that departments with reputations for good administration had leaders who engaged in both forms of behavior: initiating structure and consideration (Hemphill, 1955). In 1956 Halpin confirmed Hemphill’s findings by conducting a study of 50 school superintendents. The LBDQ questionnaire

was given to the superintendent, school board members and staff. The results demonstrated that effective superintendents scored high on both dimensions, and ineffective superintendents scored low on both dimensions (Halpin, 1966).

The Ohio State University studies produced a four-quadrant model to illustrate and plot leader behavior. The four quadrants show combinations of initiating structure (task behavior) and consideration (relationship behavior) as shown in Figure 2.

		INITIATING STRUCTURE	
		LOW	HIGH
CONSIDERATION	HIGH	High CONSIDERATION and Low STRUCTURE	High CONSIDERATION and High STRUCTURE
	LOW	Low STRUCTURE And Low CONSIDERATION	High STRUCTURE And Low CONSIDERATION

Figure 2. Ohio State University Four Quadrants—Initiating structure and consideration. (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996, p. 92.).

The University of Michigan studies followed the Ohio State University studies with an investigation of the relationships between clusters of leader characteristics/ leadership style and effectiveness. Two concepts were identified: employee orientation and production orientation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996). Likert used the University of Michigan studies as a basis to research the management style used by high-producing managers in contrast to the style used by low producing managers. Likert discovered “supervisors with the best records of performance focus their primary attention on the

human aspects of their subordinates' problems and on endeavoring to build effective work groups with high performance goals" (Likert, 1961, p. 7). Likert maintained the best leadership style is one that is democratic and exhibits a high concern for human relationships.

The Ohio State University studies, University of Michigan studies, and Likert leadership studies focused on two primary factors/themes of leadership effectiveness: concern for accomplishing tasks (production) and concern for developing personal relationships (people). Unlike the above studies, McGregor (1957/1996) believed the manager was not concerned about production or people, but the manager was merely demonstrating his or her belief in mankind. Theory X and Theory Y were introduced by McGregor to explain human nature as it relates to the workplace.

Theory X and Theory Y were developed with an organization that used the centralized decision-making, pyramid structure for power and external control of work as the basis for operation. Under these conditions, Theory X assumed people need direction, have no interest in taking on responsibility and that safety is the employees' main concern. A Theory X leader exercised strict control and closely supervised employees because the employees were unreliable, irresponsible, motivated by money and responded to the threat of punishment. Since the mid-1900s, Theory X failed to gain favor in the eyes of those who study leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996).

Theory Y took an opposite point of view and found people to be responsible and willing to obtain the organization's goals. The assumption further relied on the fact that people were not lazy, unreliable and irresponsible by nature. Theory Y believed individuals were motivated by the conditions around the employee, feedback (positive)

and a chance to build toward self-actualization. Theory Y leaders strive to provide the proper working environment for the employees (McGregor, 1957/1996).

Hersey and Blanchard (1996) profess empirical research studies have invalidated the trait approach to leadership. And, behavior studies initially tried to identify the one best leadership style (Halpin, 1959; Likert, 1961). Even the University of Michigan studies had this as the original goal of the research. In the end, the behavior studies recognized that effective leaders are concerned for both the task and the relationships within the organization.

Behavior studies use paper and pencil instruments, likely a questionnaire, to measure attitudes or predisposition toward leader behavior (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996). These empirical studies focus on what leaders do, not who they are, or what impact a leader has on the two dimensions of tasks and relationships. Like trait studies, behavior studies have not established a universal set of behaviors that identify a leader versus a non-leader. Rather, behavior studies have identified good leadership as having a balance of concern for both tasks and relationships (Northouse, 2001). Behavior studies like trait studies made references to the situation within the organization (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Hersey & Blanchard, 1996).

Situational Leadership Approaches

Situational leadership approaches were developed on the basis that the situation determines the type of leadership needed. Effective leaders are those who can readily adapt from being directive (concern for tasks) to being supportive (concerned for relationships) (Northouse, 2001). A third dimension of situational leadership approaches, development of democracy in the work place, has been identified and added to the

concern for task/production and the concern for relationships. The level of democracy depends on the developmental level of subordinates. Developmental level is the degree to which the employee can handle the job and the employee's commitment to the job (Hersey, 1984). Situational leadership approaches evolved from a concern for leaders to be more democratic according to Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957).

Tannebaum and Schmidt placed an emphasis upon the development of democratic leaders by stressing the concern for relationships. Hersey and Blanchard (1996) referred to Tannebaum and Schmidt (1957) two leader extremes as manager power and influence behavior on the one end and non-manager power and influence on the other end of the spectrum. Tannebaum and Schmidt called the range of styles a Continuum of Leader Behavior moving from authoritarian behavior on one end to democratic employee centered behavior at the other end as illustrated in Figure 3.

Another situational leadership approach model, contingency situational approach, was developed in the 1960s. Fiedler (1967), Vroom (1973), and Yetten (1973) were the first to speak to the approach, but it was Fiedler (1967) who developed the Leadership Contingency Model. Fiedler believed three variables have an impact on the effectiveness of the leader: member relations (loyalty and support from the employees), task structure (expectations for finished product and procedures to be used), and positional power (set by the organization). Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model is shown in Figure 4.

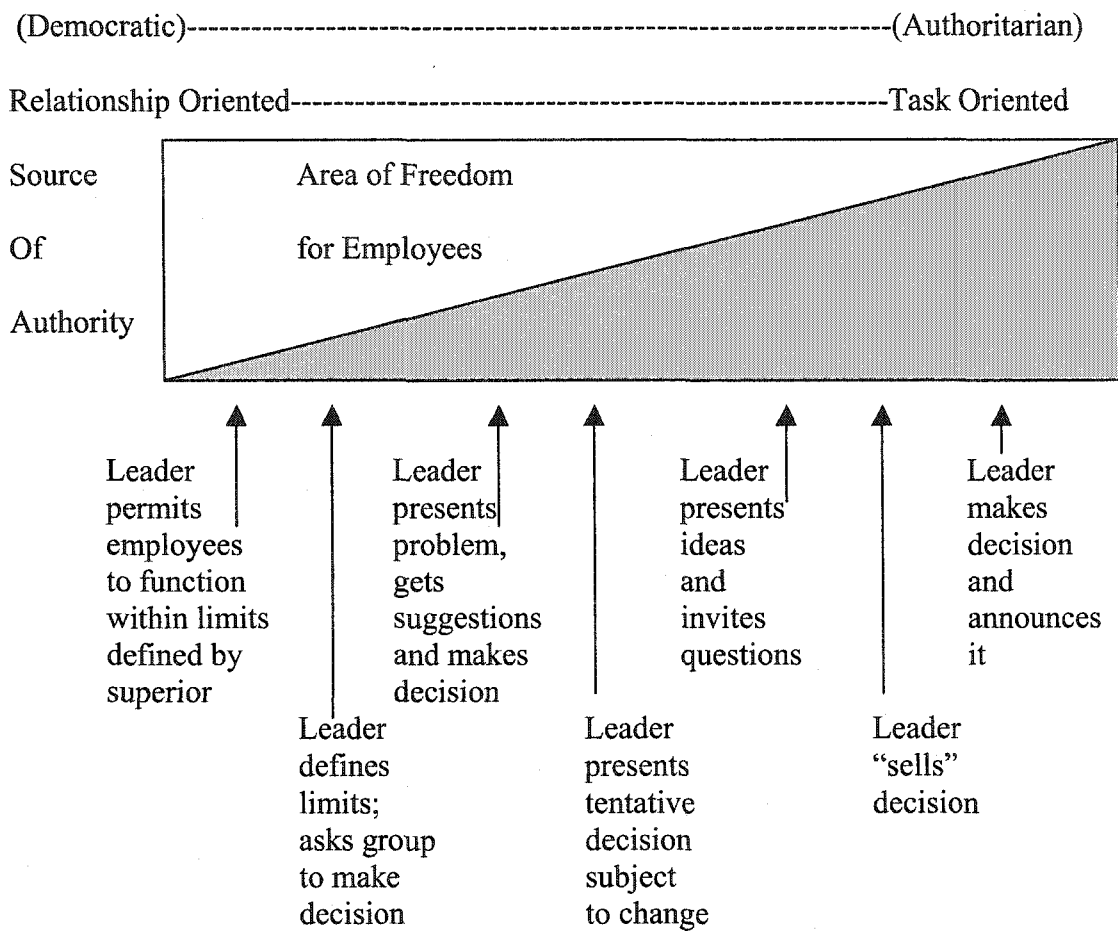


Figure 3. Continuum of leader behavior. (Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik, 1987, p. 69)

Task-Oriented Style	Relationship-Oriented Considerate Style	Task-Oriented Style
↓	↓	↓
Favorable leadership situation	Situation intermediate in favorableness for leader	Unfavorable leadership situation

Figure 4. Leadership contingency model. (Hersey, 1972).

Fiedler (1967) found through his research that task-oriented leaders tend to perform best in group situations, whether the situation was very favorable or very

unfavorable to the leader; while relationship-oriented leaders tended to perform best in situations believed to be intermediate in favorableness. Specifically, Fiedler (1967), states, “Group performances will be contingent upon appropriate matching of leadership styles and the degree of favorableness of the group situation performance can be improved by changing the leadership style or modifying the group-task situation” (p. 151).

Fiedler asserted that there is more than one optimal leadership style. Vroom and Yetten’s (1973) contingency model was formed on the basis that situational variables interact with personal attributes of the leader to result in leader behavior that can affect organizational effectiveness. Because the organization is part of the situation, this change in the organization could, over time, affect the next style of leadership needed for a given situation within the organization (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996).

Reddin (1970) was among the first to believe that an effectiveness dimension needed to be added to the traditional task/production and relationship variables of measuring instruments. Sergiovanni and Staratt (1993) report that Reddin (1970) maintained that no one best style of leadership could be found and the same style used in different situations might be effective or ineffective. Reddin (1970) believed leaders may have a dominant style, but the ability to modify one’s basic style to meet the demands of a given situation was a valuable leadership characteristic. Moreover, Lashway (1997) stated the effectiveness of different styles depends on the situation to which it is being applied.

Hersey and Blanchard (1996) developed a contingency model of leadership and management of organizational behavior called Situational Leadership Theory. Situational

Leadership Theory evolved in part as a response to the inconsistencies brought forth by studies of situational and contingency theories of leadership by Fiedler (1967), Hemphill (1955) and Halpin (1959). These researchers used continuum models on which a leader's behavior would vary from one end of the spectrum to the other.

The Situational Leadership model incorporated the terms task behavior and relationship behavior to describe concepts similar to the Ohio State University studies' terms of consideration and initiating structure. Hersey and Blanchard (1996) characterized leaders as being of two types: task and relationship. Their definition of task behavior by a leader was "the extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group. These behaviors included telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it and who's to do it" (Hersey, 1984, p. 31). Relationship behavior was defined as "the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multi-way communications if there is more than one person. The behaviors included listening, encouraging, facilitation, providing clarification, and giving socio-emotional support" (Hersey, 1984, p. 32).

These two behaviors were placed in separate dimensions of a two dimensional graph with four quadrants identifying the four basic leadership styles: high task and low relationship; high task and high relationship; high relationship and low task; and low relationship and low task as shown in Figure 5.

		TASK BEHAVIOR (Providing directive behavior)	
		LOW	HIGH
RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR (Providing supportive behavior)	HIGH	High RELATIONSHIP and Low TASK	High RELATIONSHIP and High TASK
	LOW	Low TASK And Low RELATIONSHIP	High TASK And Low RELATIONSHIP

Figure 5. Basic leader behavior types. (Hersey, 1984, p. 35)

The recognition of task and relationship as two essential dimensions of a leader's behavior has been an integral part of leadership research over the past 50 years. The names associated with the two dimensions have been autocratic or production-oriented for the task leaders and democratic or employee-oriented for the behavior leaders (Hersey, 1988). Fiedler (1967) believed task and relationship behaviors were either/or styles of leadership; and therefore, leaders could focus on one or the other, but not both styles of leadership (Hersey, 1972).

