LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR STYLES OF ADMINISTRATORS

AND SCHOOL CLIMATE IN AREA VOCATIONAL

TECHNICAL SCHOOLS IN OKLAHOMA

AS PERCEIVED BY

TEACHERS

By

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND THE PROBLEM

The quality of education in a school is only as good as those supervisors who provide the educational leadership. This is true for education in general and vocational technical education in particular. Without effective leadership, the entire educational climate is jeopardized. Leadership is provided by vocational technical administrators, supervisors, principals, division and department heads, and state and federal agency education personnel.

Leadership roles may be interchangeable. Area vocational technical schools in Oklahoma comprise their own independent school districts governed by their own boards. Each area vocational technical school is headed by a superintendent, the educational leader, whose duties are similar to those of a high school principal, campus director, or secondary school principal. They differ in title, however, from public school or comprehensive high school administrators in that they replace the building principals found in most secondary public schools. Assistant vocational technical superintendents or directors in area vocational technical schools usually take the place of public school building assistant principals.

The vocational technical school administrator in an area vocational technical school must deal with both secondary and post secondary students. Other challenges for vocational technical education leaders are: staying abreast of new technologies,

1

upgrading programs as skill requirements change, dropping outdated programs, adding innovative programs, and expanding support services (Oklahoma State Department of Vocational and Technical Education Data Sheet, (1990-1991)).

Vocational technical education leaders in area vocational technical schools must also meet a wide variety of special needs including those of the handicapped and disadvantaged as well as promoting business and industry services. The former responsibilities include meeting federal and state guidelines on Carl Perkins and other legislative responsibilities while the latter includes small businesses, medium-sized businesses, entrepreneurs, technology transfer, and small business innovation research. Other special needs that provide many opportunities for leadership and school effectiveness are those of adult dislocated workers, adult literacy, and single parent/displaced homemakers.

Over 330,000 Oklahomans participated in some form of vocational technical education in the last fiscal year. More than 67,000 secondary students enrolled in vocational technical programs in comprehensive high schools. Another 15,000 secondary students studied vocational technical education at area vocational technical schools. More than 248,000 adults took advantage of vocational technical education programs through full-time, short-time, or customized industry training programs in FY91 at area vocational technical schools, skills centers, and inmate training centers (Oklahoma State Department of Vocational and Technical Education Data Sheet, 1990-1991).

With such important educational concerns at stake, elements focusing on the

components of leadership behavior in relationship to effective schools are significant. Perhaps one of the most critical factors exhibited by effective schools is the organizational climate of that school. In analyzing effective schools research, it is evident that the educational leader, in this scenario the school administrator in area vocational technical schools, and positive school climate are major influencing components of effective vocational technical schools. The British study, Fifteen Thousand Hours, Rutter (1979) concluded that a positive school climate was the single most important expression of educational leadership.

Research also suggests that school climate is developed and influenced by the teachers who work with those people providing the educational leadership of that school. The teacher's observed perception of the educational leadership behavior is a critical component of school climate.

Leadership behavior and positive school climate are associated with school outcomes in several major studies of effective schools. This research suggests that higher school outcomes may stem from educational leaders who emphasize instruction, are assertive, are results oriented, and develop and maintain a climate conducive to learning (Brookover, Beady, Flood, Schweitzer and Wisenbacher, 1979; Brookover and Schneider, 1975; Brookover and Lezotte, 1977, and Weber, 1971).

Effective schools research has identified the educational leader as the key person to provide the strong educational leadership necessary to meet the challenge of educational reform in American schools. It also indicates that a positive school climate is a characteristic of a school in which the educational leader demonstrates

effective leadership. Leadership behavior and positive school climate seem

inextricably linked to effective schools and especially to effective area vocational

technical schools.

Need for the Study

Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model (1967) and the more recent study on

Situational Theory by Hersey and Blanchard (1977) suggest that the perception of

leadership behavior and school climate by educational personnel can be a major factor

in school effectiveness. The importance an educational leader places upon directive

(task) behavior and upon his/her concern or humanistic (supportive) behavior toward

people could influence how others feel about a school's perceived success.

Leadership directive behavior and supportive behavior may also influence

school climate. It includes the feelings and values people have about school. A

school is, above all, a place where learning can occur. A positive school climate

makes a school an environment where faculty, staff, and students want to spend a

substantial portion of their time.

According to Howard, Howell, and Brainard (1987), "two paramount goals of

a positive school climate are productivity and satisfaction" (p. 3). The goal of

productivity indicates that a school provides a wholesome, stimulating, and productive

learning environment conducive to the academic and personal growth of students and

faculty. Productivity includes such characteristics as achieving basic skills,

developing and expanding a knowledge base, and using inquiry and problem-solving

processes.

The goal of satisfaction expresses the idea that a school provides a pleasant and satisfying environment within which young people and faculty can work. Satisfaction includes such factors as a sense of personal worth, enjoyment of school, and success garnered from participation in worthwhile student activities. These two paramount goals are the same for adults, teachers, other staff members, administrators, and parents. If an area vocational technical school is to be productive and satisfying, it must fulfill the basic human needs of students, faculty, and administrators. No school has a wholesome climate unless it provides its students and faculty with the following basic human needs according to Howard, Howell, and Brainard (1987). These needs are:

1. Physiological needs. These pertain to the school's physical plant and includes heat, light, and relatively uncrowded conditions.

2. Safety needs. These pertain to safety from such potential hazards as fire, and to security from physical and psychological abuse or assault from others in and around the school.

3. Acceptance and Friendship needs. These pertain to the positive relationships between students, faculty, and administrators.

4. Achievement and Recognition needs. These pertain to the recognition of one's successful endeavors in school.

5. Needs to Maximize One's Potential. These pertain to personal goals relevant to achieving the highest possible ability level (p. 6).

The Problem

Many studies in past decades have looked at educational leadership and

effective schools. Leadership in secondary schools, for example, would differ

significantly from elementary school leadership. The secondary school educational

leader may be opposed by department heads and tenured teachers who see his

involvement as infringement upon their domain.

The organization of a school district may also affect the role of an educational

leader. Some studies have found that administrators in effective schools have

different leadership styles. The observed educational leadership behavior displayed by

vocational technical school administrators in area vocational technical schools may be

an important and influential concept for improving school productivity and

satisfaction. There has been relatively little data available concerning the leadership

styles of vocational technical school supervisor leadership behaviors, their activities,

and their influence upon the effectiveness of those schools.

Leadership behavior styles of Oklahoma area vocational technical school

administrators are comprised of a wide range of both directive and supportive

behaviors. The problem is that a lack of knowledge exists concerning the leadership

behavior styles of Oklahoma area vocational technical school administrators and the

extent to which these styles affect school climate as perceived by teachers.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to determine through a systematic analysis, if

leadership behavior styles of Oklahoma area vocational technical school administrators

in area vocational technical schools affected the "what is" (actual) and "what should

be" (ideal) eight general school climate factors as perceived by teachers. The specific research questions for this study are:

1. What are the scores for the "what is" (actual) eight general school climate factors as perceived by teachers?

2. What are the scores for the "what should be" (ideal) eight general school climate factors as perceived by teachers?

3. What are the differences (gap scores) between the "what is" (actual) and "what should be" (ideal) eight general school climate factor scores as perceived by teachers?

4. Does each identified leadership behavior style affect the difference between the "what is" (actual) and "what should be" (ideal) eight general school climate factor scores as perceived by teachers?

Assumptions

For the purposes of this study, the following assumptions were made:

1. It was assumed that the collected data were accurate.

2. It was assumed that the information provided by teachers from Oklahoma area vocational technical schools was based on observed behavior of their immediate supervisor (administrator).

Limitations

1. The subjects of this study were limited to teachers in Oklahoma area

vocational technical schools.

2. Due to limited resources and time, it was not possible to follow-up teacher perceptions about school climate and perceived leadership styles first-hand.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are furnished to provide as nearly as possible clear and concise meanings of terms used in this study:

Leadership Behavior: The term used in this study based on Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory (1977). Situational Theory deals with two dimensions of leadership behavior; task or directive behavior, and relationship or supportive behavior (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

School Climate: A rather general term often used to describe the way schools feel. A school's climate is its atmosphere for learning. Two important goals of school climate are productivity and satisfaction (Howard, Howell, Brainard, 1987).

Educational Leader: The term used in this study for Oklahoma vocational technical school supervisors or administrators.

Directive Behavior: The term used in an organizational setting with emphasis toward the achievement of organizational goals (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

Supportive Behavior: The term used for the educational leader's concern for people within the organization (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

S1 Leader: The term used for the leader with a style high in directive and low in supportive behaviors (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

S2 Leader: The term used for the leader who has a style both high in directive and high in supportive behaviors (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

S3 Leader: The term used for the leader that has a style low in directive and high in supportive behaviors (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

S4 Leader: The term used for the leader that has a style both low in directive and low in supportive behaviors (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction and Early Theories

The role of the principal as leader has been a subject of considerable debate and research in education for the past several decades. Over the years, many kinds of programs have been designed to improve principals' leadership capacity and skills at the elementary or the secondary level but little has been done at the vocational technical school level. These related studies will be addressed later in this chapter.

Vocational technical educational leaders in area vocational technical schools in Oklahoma must exhibit the skills necessary to accommodate secondary and adult learning experiences. This study will determine, through a systematic analysis, if there is a relationship between observed leadership behavior of vocational technical school administrators in area vocational technical schools and school climate as perceived by teachers.

Miller (1920) wrote that the management of men and the development of morale are so inseparably associated that they are to be considered together. Miller also concluded that inherited qualities, such as temperament, were the main influencing qualities affecting leadership ability. Temperament influenced outlook and therefore, action. Mood or state of mind was another leader trait generally thought of as a barometer for ensuing actions. Habits, attention, and interest, were other traits

10

commonly associated with positive or negative leader behavior at this time.

Munson (1921) described several traits that identified the basic instincts and psychological qualities of a leader. His theories and models were suggested during or just after a World War, and consequently according to Munson (1921), leader traits were based upon traits exhibited by military leaders .