The Ohio State University studies dispelled the either/or belief. These studies found no dominant leadership style exhibited by a wide range of leaders over a period of time working in many different settings (Halpin, 1959). Instead, combinations of relationship behavior and task behavior were evident. Hence, the leader's behavior could be identified as "telling" (high task and low relationship); "selling" (high task and high

relationship); “participating” (high relationship and low task) and “delegating” (low relationship and low task) (Hersey, 1984, p. 125).

Rather than trying to determine the one best style of leadership, Hersey and Blanchard (1996) recognized that any of the four basic styles of leadership might be effective or ineffective at any time depending on the given situation. As a result, they added the dimension of effectiveness to the task behavior and relationship behavior dimensions of the earlier Ohio State University studies. The effectiveness dimension allowed for the study of the interaction of the leader’s behavior and the values of both the leader and the employee/follower. Thus, “leader effectiveness depends upon the interaction among the leader, follower, boss, associates, organization, job demands, and time constraints” (Hersey, 1984, p. 43).

According to Hersey (1988) in any given situation the leader had to choose the appropriate response style in order to be considered an effective leader for that situation. Ineffective leadership resulted from the selection of an inappropriate response style to a given situation. Therefore, the difference between effective and ineffective leadership styles was not the result of action taken by the leader, but the selection of the appropriate action to be undertaken by the leader in response to the environment in which it was applied (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996).

Hersey and Blanchard’s Situational Leadership Model found a basis in the interaction of the amount of direction the leader provides, the amount of support given, and the “readiness” level of the employees/followers (Hersey, 1984). People had varying degrees of readiness for a given task because of experience, education, and training. It was crucial that the leader assesses the situation and applies the appropriate style of

leadership. As the level of readiness by the followers increased to accomplish a task, the leader reduced the task behavior being applied and increased the relationship behavior leadership style activity (Hersey, 1984).

Two other types of leadership classified as situational leadership approaches include contingency theory and path-goal theory. Under the auspices of situational leadership approaches, contingency theory sought to match the leader to the group. The most favorable situation in the contingency theory was derived when the leader/follower relationship was good, the task was clearly defined, and the leader had high position power (Northouse, 2001). Contingency theory differs from other situational leadership approaches because other situational leadership approaches rely on the leader recognizing the situation and adapting the leadership style to meet the situation's needs. Within the path-goal theory, another contingency theory, the leader must find a means for the subordinates to obtain the organization's goals. The leader once again determined, by virtue of the situation, what action was necessary to enable the subordinates to be successful (Northouse, 2001).

The concern for task and the concern for relationships remained as the centerpieces of situational leadership approach studies just as they were for behavioral leadership approach studies. Situational leadership approaches featured attempts to add a measure of effectiveness to the research on a leader's concern for task accomplishment and a concern for relationships (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996; Reddin, 1970). Still other situational leadership approach models added democracy or positional power to explain the effectiveness of their approach (Fiedler, 1967; Tannebaum & Schmidt, 1957).

Many researchers who studied situational leadership approaches believed in the existence of more than one best style of leadership (Fiedler, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1996; Reddin, 1970). As a consequence, situational leadership approaches judge the leader's response or results rather than the leader. Those who believe in only one best style of leadership were making a value judgment about the leader (Hersey, 1984). Leaders being flexible and able to adapt to various situations (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996; Northouse, 2001; Reddin, 1970) characterized situational leadership approaches.

Transformational Leadership Approach

Bolman and Deal's (1997) fourth leadership approach is transformational leadership. Transformational leaders are very concerned about the individual and encourage self-development (Bass, 1995). Transformational leaders desired to inspire others to think differently through individual considerations (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Leader membership exchange theory was the forerunner to transformational leadership approaches. Leader membership exchange theory strives to develop a positive working relationship with the employees (Northouse, 2001). Thus, an integral part of being a transformational leader was being able to influence members to believe they were a part of the success of the organization (Roe, 1992). The most recent literature on transformational leadership approaches revealed common threads running through business and education: collaboration, transformation, vision, organizational culture and change (Baker, 1992; Clark, 1992; Northouse, 2001; Kouzes & Posner, 1995).

An organization's ability to learn is affected by the perception of leadership as being transformational. Senge (1990) described five disciplines of a learning organization: building a shared vision, personal mastery, mental models, team learning,

and systems thinking. Natural leaders developed from individuals who understood the five disciplines and could apply them to the work place and their daily lives (Lewis, 1993).

True professionalism suppressed or completely eliminated the need for leadership according to Sergiovanni. Sergiovanni (1989) defined leadership as more than just competence: it included professional virtue. A true professional was committed to the highest goals. Goals aimed at social ends including caring and a desire to exalt not only oneself but also everyone in education as a whole. Rather than rewarding the accomplishments, schools should embrace the concept of doing what is rewarding to the individuals (Lewis, 1993). Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) envisioned schools with shared goals, values and commitments. Learning communities were caring and committed to solving the problems they face at school (Lewis, 1993).

Perception turns into reality, and a leader must have a clear understanding of the immediate interpersonal environments of the subordinates, colleagues and leaders. Hersey and Blanchard (1996) believed the skill of the leader in diagnosing and understanding the dynamics of the organization's culture were paramount to being an effective leader. The key to leadership was to perceive the limitations of the environment and follow with a plan to manage the environment. Schein (1992) professed leadership as the ability to perceive the limitations of one's own culture and the development of a plan for the culture to adapt and be successful in reaching the organization's goals.

Employees are provided with a purpose that drives their desire to obtain organizational goals through the development of the workplace culture (Deal & Kennedy, 1982/1995). Thus, culture builds upon the transformational leader's ability to develop the

individual as the difference maker in any organization (Roe, 1992). Schein (1992) went on to state that neither culture nor leadership could be understood in isolation. The leader must realize that creating or changing culture is a difficult course of action and that the leader alone does not determine culture. Biggerstaff (1992) indicated the hiring and promoting process could be used to set the culture or change the culture. Schein (1992) and Clark (1992) both purported a shared vision is the best source of creating and maintaining a culture within an organization. Further, a leader must understand the culture or the culture will manage the leader (Schein, 1992).

Schein (1992) saw cultures as having three levels: artifacts, values and basic assumptions. He believed the first step to understanding is to learn the basic assumptions. From this understanding, a leader could easily interpret and understand the artifacts and values levels of the organization's culture (Schein, 1992). Understanding the levels of culture could have a profound effect on an organization's ability to change. The development of shared values played an important role in the organization's ability to change (Baker, 1992). After studying thousands of managers from all across the country Kouzes and Posner (1995) discovered "that when there's congruence between individual values and organizational values, there's significant payoff for leaders and their organizations" (p. 213).

Sarason (1990) noted leaders in education assume leadership of diverse community groups and institutions and did so in a way that communicates the responsibility is shared. A shared vision and value system allowed an organization to focus on the task necessary and brought the employees together as an integral part of the

process (Tagle, 1992). This required willingness on the part of the leader to alter the power relationship.

Reformers were reluctant to implement change because of the inevitable confrontations that awaited such a leader (Sarason, 1990). Sarason reaffirmed the importance of understanding the culture and diagnosing the environment, "Ideas whose time has come are no guarantee that we know how to capitalize on the opportunities, because the process of implementation requires an understanding of the settings in which these ideas have to take root" (p. 99). Fullan and Steigebauer (1991) agreed that good intentions and good ideas were ingredients of change but not sufficient by themselves to bring about change. Sarason (1990) argued the path to reform was paved with good intentions and the expression was very appropriate to educational reform. The process of change had been the focus of studies over the past four decades. Fullan (1993, pp. 126-131) cited eight lessons of change, summarized as follows:

1. Change can't be mandated.
2. Change is constant and without a set pattern to follow.
3. Problems will arise and should be embraced warmly.
4. Visions and planning will occur over and over again during change.
5. Groups and individuals have equal power.
6. Centralization and decentralization are not guarantees of success.
7. Seek ideas within and outside of the organization.
8. Everyone is a Change Agent.

In summary, transformational leadership approaches shifted the focus away from the leader or the follower and directed leadership studies to examine the interaction

between leaders and followers (Bass, 1995; Senge, 1990). Transformational leadership built upon leader membership exchange and added the ability of the leader to develop a shared vision (Baker, 1992; Lewis, 1993; Sarason, 1990; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993; Northouse, 2001). Transformational leadership included a focus on high ideals being obtained through influence exerted on individuals to develop their abilities within a culture of support (Clark, 1992; Fullan, 1993; Lewis, 1993; Kouzes & Posner, 1995). The employee involvement created a more motivated and dedicated employee for the benefit of both the employee and the organization (Northouse, 2001).

Instrument

The literature review presents the rationale used to select Bolman and Deal's (1997) survey of four frames of leadership to provide the best information about the perspective of successful leaders in education. As mentioned earlier in Chapter 2, Bolman and Deal's work upon review measures more aspects of leadership than other researchers have done in the past and their instrument measures beyond one or two dimensions of leadership. Bolman and Deal expand upon the task behavior and relationship behavior concepts to incorporate four leadership styles that could be applied in any given situation. The following information describes each of the frames from the basis of a definition, assumption and a theoretical point of view.

Structural Frame

The structural frame uses facts, procedures, rules, goals, formal role and relationships in dealing with people and the organization (Bolman & Deal, 1997). The hierarchical system provides strength and focus on the mission of the organization through use of the structural frame (Heimovics, Herman, & Jurkiewicz Coughlin, 1993).

Structural leadership would solve new problems by creating new rules, analyzing the data, or restructuring the task.

Bolman and Deal (1997) follow these assumptions in developing the structural frame:

1. Organizations exist to achieve established goals and objectives.
2. Organizations work best when the employees are behaving rationally instead of emotionally or because of external pressures.
3. Structures are designed to meet the organization's situations.
4. The division of labor and specialization of task increase the efficiency and enhance the performance of the organization.
5. Appropriate forms of coordination and control are essential to the working relationship between individuals and units to ensure they are working towards the organization's goals.
6. Problems and performance gaps result from structural deficiencies and can be remedied by restructuring (p.40).

Administrators who use the structural frame in making a decision are governed by two intellectual sources (Bolman & Deal, 1997). The two sources are mentioned earlier in the review of literature. First, the work of industrial psychologists Frederick W. Taylor (1916/1996) and Henri Fayol (1916/1996) put forth theories that form the basis for the structural frame of leadership. Taylor has developed the concept of scientific management following his studies of time and motion. Scientific management creates a new division between labor and management. Taylor focuses on the laborer and believes every task can be broken down into specific movements (Owens, 1995).

Fayol (1916/1996), as described earlier, has developed fourteen principles administrators would use as a guideline for decision-making. These principles would be

applied in a flexible manner and required experience, intelligence and proper application from the administrator.

The second theoretical source for the structural frame has resulted from the work of German sociologist, Max Weber. Weber (1946/1996) places a premium on the development of a well-run bureaucracy governed by a hierarchical structure. His vision of the ideal includes bureaucrats that would be skilled specialists, governed by strict rules and a strong line of authority (Owens, 1995).

The structural frame focuses on efficiency and specialized roles and functions thus capitalizing on vertical and horizontal coordination (Bolman & Deal, 1997). School administrators from the mid-1800s to the early 1900s mainly function from the structural frame point of view. These early leaders told the employee what to do, when to do it with little regard for the employee's human side (Tichy & Devanna, 1986).

Human Resource Frame

This frame of leadership emphasizes the feelings and relationships in seeking to lead through support and empowerment. Heimovics, Herman and Jurkiewicz Coughlin (1993) believe the human element of an organization comprises its most important resource. This type of leader believes the organization is more successful because the people are more successful and have a feeling of accomplishment in their daily task.

Bolman and Deal (1997) use the following assumptions in the development of the human resource frame:

1. Organizations exist to serve human needs rather than the opposite.
2. Organizations and people need each other; organizations need ideas, energy, and talent; people need careers, salaries, and opportunities.

3. When the fit between the individual and system is poor, one or both suffer; individuals will be exploited or will exploit the organization – or both will become victims.
4. A good fit benefits both; individuals find meaningful and satisfying work, and organizations get the talent and energy they need to succeed (pp. 102-103).

The initial work in the human resource frame of leadership starts with a growing dissatisfaction on the part of the worker related to the lack of involvement in the decision-making process. The roots of the initial work in this area are found in the series of experiments conducted at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company in the 1920s. Roethlisberger (1941/1996) states that the laborers do not work in isolation. He explains that the laborers are social animals and need the feeling of belonging and being cared for by the company. The Hawthorne experiments emphasize the need to understand the motivation of human beings to work towards the organization's goals.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is another theoretical basis for the human resource frame. Maslow believes that people are motivated by a variety of needs (1943/1996). Maslow's hierarchy is divided into five categories: fundamental physiological needs (food, water, and air), safety (safe from danger and the elements), love (feeling of belonging and acceptance by others), esteem (feeling of worth and self-value), and self-actualization (to maximize personal potential) (Maslow, 1943/1996). The lower categories or needs such as food, water and air take precedence over the higher needs for an individual. Once the lower needs have been met, then the higher needs dominate the actions of the individual (Maslow, 1943/1996).

In the 1950s, McGregor in contrast to Maslow's theory professed a belief that managers have a predisposed assumption about the employees. The assumption by the manager determines how the employee would respond to various orders or given tasks

(Bolman & Deal, 1997). McGregor exposed two theories of management's view of their employees. The theories are called Theory X and Theory Y, as discussed earlier. Theory X managers thought of their employees as lazy, lacking in ambition, needing directions, and indifferent to organizational goals (Owens, 1995).

Theory Y managers believe that the employees are highly motivated to use their potential to better the organization and the employees are eager to assume responsibility (McGregor, 1957/1996). Helgson (1995) follows the Theory Y beliefs when expressing an ameba-like structure should be used in every organization. On any given day, one can be a leader or a follower based on the expertise needed.

Political Frame

Astute political leaders understand how various employee groups form coalitions and these leaders know how to influence the group so as to direct the impact on the organization (Heimovics, Herman, & Jurkiewicz Coughlin, 1993). The political frame of leadership takes the view that the organization is vibrant, full of political arenas to sustain a multitude of individual and group interest (Bolman & Deal, 1997).

Bolman and Deal (1997) base the political frame on the following five assumptions:

1. Organizations are coalitions of various individuals and interest groups.
2. There are enduring differences among coalition members in values, beliefs, information, interests, and perceptions of reality.
3. Most important decisions involve the allocation of scarce resources – who gets what?
4. Scarce resources and enduring differences give conflict a central role in organizational dynamics and make power the most important resource.

5. Goals and decisions emerge from bargaining, negotiation, and jockeying for position among different stakeholders (p.163).

Mintzberg (1983/1996) recognizes coalitions form from groups with less than perfect agreement on goals. The different groups may have only a few items of similar interest, but they will work together to lobby for specific issues. Thus, the reason for the first assumption, the emergence of coalitions is not dependent upon the groups being in complete agreement with one another before working together on an issue.

The second assumption is based upon each coalition having beliefs and values that are going to create competition and conflict (Shafritz & Ott, 1996). The conflict between groups remains concealed in times of homogeneity. Once the reasons for the coalition no longer exist the groups return as competitors toward one another and the enduring differences surface. The political activity would be more open in periods of diversity than in times of common goals (Bolman & Deal, 1997).

Financial considerations become a political battlefield during times of scarce resources. The third assumption maintains the degree of political activity has a direct correlation to the amount of resources available for allocation within the organization. Competition between various factions occurs continuously in an organization with scarce resources (Shafritz & Ott, 1996).

The fourth assumption centers on the role power plays in an organization between the enduring differences of groups and the available resources. The five bases of power according to French and Raven (1959/1996) are reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert. Each of these power types involves the one-word definition of the interaction between personalities. Pfeffer (1981/1996) contends that politics involve the exercise of power to achieve a goal. Power brings two kinds of capacities. The first type of capacity

means to have the access to resources, information and the backing to complete a task. The second type of capacity can be captured by having the ability to receive the cooperation necessary to accomplish the task (Kanter, 1979/1996). As a result, the leader's ability to utilize power will become the measure of the political skill of the leader (Mintzberg, 1983/1996).

Goal development cannot be the sole prize possession of the leader. The fifth assumption asserts that goals are the result of a never-ending process of compromise and interaction between all of the stakeholders within an organization (Bolman & Deal, 1997). Therefore, the goals of any organization reflect the preferences of one or many groups or individuals. Goals are far from perfect because of the process (Pheffer, 1981/1996).

Power in the 1860s education system resided in one person (usually a male) (Hansot & Tyack, 1982). Bolman and Deal (1997) contend that power now rests in a multitude of people or groups. Their view favors that the exercise of power has a maturation process in every organization. Thus, the change from the early American educational system where power was reserved for one male to the more democratic use of power in the 21st century can be viewed on a continuum measuring the maturity of the educational system. Owens (1995) reasoned the political conflict forces an organization to seek successful ways to resolve its issues and providing an immediate support system for the goal. Power should be used to assist people not to keep them in their place.

Symbolic Frame

This frame emerges from the study of organizations and analyzes the driving forces behind employee loyalty to the organization. Bolman and Deal (1997) explain the

symbolic frame as the organizational culture. The culture of an organization comes from the rituals, ceremonies, and stories rather than from the rules, policies or managerial decisions (Bolman & Deal, 1997). A true leader calls upon the culture to rally the individuals and groups to attain the organizational goals.

Bolman and Deal (1997) base the symbolic frame on the following assumptions:

1. What is most important about any event is not what happened but what it means.
2. Activity and meaning are loosely coupled; events have multiple meanings because people interpret experience differently.
3. Most of life is ambiguous or uncertain – what happened, why it happened, or what will happen next are all puzzles.
4. High levels of ambiguity and uncertainty undercut rational analysis, problem solving, and decision-making.
5. In the face of uncertainty and ambiguity, people create symbols to resolve confusion, increase predictability, provide direction, and anchor hope and faith.
6. Many events and processes are more important for what is expressed than what is produced. They form a cultural tapestry of secular myths, rituals, ceremonies, and stories that help people find meaning, purpose, and passion (p. 217).

The perception of an organization by those who work for the organization and to outsiders determines the level of confidence and support for the organization (Bolman & Deal, 1997). Myths, fairy tales, and stories are the vehicle used to convey an organization's perception to insiders and outsiders. Rituals and ceremonies provide clarity, predictability and a sense of order to the organization.

The rituals, myths, ceremonies, and stories become the symbols that convey the organization's culture. Kilman (1985) compares organizational culture to a human personality. Organizational culture consists of solutions that work consistently and are

taught to newcomers. Owens (1995) maintains that a culture develops over a stretch of time and as it develops, the culture picks up a significantly deeper meaning. Schein (1985/1996) states the most important function of a leader is to create and maintain a vibrant, purposeful organizational culture.

Many groups in higher education, such as faculty, specialty programs that provide the visual claims of distinctiveness of higher education, alumni and students, help create and maintain the organizational culture of the institution (Clark, 1975). Sergiovanni, Burlingame, Coombs, and Thurston (1992) believe that “the more understood, accepted and cohesive the culture of the school, the better able it is to move in concert toward ideals it holds and objectives it wishes to pursue” (p. 159).

One distinct advantage that a particular organization has over another could be the development of the culture. Organizations that have developed a unique identity through the emphasis placed on creating heroes, utilizing rituals and acknowledging the values of the culture have an upper hand over other organizations. Such organizations are deemed humanistic because they provide employees with purpose and desire to obtain the organizational goals (Deal & Kennedy, 1982/1995).

Multi-Frame Perspective

Leaders are constantly facing more complex situations and challenges. Use of the multi-frame model to determine possible solutions increases the possibilities of addressing the problem in a manner that is acceptable to the organization and its mission. “Life is full of simultaneous events that can be interpreted in a variety of ways” (Bolman & Deal, 1997, p. 266). A leader who resolves problems by using the multi-frame model increases the likelihood of being successful versus a leader who attacks problems “from

an inappropriate or single perspective” (Heimovics, Herman, & Jurkiewicz Coughlin, 1993, p. 421).

The multi-frame model offers a means to examine every situation and event from multiple viewpoints. Bolman and Deal (1997) state that a leader’s capacity and talent to reframe experiences to enhance and expand a leader’s range. Great leaders treat each situation as a unique event in the organization.

Situational leadership approaches are the forerunners to the Bolman and Deal’s Frames of Leadership. Hersey and Blanchard (1996) profess that leaders should choose from various leadership styles to fit the needs of the specific situation. Wren (1995), who found that by classifying the specific situation a leader could begin to determine a response, further identifies this concept as being vital to the success of a leader. Visionary leaders according to Sashkin (1986) must have a keen understanding of situational dynamics that could determine what leadership style and actions are needed. Schein (1985/1996) believes leadership needs to be flexible in response to a situation, and flexibility is a critical role played by the leader. The leader must be the first to recognize a change in the work setting and the first to determine what needs to be done in response to the change.

Kanter (1979/1996) believes successful managers/leaders to be change masters. These are leaders who have a clear set of goals and objectives but remain able to adapt to new external forces with internal decision-making and innovative ideas. Helgesen (1995) further believes the entire organization needs clear goals and objectives and the ability to adapt to external forces with new internal decision-making and innovative ideas. Kanter

(1979/1996) proposes change masters as those who can make decisions on what is not yet known and the decisions require a leap of faith.

Senge (1990) has introduced systems thinking. This framework requires the leaders to see the big picture. Systems thinking provides a process for understanding the dynamic changes occurring within an organization rather than focusing on a static snapshot of the current issue being addressed. Nadler and Hibono (1994) propose another holistic approach to decision-making. Breakthrough thinking assumes every situation is unique and provides for a multiple, flexible and long-term decision-making process to be applied. It requires the understanding of various dimensions and elements of a given situation.

Multi-frame thinking offers the potential for new alternatives but carries the inherent danger that not every new decision or policy will be successful. The successful process requires “artistry, skill, and the ability to see organizations as organic to provide direction and shape behavior. The ability to see new possibilities and to create new opportunities enables leaders to discover alternatives when options seem severely constrained” (Bolman & Deal, 1997, p. 380). Leaders then have a broader understanding of the challenges and can choose the long-term goals and objectives needed to move the organization forward.

Leadership and Management

The Leadership Orientation (Self) Survey includes two questions that measure leadership and management. Bolman and Deal (1990) do not provide a definition of the each with the survey instrument. They believe the respondents would perceive the two measurements similarly. In reality, the two measurements have a high correlation to each

other for those completing the survey instrument. The correlation ranges from .75 to .85 (Bolman & Deal, 1991, p. 518).

Bolman and Deal (1997) see management and leadership as being different even though there is a tendency to confuse the two concepts. The literature between 1900s and 1980s treated the two terms as being synonymous (Rost, 1993). Several leadership theorists argue that there is a difference between leadership and management.

Leadership knows what needs to be done, communicates those needs, empowers others to perform and realizes when to maintain the approach or modify it to accomplish the mission (Bennis, 1989). Schein (1996) views leadership as being an integral part of the fabric of the organizational culture from development to demolition. Rost (1993) calls leadership the influence relationship between leaders and employees who enact the real changes by mutual consent.

In contrast, Rost (1993) defines management as the act of controlling behavior to accomplish an organization's goals and objectives. Further Rost states management is an authoritarian relationship between the manager and the employees. Bennis (1989) believes managers rely on control, administering, watching the bottom-line and doing things right.

Both management and leadership make use of power to accomplish the organizational goals (Rost, 1993). The difference becomes the role power plays in each term. Leaders tend to share power in a non-coercive and multidirectional fashion between leader and followers (Rost, 1993). Management tends to indicate power has been granted to an individual, while leadership exudes a feeling of influence that is independent of someone possessing authority (Ott, 1996).

The multi-frame perspective and leadership and management literature was presented only to provide a complete literature review of the instrument used in this study. This study focused on the data from the four frames in computing the comparison's found later in Chapter Four.

Summary

Retirement of community college presidents and K-12 superintendents has become a concern in the recruitment of new administrators. Across the nation, a shortage of administrators has been reported by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, through the American Association of School Administrators (Doud & Keller, 1998). Also, the American Association of Community Colleges expects 52% of current presidents to retire within the next six years (Shults, 2001).