Charles Bird (1940), a professor of psychology at the University of Minnesota, expanded the study of leadership by defining three types of leaders. Each leadership type possessed characteristics from a list of over one hundred traits. Bird's trait list was developed from a panel of approximately twenty inquiries into the leadership traits or qualities leaders should possess. His studies concluded that high school students, and more particularly college students, are superior to the general population in intelligence and therefore generally make better leaders than the general population.

In the late 1940's and early 1950's, researchers moved away from an emphasis on trait studies such as Miller's (1920) and Munson's (1921) and toward the study of leader behaviors. This new approach initiated by Stogdill and Coons (1951) at Ohio State University differed from trait-oriented research in two important ways. First, actual leader behaviors, rather than personal traits, were the focus. Second, whereas most trait studies sought to separate leaders from nonleaders, leader behavior studies sought to determine how specific behaviors affect the performance and satisfaction of followers.

Another university study initiated by Kahn and Katz (1960) at the University of Michigan and the studies at Ohio State University conducted by Stogdill and Coons

(1951) provided useful insights into leadership behaviors. They were good foundations for the present interest in leadership.

The Ohio State Studies by Stogdill and Coons (1951) on leader behavior also mentioned two similar dimensions: they were called consideration and initiating structure. A highly considerate leader is sensitive to people's feelings and tries to make things pleasant for followers. A leader high in initiating structure is concerned with spelling out task requirements and clarifying other aspects of the work agenda.

University of Michigan researchers Kahn and Katz (1960) conducted a key set of behavior studies in leadership. They also divided behaviors into two categories: employee-centered and production-centered. Employee-centered supervisors placed strong emphasis on the welfare and motivation of subordinates while production-centered supervisors tended to place a stronger emphasis on getting the job done rather than on the welfare and motivation of the employees (Kahn and Katz, 1960). This is easily remembered with the graphic representation in Figure 1 (Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn, 1985).

| Trait Researchers | studied → | Personal Characteristics | to → | Separate Leaders from Nonleaders |
| Leader Behavior Researchers | studied → | How a Leader's Behavior | affected → | Follower's Performance and Satisfaction |
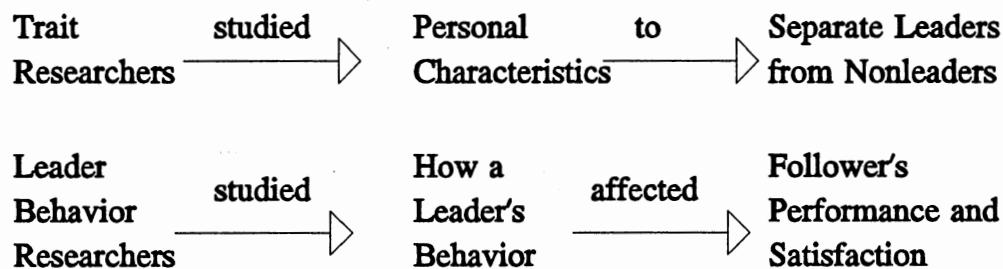
Figure 1. Leader Behaviors and how they Affect Performance and Satisfaction of Followers (Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn, 1985)

These two dimensions were similar to the dimensions in the Michigan research and similar to what Kahn and Katz (1960) referred to as socio-emotional and directive leadership. This model is interesting in that consideration and initiating structure are not seen as being on a continuum. That is, using these models, rather than a leader being low on one dimension and high on the other, the leader could be high on both or low on both. Therefore, one can see how leaders are popularly characterized as autocratic or democratic, human relations or laissez-faire, and vary from one to another in their respective emphasis on initiating structure and consideration (Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn, 1985). Figure 2 demonstrates this model graphically in greater detail.
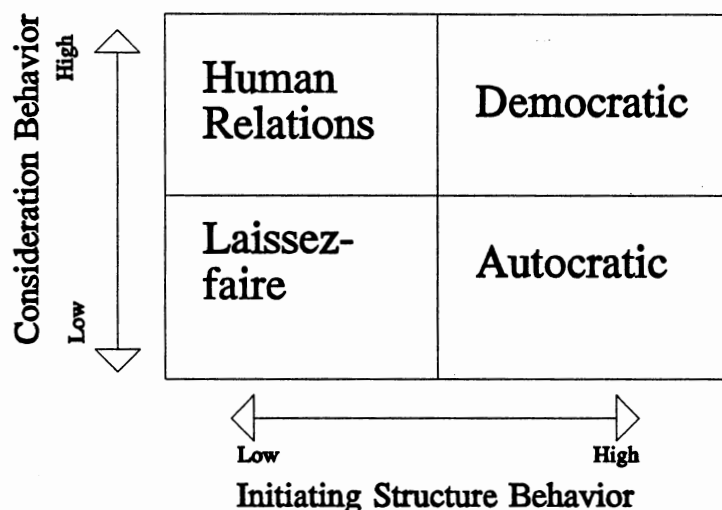
Figure 2. Leader Behaviors and Popularized Leadership "Styles"
(Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn, 1985)

The Ohio State study on behavior research was viewed as particularly promising by practicing leaders. If findings were generally true, programs could be established to teach leaders or managers the leadership behavior areas in which they were weak. Therefore, performance and human resource maintenance within their work units could be expected to improve. "However, research did not confirm that leaders high in both concerns for people and task behavior are universally successful" (Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn, 1985, p. 588).