Institutions must look beyond the normal areas to find replacements for today's leaders. The traditional pipeline has been the faculty of an institution. However, the faculty will be retiring at the same rate as the administration (Shults, 2001). Therefore, the institutions must take action to fill their vacancies. Self-selection into administrative programs will not be sufficient to meet leadership needs in educational systems (Vaughan, 2001). The skills for leadership have changed dramatically since the 1800s.

Trait leadership approaches have been disproved as the measuring stick to finding a great leader. Yukl (1989), however, has identified many traits and skills that are common to successful leaders, but possession of these does not guarantee success. McCall and Lombardo (1983) have also discovered traits possessed by leaders who were supposed to be successful and failed. The search for defining leadership shifted from traits to the study of the behavioral leadership approaches.

Studies of behavioral leadership approaches have been conducted by paper and pencil instruments (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996). Studies like the Ohio State University, University of Michigan and Likert's focus on two categories: initiating structure and consideration (Halpin, 1966). Likert (1961), unlike McGregor, believes successful leaders focus on the human element (consideration); whereas McGregor describes there were two kinds of people. There are people who need constant and direct supervision – Theory X, and those who are highly motivated and responsible – Theory Y (McGregor, 1957/1996).

Reddin (1970) feels there is more to successful leadership than the two dimensions. The extra component is an effectiveness dimension because one style could be either effective or ineffective depending on the situation. Hersey and Blanchard (1996) have built upon the concept with a contingency model that focuses on how leaders respond to situations. They believe successful leaders implement different styles of leadership based on the situation at hand. These situational leadership approaches became the start of moving leadership studies away from a search for the one best style of leadership.

Bolman and Deal's (1997) Frames of Leadership expand the search for leadership by providing more definition of the possible activities that would trigger a leader to use a particular style of leadership. Visionary leaders need a clear understanding of the situation to determine the appropriate leadership style to implement (Sashkin, 1989). A leader who can use the multi-frame approach would be more prepared to lead rather than just manage their organization.

Leadership realizes what needs to be done and empowers people to accomplish the task (Bennis, 1989). Rost (1993) views management as controlling behavior in an authoritarian manner. Both management and leaders use power. The difference is that managers have the power and leaders allow power to be used by anyone to accomplish the task (Rost, 1993). Transformational leadership approaches move the organization together as one instead of being pushed by one individual (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Leaders cannot mandate change it must come from the group (Cohen & Brawer, 2003). An organization's leader should provide each and every individual the opportunity to grow (Helgesen, 1995).

Transformational leaders know the culture of the organization and the problems to be addressed by the organization (Schein, 1992). Harrison (2000) has studied transformational leadership approaches and finds them to be a better predictor of organizational effectiveness than transactional leadership. However, many other factors are found to contribute to the performance of the organization including the culture. Senge (1990) identifies the development of a learning organization as a key element in a transformational leadership approach.

This literature review discovered many definitions of leadership but no definition was exclusive to either being a community college president or a K-12 superintendent (Bennis & Nanus, 1995; Rost, 1993). Nor did the literature review of the four leadership approaches identify any particular approach as exclusive to a community college president or a K-12 superintendent (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Fiedler, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1996; Northouse, 2001; Stogdill, 1974). Also, Bolman and Deal's (1997) four-leadership styles as measured in the instrument used for this study did not

distinguish between a K-12 superintendent and a community college president. Therefore, this study intends to investigate the hypothesis that both categories of educational leaders operate using similar styles of leadership.

CHAPTER 3

Method

Research Design and Rationale

A quantitative survey design provided the means to collect numeric data on a survey instrument called Four Frames of Leadership. The data collected from this sample gathered information on leadership that may serve as a database for future leadership studies.

The selection of a survey methodology provided: (1) easy access to participants through the use of mailings, (2) an economical means to reach the sample population, and (3) the ability to receive the data quickly. Difference inferential statistics were the appropriate statistics for this comparison study (Gliner & Morgan, 2000). Comparisons were drawn between (1) the responses of the community college presidents and the K-12 superintendents in Iowa and (2) the responses of the community college board presidents and the K-12 board presidents in Iowa.

Participants and Site

Community college presidents, K-12 superintendents and the board presidents of each institution in Iowa comprised the sample. A convenience sample provided access by the researcher, and subsequently had a positive impact on the return rate for the study.

Four different sources provided information used to obtain the sample population. The Iowa Association of School Boards (IASB) provided information concerning Iowa K-12 board presidents. There are a total of 370 K-12 school districts in Iowa and the

majority of these K-12 districts qualify as rural, small city/town or suburban districts. The School Administrators of Iowa (SAI) presented access to Iowa's K-12 superintendents.

The Iowa Department of Education (IDE) represented the source for identification of Iowa community college presidents. The limited sample size of 15 Iowa community college presidents reduces the researcher's ability to make generalizations based on this study. The community college board presidents in Iowa were accessed through the Iowa Association of Community College Trustees (IACCT). Each of these sources provided labels for mailing the transmittal letters, the measurement instrument, and follow up mailings to the participants of the study.

Data Collection

Each Iowa community college president, K-12 superintendent and board president received a packet of materials. The packet included a letter of transmittal to the potential participant explaining the study and the contents of the envelope and the appropriate Frames of Leadership Questionnaire.

A copy of the letter of transmittal to the potential participants appears in Appendix A and Appendix B. Appendix A was sent to community college presidents and K-12 superintendents in Iowa. A Frames of Leadership-Self instrument (Appendix C), including answer sheet, and a self-addressed stamped return envelope were sent to the community college presidents and K-12 superintendents in Iowa.

The community college board presidents and K-12 board presidents in Iowa received the transmittal letter (Appendix B), a Frames of Leadership-Other instrument with answer sheet (Appendix D), and a self-addressed stamped return envelope.

Appendix G is a copy of the permission to use the Frames of Leadership-Self and Other

instruments, and Appendix H is a copy of the permission to modify the Frames of Leadership-Other instrument to measure the ideal leadership style for these two positions.

Numerical coding of the instrument including the answer sheet allowed for proper mailing of the follow-up request for participation. The follow-up letter of transmittal (Appendices E and F) was sent to the appropriate community college president, K-12 superintendent, community college board president and K-12 board president. Another copy of the appropriate Frames of Leadership instrument (Appendices C and D) and a self-addressed stamped return envelope accompanied the follow-up letter approximately three weeks after the original mailing.

Measures

This comparative study utilized the Frames of Leadership-Self and Frames of Leadership-Other questionnaire (Bolman & Deal, 1990). "The instrument is in its third iteration, and internal reliability is very high: Cronbach's alpha for the frames measures range between .91 and .93" (Bolman & Deal, 1991, p. 518). Margaret Borden (2000) used the questionnaire to study the leadership orientation of area campus administrators in Florida and computed a Cronbach alpha range between .81 and .84 in her study. The Frames of Leadership questionnaire is sometimes referred to as the Four-Frame Model because the instrument measures four different styles of leadership behavior. Bolman and Deal (1991) based the instrument on the leadership styles of structure, human resources, political, and symbolic leadership.

In section I of the questionnaire, each respondent rates thirty-two (32) statements about leadership using a five point Likert-type scale. The scale ranges from 1 (never) to 5 (always). The respondents select a number that correlates to their leadership style for the

given statement. The thirty-two statements contain eight questions in each of the four frames of leadership. Further, Section I contains eight sub scales of the four frames, two for each of the four frames. The sub scales in relation to their four-frame partner are shown below in Table 2. Each sub scale is represented by four questions in Section I of the questionnaire.

Table 2

Four-Frames of Leadership and the Sub Scales of the Four-Frames of Leadership

Four-Frames of Leadership	Sub Scales Partner
Structural	Analytic and Organized
Human Resources	Supportive and Participative
Political	Powerful and Adroit
Symbolic	Inspirational and Charismatic

Section II consists of six statements. Respondents rank the phrases associated with each statement. The ranking or forced choices are on a continuum of one for the item that is least like the administrator to four for the item that best describes the administrator. The four phrases associated with each statement correlate to the Four-Frames of Leadership.

The third section of the questionnaire asked respondents to provide an overall rating of their effectiveness as a manager and as a leader. A five point Likert scale was used in Section III with 1 (bottom 20%) to 5 (top 20%). This section of the Frames of Leadership instrument did not inform the research goals of this study and therefore was not utilized.

Demographic questions were appended to the end of the instrument for the purpose of further comparisons. Each Iowa community college president and K-12 superintendent respondent provided information regarding years of experience as an administrator, gender, age, enrollment at the institution, and the number of supervisors directly reporting to the administrator.

The Iowa community college and K-12 board presidents provided demographic information regarding years of experience as board member, gender, age, enrollment at the institution and the number of supervisors directly reporting to the board president. The demographics in all cases were used only if a statistical significant difference emerged between comparison groups.

Data Analysis

This study investigated two hypotheses; 1) there are no statistical differences in the leadership styles of Iowa community college presidents and K-12 superintendents, and 2) there is no statistical difference in the perceived ideal leadership style identified by Iowa K-12 board presidents and the perceived ideal leadership style identified by Iowa community college board presidents. Statistical analyses were performed on the data given by the participants using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The respondents were placed into one of four representative groups. The four groups included Iowa community college presidents; Iowa K-12 superintendents; Iowa community college board presidents, and Iowa K-12 board presidents.

Section 1 of the instrument asked respondents to indicate responses a five point Likert scale. Participant scores from Section 1, Leader Behaviors Section, were determined by combining individual responses from items 1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25 and 29

for the structural frame; items 2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, and 30 for the human resource frame; items 3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23, 27, and 31 for the political frame; and, items 4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28 and 32 for the symbolic frame. Frequencies, percentages and means for each of the groups were computed. Before conducting comparative analyses, scores on the LOQ were explored using univariate procedures to assure that none of the normality assumptions including homogeneity, skewness, and kurtosis were violated in order to determine if parametric measures could be used in conducting the analyses. In addition, Z-scores were computed for each leadership style to provide a standardized score to be used with the results from Section 2.

The data in Section 2, the leadership styles portion of questionnaire, had six questions with four responses required per question; one response for each leadership style. Each question forced the respondent to record his/her answers on a four-point scale with 4 being most like the respondent or the most ideal and 1 being the least like the respondent or the least ideal. As in Section 1, these results were first explored using means and standard deviations for each leadership style frame. Frequencies, percentages and means for each of the groups were reviewed. Before conducting comparative analyses, scores on the LOQ in Section 2 were explored using univariate procedures to assure that none of the normality assumptions; including homogeneity, skewness, and kurtosis were violated in order to determine if parametric measures could be used in conducting the analyses. In addition, Z-scores were computed for each leadership style to provide a standardized score to be used with the results from Section 1.

The univariate procedures for both Section 1 and Section 2 found none of the normality assumptions violated; therefore, parametric statistics were used. The Z-scores

for each section were combined to yield a single score for each participant on each leadership style preference. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Post Hoc Tukey, correlation, and multiple regression represented the parametric statistics used to conduct the analyses. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to determine statistically significant difference for frame usage between Iowa community college presidents and K-12 superintendents or between the ideal frame usages as identified by the board presidents of these institutions. Effect sizes were computed as appropriate.

All appropriate secondary analyses and comparisons, including Post Hoc Tukeys, were conducted to examine more closely statistically significant differences indicated in initial analyses. Secondary analyses also consisted of correlation, regression, and further one-way ANOVAS to explore any possible effects of participant characteristics on the Frames of Leadership Questionnaire scores. Participant variables explored included age, years of experience as an administrator or board member, enrollment of institution, and number of administrators reporting directly to the community college president and the K-12 superintendent or the board presidents of these institutions.

Summary

The survey data collected indicated participant responses to the Four-Frames Leadership questionnaire. A total of 15 community college presidents and the 15 board presidents in Iowa were mailed the cover letter (Appendix A or B) and the appropriate questionnaire (Appendix C or D). Likewise, all 370 K-12 superintendents and board presidents were sent a cover letter and the appropriate questionnaire. A second mailing that included a follow up letter (Appendix E or F) and another copy of the appropriate

questionnaire (Appendix C or D) was sent to those who didn't respond within three weeks to the initial mailing.