Models of the 1960's and 1970's

The educational community was taken by storm in the 1960's after Getzels and Guba (1957) combined to publish their theory of social behavior. They described a model of social behavior consisting of two parts: a nomothetic dimension and an idiographic dimension. These theorists portrayed members of the social systems as having two concerns which had to be addressed: (1) concerns for the individual, and, (2) concerns of the organization.

In Figure 3, the model developed by Getzels and Guba (1957) can easily be applied to tasks associated with the daily operations of educational leaders. Inclusion of the theoretical platform was made much clearer through an article published by Guba (1960). In that article, Guba looked at leadership styles and defined the nomothetic leadership style which placed emphasis upon organizational role expectations. He also described the idiographic leadership style which placed emphasis upon individual need dispositions.

Normative (Nomothetic) Dimension

Institution   Role   Expectation

Social
System

Social
Behavior

Individual   Personality   Need Disposition
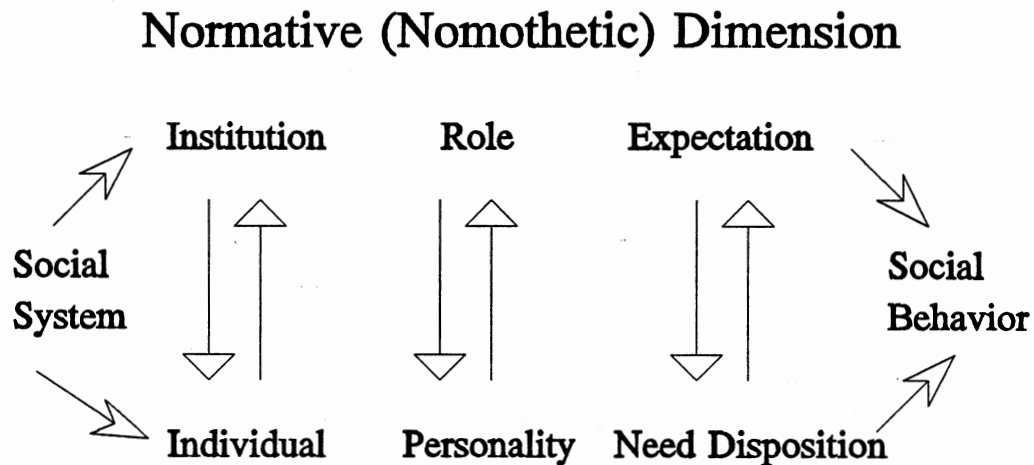
Figure 3.   Getzels and Guba's Normative and Personal Dimensions of Social
Behavior (Getzels and Guba, 1957)

Lipham (1964) also discussed two dimensions of the social system. He labeled
his dimensions sociological and psychological respectively. The sociological
dimensions of an organization is the role defined in terms of expectations, normative
obligations, and responsibilities which govern proper or legitimate modes of action for
individuals holding a position within an organization. In contrast, the psychological
dimension is always interpersonal in nature and deals with the need-disposition of the
individuals.

Lipham (1964) established a relationship between the theoretical base of
Getzels and Guba's (1957) Model which concerned idiographic and nomothetic
dimensions, and his own framework concerning the sociological and psychological
dimensions of an administrator. Lipham (1964) wrote that all administrators had to
resolve conflicts caused by both dimensions being present within an organization's

members. Lipham (1964) stated "a major source of conflict derives from discrepancies between the basic personality structure of an individual and the demands of his organization and role" (p. 12).

Lipham (1964) later used a model developed by Halpin (1966) as an example of leader behavior. This model was made up of two parts: (1) initiating structure, and (2) consideration. It seemed very similar to the Getzels-Guba (1957) model but Lipham (1964) made the connection of nomothetic and idiographic dimensions with the Halpin (1966) model showing consideration and initiating structure.

This same relationship may be seen in models commonly discussed by educational administrators. The Ohio State Model reviewed by Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy, and Stogdill (1974), Fiedler's Contingency Model (1967), and the Hersey and Blanchard Model (1977) all concern the two most important descriptions which must be addressed: (1) concern for task, and (2) concern for people. These dimensions, task behavior and relationship behavior (or directive behavior and supportive behavior) and idiographic and nomothetic behaviors, all assume the same format.

Wiggins (1975) discussed the importance of understanding the social system as it applied to modern school administration training programs. It is very similar to the Getzels and Guba Model (1957) but stressed the importance of understanding the systems approach to those involved in public school administration.

Wiggins (1975) attempted to show how administrators are "strongly influenced by the forces of socialization which tend to mold individuals into a role devised

toward maintaining stability" (Wiggins 1975, p. 359).