This research used comparative analysis to examine the leadership styles of community college presidents as perceived by the presidents to the leadership styles of K-12 Iowa superintendents as perceived by the superintendents. Further, the ideal leadership style as perceived by the board presidents of each Iowa community college and K-12 system were compared to each other. Secondary comparisons were performed only if significant differences between similar groups were found during the analysis.

The study compared each similar group to the other using quantitative methods. The dependent variable is the rating of leadership style by each participant. The dependent variable is normally distributed and therefore, this researcher used parametric statistics.

CHAPTER 4

Presentation and Data Analysis

Introduction

This study examined the self-perception of leadership styles of Iowa community college presidents and K-12 superintendents. In addition, the study dealt with the ideal leadership style as perceived by the board presidents of Iowa community colleges and K-12 school districts. Considered also were the effects of key demographic variables in each of the four groups surveyed, if statistical differences were found between the community college presidents and the K-12 superintendents or between the board presidents of these institutions.

Distribution of the questionnaire occurred three times. The original mailing contained an error relating to the five-point Likert scale in Section 1. Therefore, a second and third mailing with a corrected questionnaire was used in order to achieve the following data. None of the original mailings are included in the following data. All second and third mailings were printed on different colored paper than the original mailing.

This chapter is organized in the following manner: (a) description of the sample, (b) results of the main analyses for each research question, (c) results of the secondary analyses on the sample demographic information and (d) the summary.

Sample Descriptive Statistics

A total of 770 questionnaires were mailed and the overall response rate was 55.7%. Table 3 categorizes the participants into four groups with a cumulative and group percentage returned. There are 15 community colleges in Iowa; therefore, the return rate for the community college board presidents was 73.3% and 86.7 % for the presidents. The K-12 return rate, with a total population of 370, was 46.2% for board presidents, and 63.2% for superintendents. The four groups made up the primary descriptive statistics that were used in the initial analyses for both research questions. Gender data in Table 3 is the first demographic variable presented in this chapter and the only nominal data collected for this study.

Table 3

Participants as Percent and Gender

Position	n	P	Gender	
			Male/P	Female/P
Community College Board Presidents	11	73.3	11 / 100.0	0 / 0.0
Community College Presidents	13	86.6	10*/ 76.9	2* / 15.4
K-12 Board Presidents	171	46.2	130*/ 76.0	37*/ 21.6
K-12 Superintendents	234	63.2	205*/ 87.6	24*/ 10.3
N	429	100.0	356*/ 83.0	63*/ 14.7

Note: Percent column numbers were rounded. * Indicates missing data.

Other Demographic Descriptives

The remaining sample demographic descriptives are all scale data. These descriptives along with the gender descriptives in Table 3 were used in the regression

analyses upon finding a significant difference in research question number one. The scale data descriptives are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4

Other Scale Descriptive Mean Statistics

Position	<i>n</i>	Enrollment	Age	Yrs of Experience	Supervisors
CC Board President	11	4423.18	61.55	19.64	1.13
K-12 Board President	13	1,332.78	49.75	8.69	1.33
CC President	171	6,375.00	53.33	23.83	6.92
K-12 Superintendent	234	1,095.11	52.35	19.16	6.28
N	429				

Note: Means were rounded to two decimal places.

Results Primary Analyses

The “Leadership Orientations Questionnaire” (LOQ) created by Lee Bolman (1991) to determine a manager’s frame of leadership provided the data for this study. The questionnaire has two versions. The first version is a “self-form,” used with the community college presidents and K-12 superintendents for research question number one. The second version, “other,” used with the community college board and K-12 board presidents for research question number two was modified, with Lee Bolman’s permission, to ask the board presidents to describe the ideal leader for their respective organizations (Appendix H).

The LOQ has three sections and measures each respondent’s preference to use one or more leadership styles in a given situation. There are four leadership styles measured by the LOQ: (1) structural, (2) human resource, (3) political, and (4) symbolic.

This study used the results from Section 1 and Section 2. The 32 items in Section 1 allowed for respondents' answers to be numerically coded and analyzed. The questions required a response on a five-point Likert scale with 5 being the highest. Each leadership style was represented by eight questions in Section 1. Respondents indicated the degree to which each leadership statement was true for them.

The results from the leadership behavior portion of the survey were first examined through the means and standard deviation for each leadership style frame. A Z-score was computed to standardize the scores in order to combine the results from Section 1 with the results from Section 2.

Section 2, the leadership style portion of questionnaire, had six responses representing each leadership style. Each question forced the respondents to record their answers on a four-point scale with 4 being most like the respondent or the most ideal and 1 being the least like the respondent or the least ideal. As in Section 1, the results from the leadership style portion of the LOQ were first analyzed using means and standard deviation for each leadership style frame. Once again, a Section 2 Z-score was obtained in order to standardize the leadership style scores.

Z-score Descriptives

The main analyses involved combining variables with different means and standard deviations. Therefore, Z-scores were formed for Section 1 and Section 2 and then a combined Z-score was created for use in the primary and secondary analyses. The combined Z-score descriptives are shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Combined Z-Score Descriptives

Leadership Style	Position	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Structural	Comm College Board Pres	10	-.11	0.78
	K12 Board President	166	0.26	0.73
	Comm College President	13	-.54	0.76
	K12 Superintendent	226	-.14	0.83
Human Resources	Comm College Board Pres	9	-.32	0.85
	K12 Board President	166	-.12	0.88
	Comm College President	13	-.23	0.90
	K12 Superintendent	227	0.11	0.76
Political	Comm College Board Pres	10	0.36	0.96
	K12 Board President	166	-.05	0.75
	Comm College President	13	0.48	0.72
	K12 Superintendent	225	-.01	0.74
Symbolic	Comm College Board Pres	10	0.54	0.69
	K12 Board President	166	0.39	0.70
	Comm College President	13	0.31	0.97
	K12 Superintendent	226	-.31	0.83

Table 6 represents the ANOVAS used to analyze whether there was a significant difference among the four respondent groups and the four leadership styles. A significant difference was found in each leadership style at $\alpha = .05$. These ANOVAS are the main effects. The ANOVA results for each leadership style follow: Structural $F(3,411)=10.57, p=.000$, Human Resource $F(3,411)=3.48, p=.016$, Political $F(3,411)=2.78, p=.041$, and Symbolic $F(3,411)=27.67, p=.000$.

Table 6

Combined Z-Score Leadership Style ANOVA

Leadership Style		SS	df	MS	F	P
Structural	Between Groups	19.612	3	6.537	10.572**	.000
	Within Groups	254.144	411	.618		
	N	273.757				
Human Resources	Between Groups	7.000	3	2.333	3.477*	.016
	Within Groups	275.815	411	.671		
	N	282.815				
Political	Between Groups	4.653	3	1.551	2.780*	.041
	Within Groups	228.768	411	.558		
	N	233.421				
Symbolic	Between Groups	51.196	3	17.065	27.666*	.000
	Within Groups	253.520	411	.617		
	N	304.716				

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Position Post Hoc Tukey

To examine which specific pairs of means were significant a Post Hoc Tukey was performed (see Table 7). The only pair of means that had a significant difference directly related to a research question was found between the mean symbolic score for community college presidents and the mean symbolic score for K-12 superintendents with a slightly large mean difference (.63) as noted in Table 7. The effect size for this statistical significant difference is .7, which is slightly large according to Cohen (as cited in Morgan, Griego, & Gloeckner, 2001).

Table 7

Post Hoc Tukey Significant Differences Only by Position to this Study

Leadership Styles	(I) Position	(J) Position	HSD	SE	Sig.
Symbolic	CommCollegePres	K12Superintendent	0.63	* 0.22	0.03

Correlation Analyses

The post hoc Tukey presented six statistical differences noted in Table 7. However, only one statistical difference was related to a research question. This difference was in symbolic leadership style between the community college presidents and the K-12 superintendents. As a result of this difference, a new nominal variable was created called revised position. The revised position variable allowed correlation analyses on the demographic factors associated with the community college presidents and the K-12 superintendents in regard to symbolic leadership style. This analysis omitted demographic data from the board presidents of Iowa community colleges and K-12 institutions. To analyze statistical relations between symbolic leadership, revised position, gender, age, enrollment, years of administrative experience and the number of supervisors reporting to the administrator, Pearson Correlations were computed. Significant correlations were found between symbolic leadership style and revised position, $r(229)=-.161, p=.007$; symbolic leadership style and enrollment, $r(229)=0.170, p=.005$ and symbolic leadership and number of supervisors reporting, $r(229)=0.145, p=.014$. Effect sizes for these correlations were according to Cohen (as cited in Morgan, Griego, & Gloeckner, 2001) considered small as each r was between .10 and .20 as noted above.

Table 8

Pearson Correlation Dependent Variable Symbolic Leadership Style

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Symbolic	--						
2. Revised Position	-.161*	--					
3. Enrollment	0.170*	-.455	--				
4. Years of Adm	-.028	-.122	0.206	--			
5. Reporting	0.145*	-.023	0.418	0.095	--		
6. Age	0.039	-.036	0.137	0.673	-.008	--	
7. Gender	0.016	-.043	-.073	-.338	-.041	-.176	--

Note: * $p < .05$, one tailed.

Regression

A regression analysis was performed to analyze the strength of the predictor variables (position, enrollment, years of administrative experience, number of supervisors reporting to the administrator, age, and gender) on symbolic leadership style preference. In the initial multiple regression analyses, three variables were found to significantly predict symbolic leadership style preference. They are revised position $-.161$ ($p = .007$), students $.170$ ($p = .005$), and supervisors reporting $.145$ ($p = .014$). A high collinearity ($r = .455$) between students and supervisors reporting in relationship to symbolic leadership style preference. Due to the collinearity the decision was to re-run the multiple regression removing the non-significant predictor variables of gender, years of administrative experience and age but to combine students and supervisors reporting.

Utilizing the second multiple regression analyses, symbolic leadership style scores were regressed on the linear combination of revised position and the combination

of students and supervisors reporting. The variance predicted from the combination of the two-predictor variables was 5.8%. Both revised position and the combination of students and supervisors reporting yielded significant small effect sizes on symbolic leadership according to Cohen (as cited in Morgan, Griego, & Gloeckner, 2001). The effect size for revised position ($R = .161$; adjusted $R^2 = .022$) is .16 and the effect size for the combination of students and supervisors reporting ($R = .220$; adjusted $R^2 = .036$) is .22. The beta weights the second regression are revised position $-.130$ ($p = .081$), for students $.062$ ($p = .445$), and supervisors reporting $.115$ ($p = .114$).

Table 9

Regression Symbolic Leadership Style Preference (N = 229)

Predictor Variable(s)	B	SE B	<i>B</i>
Step 1			
Revised Position	-.558	.290	-.145
Gender	-3.466	.192	-.013
Students	2.126	.000	.064
Years Administrative	-1.664	.009	-.168
Supervisors Reporting	2.199	.012	.132
Age	1.725	.011	.137
Step 2			
Revised Position	-.503	.287	-.130
Students	2.096	.000	.062
Supervisors Reporting	1.932	.012	.115

Note. $R^2 = .063$ for Step 1; Adjusted $R^2 = .038$ for Step 1 ($p < .05$).

Summary

Research question number one stated that there is no statistical difference in leadership style between community college presidents and the K-12 superintendents. Leadership style was measured using the Leadership Orientation Questionnaire. The overall ANOVA was significant, and a post hoc Tukey determined that there is a statistical significant difference between the community college president and the K-12 superintendent regarding the Symbolic Leadership style.

Secondary analyses were performed on the demographic data to further explore the nature of this difference. Pearson correlations and regression analyses yielded significant results for three demographic variables. The two demographics positively associated with symbolic leadership are enrollment and the number of supervisors reporting to the administrator. The primary demographic negatively associated with symbolic leadership style is the administrator's position meaning the K-12 superintendents are less likely to use symbolic leadership style.

Research question number two comparing ideal leadership style preferences between Iowa community college board presidents and K-12 board presidents yielded no statistical significant results occurring in any of the four leadership style preferences.

CHAPTER 5

Summary of Study, Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine and compare the leadership styles of Iowa community college presidents and K-12 superintendents. In addition, the study examined and compared the ideal leadership styles of Iowa community college presidents and K-12 superintendents as perceived by the board presidents of these institutions. Key demographics were examined if significant statistical differences were found between the similar groups. This chapter was organized in the following manner: (a) summary of the study and findings, (b) interpretation of the data, (c) implications and (d) recommendations.

Summary of Study

The study focused on community colleges presidents and K-12 superintendents and the future needs for educational leadership. While leadership has long been a topic of study, it currently draws this researcher's interest because a shortage of administrators has been forecasted (Doud & Keller, 1998; Shults, 2001). In addition the literature does not mention any particular leadership style as being exclusive to a community college president or a K-12 superintendent (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Fiedler, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1996; Northouse, 2001; Stogdill, 1974).

Although there are people who feel the leadership shortage is approaching in the near future, the review of literature in Chapter 2 shows it is here now (Kelly, 2002;

Trends and Issues, para. P. 1). There are three main reasons for the potential leadership shortage. First, the aging workforce has contributed to a shortage in the availability of educational leaders (Changing Schools, P. 2; Shults, 2001). Second, financial issues in education are keeping people from accepting an educational leader role (Little, 2002; Glass, 2001). Finally, there appears to be a limited supply of qualified educational leaders (Kelly, 2002; Stricherz, 2001).

Retiring Workforce

A workforce closing in on retirement is present at the community college level. Currently there is a national concern over the number of administrators planning to retire over the next five years. Furthermore, the faculties who are the normal pipeline for replacing these retiring leaders are aging at the same rate as the administration (Shults, 2001). According to Dr. Larry Ebbers, Iowa community colleges have experienced a 60 percent turnover in presidents as a result of retirement in the past two years (personal communication, April 6, 2002).

The K-12 staff is aging in similar numbers. Nationally, one-half of the teachers will become eligible to retire over the next decade. These faculty members represent the traditional pipeline in K-12 to seek new educational leaders. An Iowa State Education Association poll discovered 40 percent of Iowa's teachers are eligible to retire in the next five years (A Crisis in the Making, P. 1). Thus, a workforce rapidly approaching retirement is a factor in filling educational leadership vacancies K-12 and community colleges in Iowa (A Crisis in the Making, P. 1; Shults, 2001).

Financial Constraints

The educational institutions financial resources play a key role in attracting a quality educational leader. The long hours of work and the stresses involved with being

in educational leadership leave many individuals feeling the position does not pay enough to attract them away from the classroom and into administration (Glass, 2001; Little, 2002). Therefore, some faculty who potentially could become leaders fails to pursue such a career (A Crisis in the Making, P. 1; Trends and Issues, P. 1). Often prospective leaders are attracted to the private sector because of the higher salaries and benefits (Colgan, 2003; Little, 2002).

Declining Applicant Pool

Due to a large portion of the workforce nearing retirement and a lack of financial incentives there is a limited pool of applicants for each new vacancy. Community colleges and K-12 schools now approach potential presidents and superintendents rather than waiting for the individual to self-select administration as career advancement (Murphy, 2001; Newsom, 2001; Vaughn, 2001). These candidates are provided with a variety of training programs. Some of the new programs are standards based, replacing a one-time set of courses in educational leadership training (Iowa Standards for School Leadership, P. 1; Murphy, 2001).

Discussion of Findings

The present study sought to address these three concerns by comparing the leadership styles for Iowa community college presidents and K-12 superintendents. The two research questions were investigated through four comparisons. The four comparisons were based on the different leadership styles measured by the Leadership Orientation Questionnaire for the four groups of participants (LOQ) (Bolman & Deal, 1997). Those leadership styles are (1) structural; (2) human resource; (3) political; and (4) symbolic.

Research Question Number One

The first research question states that there are no statistical differences in the leadership styles of Iowa community college presidents and K-12 superintendents. The results demonstrated that there was significant statistical difference between the Iowa community college presidents and the K-12 superintendents. The overall ANOVAS did show a significant difference in leadership styles, and they included data from all four-comparison groups. However, the post hoc Tukey analyses determined that Iowa community college presidents and K-12 superintendents were only statistically different in symbolic leadership style. Community college presidents had a higher preference for utilizing symbolic leadership style as compared to the K-12 superintendents.

By contrast Heimovics, Herman, and Jurkiewicz Coughlin (1993) found the political leadership style to be the difference between nonprofit organizational leaders (non-educational institutions) and for profit business leaders. The stated reason for the difference was that nonprofit leaders used political leadership style to work external (outside their organization) sources for revenue support. For profit business leaders favored structural leadership style as most of their actions occurred internally (within the organization).

Further analyses were conducted on the symbolic difference in research question number one to find out if the variation was attributed to the group demographics. These analyses were performed using correlation and regression statistics. Pearson correlations were computed; the three demographic factors found to be significant with symbolic leadership style were position, enrollment and number of supervisors reporting.

First, the respondents' position in association with symbolic leadership style indicated the K-12 superintendent is less likely to use symbolic leadership style in a given situation. The larger number of respondents making up the nominal variable revised position correlated with a lower symbolic leadership score further supporting the results of the post hoc Tukey. It is worth noting that, similar to Bolman and Deal (1991), this study did not find any difference based on gender.

Secondly, the higher an institution's enrollment, the more likely the leader would use symbolic leadership in a given situation. Similarly, Borden (2000) completed a study in Florida using Bolman and Deal's LOQ (1997) and determined that there was a statistically significant difference in leadership style preference between the deans at a community college campus and a four-year higher education institution. Symbolic leadership style was a leadership style preference for the four-year higher education deans, while the primary leadership style preference for community college deans was the human resource leadership style. Finally, the larger the number of supervisors reporting to the administrator the more likely the administrator was to use symbolic leadership style in a given situation.

Research Question Number Two

The second research question states there will be no statistical difference in the perceived ideal leadership style identified by K-12 board presidents and the perceived ideal leadership style identified by community college board presidents. Indeed, the second research question found no significant statistical difference in the ideal leadership style as perceived by the board presidents of Iowa community colleges and K-12 school districts. While the four main ANOVAS did show an overall relationship, the post hoc

Tukey analysis did not demonstrate any significant difference between the Iowa community college board presidents and the K-12 board presidents. Therefore, no secondary analyses were performed on the demographics associated with Iowa community college board presidents and K-12 board presidents.

Unintended Findings

This study was not concerned with whether the board presidents' ideal agreed with their actual current leaders. The post hoc Tukey did reveal evidence that the community college presidents were like the community college board presidents' ideal leader. In contrast, the K-12 superintendents were not like the K-12 board presidents' ideal. This finding was contrary to Bolman and Deal's (1991) study that used a comparison between the leader's self-perception and colleague ratings of the leader; however, the focus was to determine effectiveness. Determining if the community college president or the K-12 superintendent fit the ideal of their respective board president was not a part of this study.

The community college presidents' ideal was significantly different from the K-12 board presidents' ideal in structural leadership style preference. K-12 superintendents' self-perceptions were significantly different than their board presidents' ideal in structural, human resource and symbolic leadership style preference. However, the K-12 superintendents were significantly different from the community college board presidents' ideal on just one leadership style preference-symbolic. Just as no distinction can be found in the literature as to leadership style in regard to a community college president or a K-12 superintendent, little or no distinction between a K-12 superintendent

and the community college board president's ideal exist (Northouse, 2001; Stogdill, 1974).

Conclusions

Based upon the findings in this study four conclusions were made:

1. It appeared that position was the main reason there was a significant difference between the symbolic leadership style of Iowa community college presidents and K-12 superintendents. This difference was found by performing a post hoc Tukey. The difference was positive when comparing the community college presidents to the K-12 superintendents, which meant the community college presidents were more likely to use symbolic leadership style in fulfilling their duties. The effect size according to Cohen (as cited in Morgan, Griego, & Gloeckner, 2001) was small. This finding correlates to other studies that used Bolman and Deal's LOQ (1997) in that position held affects leadership style preference (Borden, 2000).

2. In addition, correlation and regression analyses on the demographics provided by the community college presidents and K-12 superintendents demonstrated that three demographics were significantly associated with symbolic leadership style preference. The three demographics were revised position, enrollment and number of supervisors reporting.

Revised position was a nominal variable created to select only community college presidents and K-12 superintendents, plus their demographics to be compared to symbolic leadership style preference. The negative correlation verified the post hoc Tukey results because the K-12 superintendents represent the larger portion of the

variable revised position. Therefore, a negative correlation signified the K-12 superintendents were less likely to use symbolic leadership style in a given situation.

The other two significantly correlated demographics along with revised position were further analyzed by multiple regression techniques. The regression analyses found that enrollment and the number of supervisors reporting to the leader produced four percent more predictability in the preference to use symbolic leadership style. Since collinearity was high between these two variables, each in and of itself produced a non-significant correlation.

3. The demographic data analysis does suggest that an educational leader, regardless of position, may have a preference to use symbolic leadership. Further, the leader at any educational institution with high student enrollment would be more likely to have a preference to use symbolic leadership style. High enrollment is defined as a K-12 educational institution with 1,095 or more students, or as a community college with at least 6,375 full-time equated students. Also, the leader at any Iowa community college or K-12 who has at least seven or more supervisors reporting to the leader would have a preference to use the symbolic leadership style in any given situation.

Circumstances, either by the nature of the organization or the societal norms surrounding the educational institution, play a role in which leadership style the leader preferred. In a study conducted by Bolman and Deal (1991), the political leadership style was a preferred style of leadership by 50 percent of the K-12 principals surveyed in Minnesota and Florida and 70 percent of the higher education administrators from across the United States.

4. Based on the combination of these conclusions, the results support the literature review in that effective leadership is not defined in terms of position, but rather in terms of skills and leadership styles possessed by the leader. In addition, Bolman and Deal indicated effective leaders are adept at using structural and human resource leadership styles (Fidler, 1997). Therefore, an Iowa community college president could be a K-12 superintendent and vice versa, as the two groups have three of the four leadership style preferences in common. The three common leadership style preferences include structural, human resource, and political leadership styles.

Recommendations

Based upon the research and conclusions of this study, the following general and research recommendations are made:

1. Results of this study could be shared with Iowa educational organizations such as School Administrators of Iowa, Iowa Association of School Boards, Iowa's community college presidents and Iowa Association of Community Colleges Trustees. These organizations could use these data to select candidates for leadership positions at their educational organizations on the basis of leadership styles.

2. The organizations in recommendation number one could use the study as the basis to pursue more study into the potential for K-14 educational leadership opportunities to benefit their organizations.

3. The K-12 superintendents group could benefit from training to identify and promote organizational culture. Symbolic leadership according to the literature is primarily concerned with an organization's culture. It is the culture of an organization that develops employee loyalty rather than the rules or policies (Bolman & Deal, 1997).

Symbolic leadership style assumes events are more important for what is happening than what is produced, and that people create culture to resolve conflicts, increase predictability, and provide direction and hope (Deal & Kennedy, 1982/1995; Senge 1990; Schein, 1992).

4. Leadership training programs could move away from the traditional seat time preparation training (Newsom, 2001; Trends and Issues, P. 2; Vaughn, 2001). Iowa community college presidents and K-12 superintendents are facing an increasingly complex battle to provide the best education possible with many obstacles to overcome (Basinger, 2002; Newsom, 2001; Murphy, 2001) including retaining/attracting quality leaders to their institution. The leaders in the 21st century need to be equipped with the ability to approach problems with a multi-frame model instead of dealing from one style of leadership in addressing any given situation (Bolman & Deal, 1997). Current and future leaders need to possess the capacity to address a problem with more than one style of leadership. Earlier studies of leadership focused on finding the one true style of leadership to be used by every leader (Halpin, 1959; Likert, 1961).

Modern viewpoints suggest that a multi-frame model allows the leader to use his or her experience and training to resolve the issue based on the best approach from a variety of options versus a one-size-fits-all approach (Bolman & Deal, 1997). Training programs for educational leaders would need to provide more activity based experiences rather than traditional textbook course work to prepare the educational leaders of tomorrow (Newsom, 2001; Trends and Issues, P. 3).