Newly Assigned
Administrator

Administrator With
Longer Incumbency

Administrator
Personality

School Expectations

Time
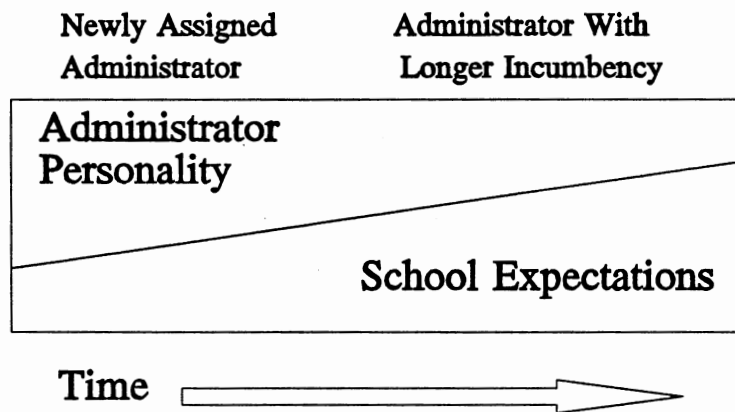
Figure 4.   Wiggins' Relationship Between School Expectations and Administrator
Personality in Observed Behavior (Wiggins, 1975)

In Figure 4, note the similarity of Wiggins'(1975) model showing the

relationship of administrator personality and school expectations over time, and the

Getzels and Guba model (1957) in Figure 5 depicting role and personality interaction

within organizations.

Role

Personality

Post Induction
Socialization

Pre-Induction
Socialization
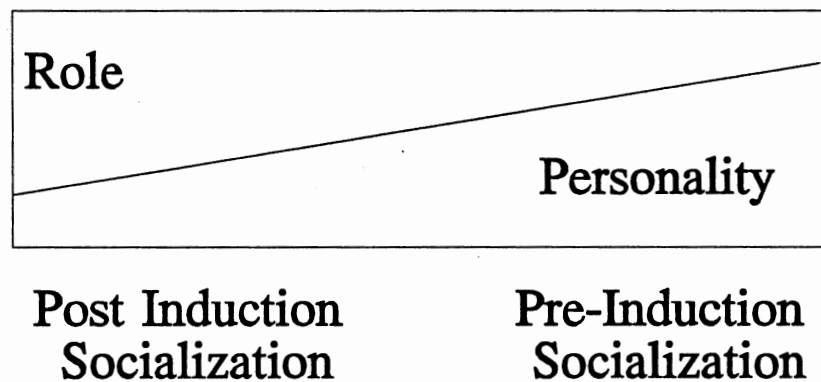
Figure 5.   Getzels and Guba's Model for Role and Personality Interaction within
Organizations (Getzels and Guba, 1957)

Wiggins'(1975) model points out that as time goes on, actors in the social system move toward a higher level of involvement in organizational goals with less emphasis on individual personality needs. The first comprehensive contingency model for leadership was developed by Fred Fiedler (1967). His model proposed that effective group performance depends upon the proper match between the leader's style of interaction with his or her subordinates and the degree to which the situation gives control and influence to the leader.

Fiedler (1967) developed an instrument, which he called the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) questionnaire, that purports to measure whether a person is directive or relationship oriented. Further, Fiedler (1967) isolated three situational criteria: (1) leader-member relations, (2) directive structure, and, (3) position power. Those criteria, he believed, could be manipulated to create the proper match with the behavioral orientation of the leader.

In a sense, the Fiedler (1967) model is an outgrowth of the trait theory of the 1920's since the LPC questionnaire is a simple psychological test. However, Fiedler (1967) goes significantly beyond trait and behavioral approaches by attempting to isolate situations; relating his personality measure to his situational classification and then predicting leadership effectiveness as a function of the two.

Fiedler (1967) believes a key factor in leadership success is the individual's basic leadership style. But first the basic leadership style must be assessed. Fiedler (1967) created the LPC questionnaire for this purpose. It contains sixteen contrasting adjectives such as pleasant-unpleasant, efficient-inefficient, open-guarded, supportive-

hostile, as determining parts of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire asks the respondent to think of all the co-workers they have ever had and to describe the one person they least enjoyed working with. They are then asked to rate this person on a scale of 1 to 8 for each of the sixteen sets of contrasting adjectives. Fiedler (1967) believed that, based on the respondent's answers to his LPC questionnaire, he could determine their basic leadership style. If the least preferred co-worker is described in relatively positive terms (high LPC score), then the respondent is primarily interested in good personal relations with his co-worker. That is, if the respondent described the person he was least able to work with in favorable terms, Fiedler (1967) would label the respondent relationship-oriented. In contrast, if the least preferred co-worker is seen in relatively unfavorable terms (low LPC score), the respondent is primarily interested in productivity and would be labeled directive-oriented.

According to Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn (1985), findings show about 16 percent of the respondents score in the middle range on the LPC scale. Such individuals cannot be classified as either relationship or task oriented and therefore fall outside the theory's prediction. This discussion relates to the 84 percent of respondents who score either in the low or high range of the LPC.

Fiedler (1967) assumed that a person's leadership style is fixed. If a situation requires a task-oriented leader and the person in that leadership position is relationship-oriented, either the situation has to be modified or the leader removed and replaced if optimum effectiveness is to be achieved. Fiedler also argued that

leadership style is innate to the person -- a leader can't change his style to fit

changing situations (Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn, 1985, and Robbins, 1989).