5. Replication of this study in other states and/or regions of the United States could validate the findings as consistent across the nation. A limitation of the current

study was that there are only 15 community colleges in Iowa. Bolman and Deal's (1991) study that compared administrators in higher education, business leaders from 15 nations and principals from Florida and Oregon found differences from one region of the country to another. Therefore, more studies across the nation are necessary before generalizations beyond the State of Iowa can be proclaimed.

6. Additional research questions should be added to allow cross comparisons such as K-12 board presidents to K-12 superintendents. With three statistically significant differences in leadership style preference between the ideal superintendent leadership style and the self-perception, the K-12 school must take steps to affect the key role that good board and superintendent relations plays in the effective and efficient operation of a K-12 school district (Carver, 2000; Dawson & Quinn, 2000).

7. A research study could be conducted to determine the differences in ideal leadership style between the community college board members and the K-12 board members. The K-12 board presidents had more significant differences when compared to any group in this study. Perhaps, more demographics such as educational background, occupation and amount of board member training should be used to determine the significant differences between the groups.

8. Results of this study could be made available to national and state organizations involved in seeking new community college presidents and K-12 superintendents. This study has at least opened the door to the possibility that a community college president could be a K-12 superintendent or vice versa. The post hoc Tukey results demonstrate that K-12 superintendents are more like community college presidents in 3 out of 4 leadership style preferences. This is especially true for K-12

educational leaders whose organizations have enrollment at 1,095 or more and/or who have at least seven supervisors reporting to them.

9. Future researchers could replicate this study and add to the knowledge base on leadership style preferences by seeking to determine effectiveness. Determining effectiveness can best be accomplished by a comparison of the self-perception to colleagues' perception of reality, as was the case in Bolman and Deal's study (1991). Another method to determine effectiveness is the implementation of a qualitative study to observe community college presidents and K-12 superintendents making daily decisions. The observers would be trained in identification of Bolman and Deal's frames of leadership as was the case in the nonprofit study conducted by Heimovics, Herman, Jurkiewicz Coughlin (1993).

10. Finally, a study to determine how many leadership style preferences are employed by a community college president or a K-12 superintendent needs to be studied. The literature frequently suggests that an effective leader employ multiple leadership styles on a daily basis (Bolman & Deal, 1997; Borden, 2000; Heimovics, Herman & Jurkiewicz Coughlin, 1993; Fidler, 1997).

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APPENDIX A

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL
TO COMMUNITY COLLEGE PRESIDENTS
AND K-12 SUPERINTENDENTS IN IOWA

Colorado State University Letterhead--

October 4, 2002

Dear Community College President or K-12 Superintendent:

The purpose of this letter is to encourage your participation in a survey on perceived leadership styles of community college presidents and K-12 superintendents in Iowa. Plus, your board president will be asked to fill out the survey to identify the ideal leadership style.

As a doctoral candidate at Colorado State University, under the supervision of Timothy G. Davies Ph.D., I am in the process of gathering information for my dissertation. My dissertation, Leadership Style Comparison: Iowa Community College Presidents and Superintendents, is a comparison of leadership styles between Iowa's community college presidents and K-12 superintendents. And, the additional comparison of these self-perceptions to the board presidents perceived ideal leadership style.

Given the diversity among educational institutions, it leads one to wonder whether leadership styles also differ. If, as some research has indicated, effective leadership stems from the ability to adapt ones leadership style to the environment, one would come to the conclusion that leadership styles among these institutions would differ. The problem addressed in my dissertation is to determine if there are significant differences in the perceived leadership styles of community college presidents and K-12 superintendents in Iowa. The study does not pose a risk to any participant merely the potential to identify the leadership skills of community college presidents and superintendents in Iowa.

Enclosed you will find a survey form, as well as, a self-addressed stamped envelope. The directions are included throughout the survey and your answers should be recorded on the survey form. **It is estimated to take 10 minutes to complete the enclosed survey and demographic sheet. Your participation is strictly on a voluntary basis. When you are finished, return the survey in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope by November 15, 2002.** All collected data will be coded and remain strictly confidential. No respondents will be identified other than being placed in a general category depending on the demographic information gathered. Data will be combined and reported with the replies of the other respondents. There will not be an individual direct comparison of your response to your board president's response or any other individual response. All surveys will be destroyed three years after the analysis. **The return of the survey acknowledges your willingness to participate voluntarily and anonymously. The author of the survey instrument has requested the data be made available, if desired by the author. This possible exchange of information will not include the identification of individual responses.**

Thank you in advance for participating in this survey, as a practicing administrator; I realize how valuable your time is each day. If you would like a summary statement of the data collected from these surveys, please check at www.ptedesco.com. If you have any questions about the study, please feel free to contact Paul Tedesco via phone at 712-852-3201 (work) or by email at paultedesco@yahoo.com. Questions about subjects' rights may be directed to Celia S. Walker at (970)-491-1563.

Sincerely,

Paul Tedesco
Ph.D. Candidate
Colorado State University

Timothy G. Davies, Ph.D.
Associate Professor of Education
Colorado State University

APPENDIX B
LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL
TO COMMUNITY COLLEGE BOARD PRESIDENTS
AND K-12 BOARD PRESIDENTS IN IOWA

Colorado State University Letterhead--

October 4, 2002

Dear Community College Board President or K-12 Board President:

The purpose of this letter is to encourage your participation in a survey on the perceived ideal leadership styles of community college presidents and K-12 superintendents in Iowa as identified by the board presidents. Plus, your community college president or K-12 superintendent will be asked to fill out a survey to identify his or her own leadership style.

As a doctoral candidate at Colorado State University, under the supervision of Timothy G. Davies, Ph.D., I am in the process of gathering information for my dissertation. My dissertation, Leadership Style Comparison: Iowa Community College Presidents and Superintendents, is a comparison of leadership styles between Iowa's community college presidents and K-12 superintendents. And, the additional comparison of these self-perceptions to the board presidents perceived ideal leadership style.

Given the diversity among educational institutions, it leads one to wonder whether leadership styles also differ. If, as some research has indicated, effective leadership stems from the ability to adapt ones leadership style to the environment, one would come to the conclusion that leadership styles among these institutions would differ. The problems addressed in my dissertation is to determine if there are significant differences in the perceived leadership style and do the presidents and superintendents identify a perceived leadership style significantly different than the ideal leadership style. The study does not pose a risk to any participants merely the potential to identify the leadership skills of community college presidents and superintendents in Iowa.

Enclosed you will find a survey form, as well as, a self-addressed stamped envelope. The directions are included throughout the survey and your answers should be recorded on the survey form. **It is estimated to take 10 minutes to complete the enclosed survey and demographic sheet. Your participation is strictly on a voluntary basis. When you are finished, return the survey in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope by November 15, 2002.** All collected data will be coded and remain strictly confidential. No respondents will be identified other than being placed in a general category depending on the demographic information gathered. Data will be combined and reported with the replies of the other respondents. There will not be an individual direct comparison of your response to your community college president or K-12 superintendent or any other individual's response. All surveys will be destroyed three years after the analysis. **The return of the survey acknowledges your willingness to participate voluntarily and anonymously. The author of the survey instrument has requested the data be made available, if desired by the author. This possible exchange of information will not include the identification of individual responses.**

Thank you in advance for participating in this survey, as a practicing administrator; I realize how valuable your time is each day. If you would like a summary statement of the data collected from these surveys, please check www.ptedesco.com. If you have any questions about the study, please feel free to contact Paul Tedesco via phone at 712-852-3201 (work) or by email at paultedesco@yahoo.com. Questions about subjects' rights may be directed to Celia S. Walker at (970)-491-1563.

Sincerely,

Paul Tedesco
Ph.D. Candidate
Colorado State University

Timothy G. Davies, Ph.D.
Associate Professor of Education
Colorado State University

APPENDIX C

FRAMES OF LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE-SELF

LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS (SELF)

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This questionnaire asks you to describe your leadership and management style.

I. Behaviors

You are asked to indicate *how often* each of the items below is true of you.

Please use the following scale in answering each item.

1 2 3 4 5
Never Occasionally Sometimes Often Always

So, you would answer '1' for an item that is never true of you, '2' for one that is occasionally true, '3' for one that is sometimes true of you, and so on.

Be discriminating! Your results will be more helpful if you think about each item and distinguish the things that you really do all the time from the things that you do seldom or never.

1. _____ *Think very clearly and logically.*
2. _____ *Show high levels of support and concern for others.*
3. _____ *Have exceptional ability to mobilize people and resources to get things done.*
4. _____ *Inspire others to do their best.*
5. _____ *Strongly emphasize careful planning and clear time lines.*
6. _____ *Build trust through open and collaborative relationships.*
7. _____ *Am a very skillful and shrewd negotiator.*
8. _____ *Am highly charismatic.*
9. _____ *Approach problems through logical analysis and careful thinking.*
10. _____ *Show high sensitivity and concern for others' needs and feelings.*
11. _____ *Am unusually persuasive and influential.*
12. _____ *Am able to be an inspiration to others.*
13. _____ *Develop and implement clear, logical policies and procedures.*
14. _____ *Foster high levels of participation and involvement in decisions.*
15. _____ *Anticipate and deal adroitly with organizational conflict.*
16. _____ *Am highly imaginative and creative.*
17. _____ *Approach problems with facts and logic.*
18. _____ *Am consistently helpful and responsive to others.*
19. _____ *Am very effective in getting support from people with influence and power.*
20. _____ *Communicate a strong and challenging sense of vision and mission.*
21. _____ *Set specific, measurable goals and hold people accountable for results.*
22. _____ *Listen well and am unusually receptive to other people's ideas and input.*
23. _____ *Am politically very sensitive and skillful.*
24. _____ *See beyond current realities to generate exciting new opportunities.*
25. _____ *Have extraordinary attention to detail.*
26. _____ *Give personal recognition for work well done.*
27. _____ *Develop alliances to build a strong base of support.*
28. _____ *Generate loyalty and enthusiasm.*
29. _____ *Strongly believe in clear structure and a chain of command.*
30. _____ *Am a highly participative manager.*
31. _____ *Succeed in the face of conflict and opposition.*
32. _____ *Serve as an influential model of organizational aspirations and values.*

II. Leadership Style

This section asks you to describe your leadership style. For each item, give the number "4" to the phrase that best describes you, "3" to the item that is next best, and on down to "1" for the item that is least like you.

1. My strongest skills are:

- a. *Analytic skills*
- b. *Interpersonal skills*
- c. *Political skills*
- d. *Ability to excite and motivate*

2. The best way to describe me is:

- a. *Technical expert*
- b. *Good listener*
- c. *Skilled negotiator*
- d. *Inspirational leader*

3. What has helped me the most to be successful is my ability to:

- a. *Make good decisions*
- b. *Coach and develop people*
- c. *Build strong alliances and a power base*
- d. *Energize and inspire others*

4. What people are most likely to notice about me is my:

- a. *Attention to detail*
- b. *Concern for people*
- c. *Ability to succeed, in the face of conflict and opposition*
- d. *Charisma.*

5. My most important leadership trait is:

- a. *Clear, logical thinking*
- b. *Caring and support for others*
- c. *Toughness and aggressiveness*
- d. *Imagination and creativity*

6. I am best described as:

- a. *An analyst*
- b. *A humanist*
- c. *A politician*
- d. *A visionary*

III. Overall rating

Compared to other individuals that you have known with comparable levels of experience and responsibility, how would you rate yourself on:

1. Overall effectiveness as a **manager** (circle one number).

1	2	3	4	5
Bottom 20%		Middle 20%		Top 20%

2. Overall effectiveness as a **leader** (circle one number).

1	2	3	4	5
Bottom 20%		Middle 20%		Top 20%

IV. Background Information

1. Are you: ____ Male ____ Female
2. How many FTE (enrollment) are included at your institution? _____
3. How many total years of experience do you have as an administrator? _____
4. How many supervisors directly report to you? _____
5. Are you (check one of the following):
 The president of a community college _____
 The superintendent _____
6. What is your age? _____

V. Survey Results

The survey results will be posted on the following web site:

www.ptedesco.com

APPENDIX D

FRAMES OF LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE-OTHER

Code Number: _____

LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS (IDEAL)

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This questionnaire asks you to describe an ideal person in terms of leadership and management style.

I. Leader Behaviors

You are asked to indicate *how often* each item would be true of an ideal person.

Please use the following scale in answering each item.

1 2 3 4 5
Never Occasionally Sometimes Often Always

So, you would answer '1' for an item that is never true of the person you are describing, '2' for one that is occasionally true, '3' for one that is sometimes true, and so on.

Be discriminating! The results will be more helpful if you think about each item and distinguish the things that an ideal person would do all the time from the things that s/he does seldom or never.

1. _____ *Thinks very clearly and logically.*
2. _____ *Shows high levels of support and concern for others.*
3. _____ *Shows exceptional ability to mobilize people and resources to get things done.*
4. _____ *Inspires others to do their best.*
5. _____ *Strongly emphasizes careful planning and clear time lines.*
6. _____ *Builds trust through open and collaborative relationships.*
7. _____ *Is a very skillful and shrewd negotiator.*
8. _____ *Is highly charismatic.*
9. _____ *Approaches problems through logical analysis and careful thinking.*
10. _____ *Shows high sensitivity and concern for others' needs and feelings.*
11. _____ *Is unusually persuasive and influential.*
12. _____ *Is an inspiration to others.*
13. _____ *Develops and implements clear, logical policies and procedures.*
14. _____ *Fosters high levels of participation and involvement in decisions.*
15. _____ *Anticipates and deals adroitly with organizational conflict.*
16. _____ *Is highly imaginative and creative.*
17. _____ *Approaches problems with facts and logic.*
18. _____ *Is consistently helpful and responsive to others.*
19. _____ *Is very effective in getting support from people with influence and power.*
20. _____ *Communicates a strong and challenging vision and sense of mission.*
21. _____ *Sets specific, measurable goals and holds people accountable for results.*
22. _____ *Listens well and is unusually receptive to other people's ideas and input.*
23. _____ *Is politically very sensitive and skillful.*
24. _____ *Sees beyond current realities to create exciting new opportunities.*
25. _____ *Has extraordinary attention to detail.*
26. _____ *Gives personal recognition for work well done.*
27. _____ *Develops alliances to build a strong base of support.*
28. _____ *Generates loyalty and enthusiasm.*
29. _____ *Strongly believes in clear structure and a chain of command.*
30. _____ *Is a highly participative manager.*
31. _____ *Succeeds in the face of conflict and opposition.*
32. _____ *Serves as an influential model of organizational aspirations and values.*

II. Leadership Style

This section asks you to describe the leadership style of an ideal person. For each item, give the number "4" to the phrase that best describes this person, "3" to the item that is next best, and on down to "1" for the item that is least like this person.

1. The individual's strongest skills are:
 - a. *Analytic skills*
 - b. *Interpersonal skills*
 - c. *Political skills*
 - d. *Ability to excite and motivate*
2. The best way to describe this person is:
 - a. *Technical expert*
 - b. *Good listener*
 - c. *Skilled negotiator*
 - d. *Inspirational leader*
3. What this individual does best is:
 - a. *Make good decisions*
 - b. *Coach and develop people*
 - c. *Build strong alliances and a power base*
 - d. *Energize and inspire others*
4. What people are most likely to notice about this person is:
 - a. *Attention to detail*
 - b. *Concern for people*
 - c. *Ability to succeed, in the face of conflict and opposition*
 - d. *Charisma.*
5. This individual's most important leadership trait is:
 - a. *Clear, logical thinking*
 - b. *Caring and support for others*
 - c. *Toughness and aggressiveness*
 - d. *Imagination and creativity*
6. This person is best described as:
 - a. *An analyst*
 - b. *A humanist*
 - c. *A politician*
 - d. *A visionary*

III. Overall rating

Compared to other individuals that you have known with comparable levels of experience and responsibility, how would you rate an ideal person on:

1. Overall effectiveness as a **manager (circle one)**.

1	2	3	4	5
Bottom 20%		Middle 20%		Top 20%
2. Overall effectiveness as a **leader (circle one)**.

1	2	3	4	5
Bottom 20%		Middle 20%		Top 20%

****This instrument was modified and adapted from the Leadership Orientation Instrument developed by Bolman and Deal with the author's permission—see Appendix H.**

IV. Background Information

The following information will not be provided to anyone, but will contribute to our efforts to compare the ideal person as perceived by the board president with self-perception of leadership style provided by the community college president and K-12 superintendent.

1. Are you: ___ Male ___ Female
2. How many FTE (enrollment) are included at your institution? _____
3. How many total years of experience do you have as a board member? _____
4. How many supervisors directly report to you? _____
5. Are you (check one of the following):
 I am a community college board president or recent past president _____
 I am a K-12 board president or recent past president _____
6. What is your age? _____

V. Survey Results

The survey results will be posted on the following web site:

www.ptedesco.com

APPENDIX E
FOLLOW UP LETTER
TO COMMUNITY COLLEGE PRESIDENTS
AND K-12 SUPERINTENDENTS IN IOWA

December 8, 2002

Dear Community College President or K-12 Superintendent

Recently, I mailed to you a packet of materials regarding a dissertation study comparing the perceived leadership styles of community college presidents and K-12 superintendents in Iowa. Plus, these responses were to be compared to the perceived ideal leadership style identified by the board presidents of these institutions. As of today, I have not received your completed survey. I am hoping this letter and your responses have crossed paths in the mail. The study does not pose a risk to any participants merely the potential to identify the leadership skills of community college presidents and superintendents in Iowa.

If not, I would like to take a moment to encourage you to take a few minutes of the day and fill out and return the enclosed survey and demographic sheet. Your participation is strictly on a voluntary basis. When you are finished, return the survey in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope by December 20, 2002. I assure you that your responses will be kept confidential and the data will be used for research purposes only. The benefits derived from an investigation of the perceived leadership styles of these educational leaders should provide data to allow for suggestions to be made to aid in the recruitment and placement of educational leaders. The return of the survey acknowledges your willingness to participate voluntarily and anonymously. The author of the survey instrument has requested the data be made available, if desired by the author. This possible exchange of information will not include the identification of individual responses.

If you have already returned the completed survey, please disregard this letter. I thank you for your time and assistance. If you have any questions concerning the study, please contact me at 712-852-3201 (office) or 712-852-4949 (home) or by email at paultedesco@yahoo.com. Questions about subjects' rights may be directed to Celia S. Walker at (970)-491-1563

Once again, I want to thank you for your time and effort. Your cooperation and willingness to participate is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Paul Tedesco
Ph.D. Candidate
Colorado State University

APPENDIX F
FOLLOW UP LETTER
TO COMMUNITY COLLEGE BOARD PRESIDENTS
AND K-12 BOARD PRESIDENTS IN IOWA

December 8, 2002

Dear Community College Board President or K-12 Board President

Recently, I mailed to you a packet of materials regarding a dissertation study comparing the ideal leadership styles of community college presidents and K-12 superintendents in Iowa as identified by the board presidents. Plus, these responses were to be compared to the perceived leadership style identified by the current community college presidents and K-12 superintendents. As of today, I have not received your completed survey. I am hoping this letter and your responses have crossed paths in the mail. The study does not pose a risk to any participants merely the potential to identify the leadership skills of community college presidents and superintendents in Iowa.

If not, I would like to take a moment to encourage you to take a few minutes of the day and fill out and return the enclosed survey and demographic sheet. Your participation is strictly on a voluntary basis. When you are finished, return the survey in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope by December 20, 2002. I assure you that your responses will be kept confidential and the data will be used for research purposes only. The benefits derived from an investigation of the perceived leadership styles of these educational leaders should provide data to allow for suggestions to be made to aid in the recruitment and placement of educational leaders. The return of the survey acknowledges your willingness to participate voluntarily and anonymously. The author of the survey instrument has requested the data be made available, if desired by the author. This possible exchange of information will not include the identification of individual responses.

If you have already returned the completed survey, please disregard this letter. I thank you for your time and assistance. If you have any questions concerning the study, please contact me at 712-852-3201 (office) or 712-852-4949 (home) or by email at paultedesco@yahoo.com. Questions about subjects' rights may be directed to Celia S. Walker at (970)-491-1563

Once again, I want to thank you for your time and effort. Your cooperation and willingness to participate is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Paul Tedesco
Ph.D. Candidate
Colorado State University

APPENDIX G
PERMISSION TO USE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

From: "Lee Bolman" <bolmanl@umkc.edu> | Block Address | Add to Address Book

To: "Paul Tedesco" <paultedesco@yahoo.com>

Subject: RE: Permission to use survey instrument

Date: Tue, 23 Oct 2001 00:02:17 -0500

Dear Mr. Tedesco:

This is to confirm that you have the authors' permission to use the Leadership Orientations Survey in your doctoral dissertation. You agree that you will provide us a copy of any publication that results from your use of the instrument and that you will provide, if we request it, a copy of your data file.

Best wishes in your research.

Lee Bolman
Marion Bloch Chair in Leadership
University of Missouri-Kansas City

APPENDIX H

PERMISSION TO MODIFY SURVEY INSTRUMENT

From: "Lee Bolman" <bolmanl@umkc.edu> | Block Address | Add to Address Book

To: "Paul Tedesco" <paultedesco@yahoo.com>

Subject: RE: Permission to use survey instrument

Date: Tue, 2 July 2002 18:23:03 -0500

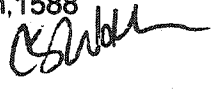
Paul, I'm willing to offer permission, subject to the following amendments: 1. Change the title of the instrument to: Leadership Orientations (Ideal) 2. Add a footnote indicating that the instrument was modified and adapted from the Leadership Orientations Instrument developed by Bolman and Deal with the authors' permission. 3. Remove the words "to the ratee" from the sentence "The results will be more helpful..." Otherwise, the sentence seems confusing.

Lee Bolman

APPENDIX I
COLORADO STATE UNIVERSITY
INFORMED CONSENT APPROVAL

COPY

MEMORANDUM

TO: Timothy Davies, School of Education, 1588
FROM: Celia Walker, Administrator for the 
Human Research Committee
SUBJECT: **PROJECT APPROVAL**
Title: Educational Leadership Style Comparison.
Protocol No.: 02-192H
Funding Agency: N/A
Funding Agency Deadline: N/A
DATE: October 15, 2002

I am pleased to inform you that the above-referenced project was approved by the Human Research Committee on October 9, 2002 for the period October 9, 2002 to July 30, 2003. Because of the nature of this research, it will not be necessary to obtain a signed consent form. However, all subjects must receive a copy of the approved cover letter printed on department letterhead. The requirement of documentation of a consent form is waived under § __.117 (c) (2) with the use of the approved survey. **Approval is for 778 participants.**

A status report of this project will be required within a 12-month period from the date of approval. You will be sent a reminder approximately two months before the protocol expires. The Principal Investigator will report on the numbers of subjects who have participated this year and project-to-date, about problems encountered, and provide a verifying copy of the consent form or cover letter used. The necessary form (H-101) is available from the Regulatory Compliance web page (see below). Should the protocol not be renewed before expiration, all activities must cease until the protocol has been re-reviewed.

It is the responsibility of the investigator to immediately inform the Committee of any serious complications, unexpected risks, or injuries resulting from this research. It is also the investigator's responsibility to notify the Committee of any changes in experimental design, participant population, or consent procedures or documents. This can be done with a memo which completely describes the changes and their consequences (new consent form or cover letter, or altered survey instrument, for example). Students serving as Co-Principal Investigators may not alter projects without first obtaining PI approval. The PI is ultimately responsible for the conduct of the project.

This approval is issued under Colorado State University's OHRP Federal Wide Assurance 00000647 issued July 1, 2001. If approval did not accompany a proposal when it was submitted to a sponsor, it is the researcher's responsibility to provide the sponsor with the approval notice.

Please direct any questions about the Committee's action on this project to me for routing to the Committee. Additional information is available from the Regulatory Compliance web site at www.research.colostate.edu/regulatory/

Attachment

xc: Paul Tedesco w/attachment