After a person's leadership style has been assessed through the LPC, it is

necessary to match the leader with the situation. Fiedler (1967) identified three

contingency dimensions that define key situational factors for determining leadership

effectiveness: leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. Fiedler's

contingency dimensions are described by Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn (1985)

below:

> 1. Leader-member relations - the degree of confidence, trust, and respect
> subordinates have in their leader.
>
> 2. Task structure - the degree to which the job assignments are procedurized
> (structured or unstructured).
>
> 3. Position power - the degree of influence a leader has over power variable
> such as hiring, firing, discipline, promotions, and salary increases (p. 592).

The next step in Fiedler's model evaluated the situation in terms of the above

three contingency variables. Leader-member relations are either good or poor,

directive structure either high or low, and position power either strong or weak.

Fiedler (1967) stated that the better the leader-member relations, the more

highly structured the job, and the stronger the position power, the more control or

influence a leader has.

An example of Fiedler's Contingency Model (1967) in use in an area

vocational technical school setting might involve a very favorable situation (where the

leader would have a great deal of control) of an administrator who is well respected

and whose instructional staff have confidence in his or her abilities (good leader-

member relations). The activities to be done -- such as teaching computing skills, computer operations, word processing -- are specific and clear (high task structure), and the administrator's job provides considerable freedom to reward or punish his or her subordinates (strong position power).

In contrast, an unfavorable situation might be the disliked administrator whose job it is to require a subordinate (teacher) to work on the task of updating some of his/her curriculum. The administrator has very little control; the task is not specific and duties are not clear cut. The administrator has very little direct control over the subordinate in this situation.

Altogether, by mixing the contingency variables, there are potentially eight different situations or categories in which a leader could find himself or herself. With the knowledge of an individual's LPC and an assessment of the three contingency dimensions, the Fiedler model proposes matching the variables up to achieve maximum leadership effectiveness according to Fiedler, Chemers, and Mahar (1976). Based on the Fiedler, Chemers, and Mahar (1976) study of over twelve hundred groups where they compared relationship versus task-oriented leadership styles in each of eight situation categories, they concluded that task-oriented leaders tend to perform better in situations that were very favorable to them. In situations that were unfavorable, relationship-oriented leaders perform better. See Figure 6.

Therefore, according to Fiedler, Chemers, and Mahar, (1976), there are really only two ways in which to improve leader effectiveness. First, you can change the
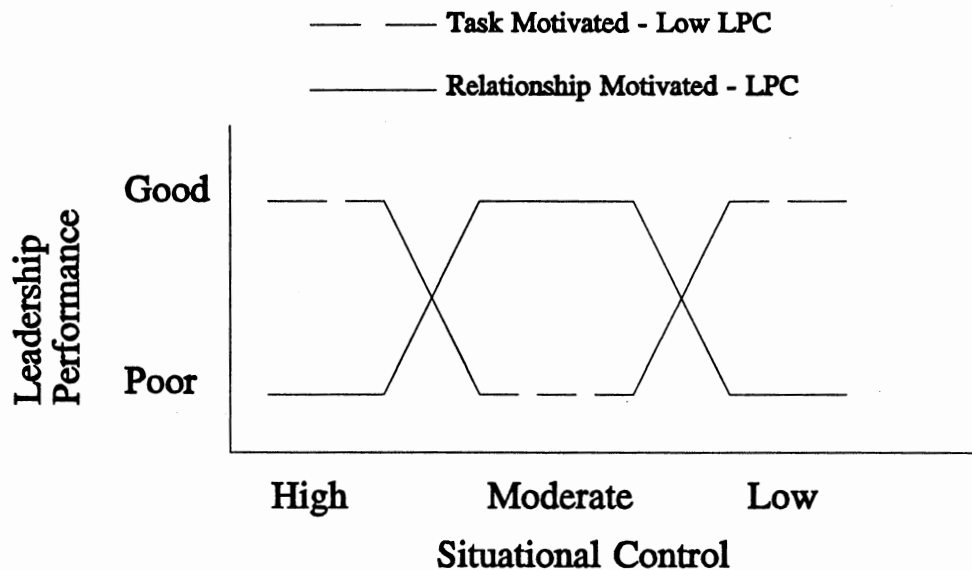
Figure 6. Graphic Representation of the Contingency Model, Measured by Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) Scale, Situational Control, and Leader Performance (Fiedler, Chemers, and Mahar, 1976)

leader to fit the situation. Or the second alternative, change the situation to fit the leader. In the former scenario, a leader can simply be removed from the situation and the responsibility given to another person.

The latter situation could be accomplished by changing the tasks or increasing or decreasing the power to control factors such as disciplinary actions, salary increases, and promotions. As a whole, there is considerable evidence to show a positive conclusion to Fiedler's model according to Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn (1985).

His model, although it still has a few gaps, according to Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn (1985) has been an important contribution to understanding leader

effectiveness and, while it could benefit from additional moderating variables, it continues to be a dominant input in the development of a contingency explanation of leadership effectiveness.

Situational Theory

In the late eighties and the new decade ahead, the focus is on the two dimensions of observed leader behavior. Emphasis is placed upon the behavior of leaders and their followers in various situations according to Fiedler, Chemers, and Mahar (1976) and Hersey and Blanchard (1988). The concepts, procedures, actions, and outcomes are based upon tested methodologies that are practical and easy to use and was developed to help people be more effective as leaders, regardless of their vocational technical role (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

The dominant theory of situational leadership, contends Hersey and Blanchard (1988), is a working model -- not just a theory -- and states that behavior is influenced by many components. Situational leadership says Hersey and Blanchard (1988) is based on an interplay among: (1) the amount of guidance and direction (task behavior) a leader exhibits, (2) the amount of social and emotional support (supportive behavior) a leader provides, and (3) the maturity level that followers exhibit in performing a specific task, function, or objective.

Hersey and Blanchard as early as 1977 and later in 1988 stated that there is no one best way to influence people. The leadership behavior a person exhibits states Hersey and Blanchard (1988) with an individual or with a group "depends upon the

maturity level of the people the leader is attempting to influence" (p. 151).

Varying leader responses to varying levels of worker task maturity provide important contingency guidelines. Any work environment has some workers and groups of workers that are different from the norm. Some are systematically more productive while others are systematically less productive. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) used four types of leader responses: telling, selling, participating, and delegating, to develop a particularly useful guide for anticipating the kinds of successful worker involvement patterns. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) stated:

> For those groups and individuals who are the most immature in relation to a given work behavior, the appropriate leader behavior is to tell workers what to do and how to do it. For those who are relatively mature, the leader task is to sell the workers on what to do and how to do it. For those who are more mature, the leader's task is to participate with workers in deciding what and how. And for those workers that are most mature, leader behavior is to delegate the what and the how (p. 151).

If a leader's objective is to stimulate the entire work culture, a careful analysis of current worker maturity levels will lead to a variety of leader involvement patterns. Moreover, no one work culture is all productive or all unproductive. In some organizations, states Hersey and Blanchard (1988), a leader should use a balance of telling, selling, participating, and delegating. In other organizations, the leader will tell and sell changes to most groups.

An understanding of maturity levels within a particular work context will enable vocational technical leaders to respond appropriately to different levels of involvement. If success is the leader objective, providing appropriate involvement parameters is more likely to stimulate worker cooperation.

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) state follower maturity is defined in situational

theory in relation to three conditions:

> (1) achievement motivation (the ability to set high but attainable goals),
> (2) responsibility (willingness and ability), and (3) experience
> (education of the individual group). Maturity in this sense does not
> focus on a worker's overall self-concept and psychological maturity but
> rather on maturity as it relates to a specific task (p. 152).

In a vocational technical school setting, for example, a teacher that has taught

for fifteen years may be professionally mature in developing a behavior modification

program for seventeen to eighteen-year-olds, but he may also be relatively immature

in planning an individualized reading program for low-achieving adult learners.

A leader working with the teacher in the first situation (high maturity) would

delegate the task (developing a behavior modification program), providing only

guidance and the resources to accomplish the task. In the case of the latter situation

(low maturity), the leader would need to sell the teacher on the rationale for

developing an individualized program for adult learners and then define specific task

parameters and time lines.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1988), for those who are least mature in

relation to a given task, leader behavior provides a high degree of consideration for

task structure and a low degree of consideration for supportive behavior. Hersey and

Blanchard (1988) further states as the group or individual becomes more confident

and skillful, the leader maintains high structure and raises the degree of consideration.

This adds a support dimension. The situation between the leader and the follower

then changes to a selling mode. As followers assume still greater responsibility, the

relationship shifts to the participation mode. The leader continues a high degree of support while the followers assume the major responsibility for task structure. See Figure 7.

Readiness Level (Follower's Maturity)	Appropriate Style (Leader Behavior)
M1 Low Readiness Unable or unwilling or insecure	S1 Telling High Directive/Low Supportive Behavior
M2 Low to Moderate Readiness Unable but willing or confident	S2 Selling High Directive/High Supportive Behavior
M3 Moderate to High Readiness Able but unwilling or insecure	S3 Participating High Supportive/Low Directive Behavior
M4 High Readiness Able, competent, willing, confident	S4 Delegating Low Supportive/Low Directive Behavior

Figure 7. Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model
(Hersey and Blanchard, 1988)

Situational leadership is a contingency theory that focuses on the followers. Successful leadership is achieved by selecting the correct leadership style which Hersey and Blanchard (1988) argued is contingent upon the level of the follower's maturity.

The emphasis on followers in leadership effectiveness reflects the reality that it is the followers who accept or reject the leader. Regardless of what the leader does,

effectiveness depends on the action of his or her followers. This is an important dimension, according to Hersey and Blanchard (1988), that has been overlooked or underemphasized in most leadership theories.

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) define maturity as the "ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behavior" (p. 158).

There are two components of maturity. One component is job maturity; the second is psychological maturity. Job maturity encompasses one's knowledge and skills. Individuals who are high in job maturity have the knowledge, ability and experience to perform their job tasks without direction from others. Psychological maturity relates to the willingness or motivation to do something. Individuals high in psychological maturity do not need much external encouragement; they are already intrinsically motivated.

Situational leadership uses the same two dimensions that Fiedler (1967) identified; directive and supportive behaviors. However, Hersey and Blanchard (1988) go one step farther by considering each as either high or low and then combining them into four specific leadership styles: telling, selling, participating, and delegating. The Situational Leadership styles as described by Hersey and Blanchard (1988) are listed below:

S1 - Telling (high directive/low supportive). The leader defines roles and tells people what, when, and where to do various tasks.

S2 - Selling (high directive/high supportive). The leader provides both directive behavior and supportive behavior.

S3 - Participating (low directive/high supportive). The leader and follower share in decision making, with the main role of the leader

being facilitating and communicating.

S4 - <u>Delegating (low directive/low supportive)</u>. The leader provides little direction or support (p. 154).

The final component in Hersey and Blanchard's theory is defining the four stages of maturity. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) define maturity in Situational Leadership as "the ability and willingness of people to take responsibility in directing their own behavior" (p. 151). Maturity levels (M1 - M4), as defined by Hersey and Blanchard (1988) are as follows:

M1 - People are unable and unwilling to take responsibility to do something. They are neither competent nor confident.

M2 - People are willing but unable to do the necessary job tasks. They are motivated but currently lack the appropriate skills.

M3 - People are able but unwilling to do what the leader wants.

M4 - People are both able and willing to do what is asked of them (p. 151).

Figure 8 integrates the various components into the Situational Leadership Model. As followers reach high levels of maturity, the leader responds by not only continuing to decrease control over activities, but also by continuing to decrease supportive behavior as well. At stage M1, followers need clear and specific directions. At stage M2, both high-directive and high-supportive behavior is needed. The high directive behavior compensates for the follower's lack of ability and high relationship tries to get the followers to psychologically "buy into" the leader's desires (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988). M3 creates motivational problems that are best solved by a supportive, nondirective, participative style. Finally, at M4, the leader doesn't

STYLE OF LEADER
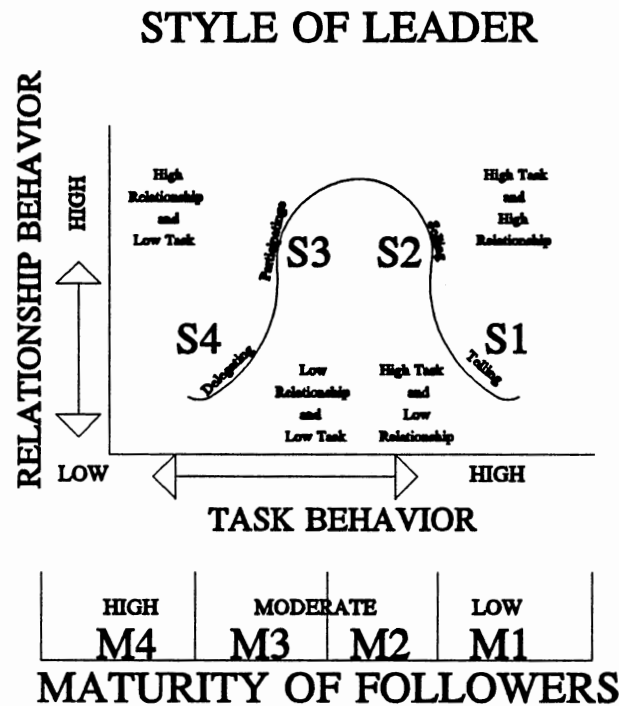
Figure 8. Situational Leadership (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988)

have to do much because followers are both willing and able to take responsibility. Figure 8 describes this model in greater detail.

Robbins (1989) stated that Hersey and Blanchard's theory provides at least partial support for situational theory, especially for followers at the M1 stage of maturity, but "more research is clearly necessary" (p. 317).

School Climate Background

In looking across the country, one will find that schools differ remarkably. Schools differ from state to state, district to district, and even from school to school within a district, according to Ward (1985). These differences go beyond the study of

physical characteristics; architecture, size, demographic data and socio-economic and ethnic characteristics. These differences also include the socio-psychological environment of a school; the taking on of its own individuality. Sometimes, this individuality is called school atmosphere, the school's climate, or the school's personality (Owens, 1970).

Cornell (1955) is credited with the first use of the term "organizational climate." He concluded from his four-year study that school systems do differ in their organizational climate and that teachers do react differently to those organizational relationships.

A few years later, Argyris (1958) used the term "organizational climate" to describe factors which make up the organizational climate in an investigation of a bank. He viewed the problem of researching human behavior in organizations as including three systems of variable. These mutually interacting variables are described as: (1) formal organizational variables, policies, and practices to meet the organization's objectives; (2) informal variables resulting from members struggling to adapt to formal organizations; and (3) personality variables such as individual needs, abilities, values, and philosophies. Argyris (1958) concluded that administrators should recognize that conflict is present within an organization and, having acknowledged its presence, should make a concerted effort to reduce its causes.

Cornell (1955) and Argyris (1958) made significant contributions to the development of the organizational climate concept. They identified variables that were recognized as valid in later studies. School climate remained somewhat obscure

until Halpin and Croft (1962) developed a measurement instrument called the Organizational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire (OCDQ). This instrument was used in several investigations as described by Ward (1985).

During the late 1960's, Tagiuri and Litwin (1968) edited a series of essays written about organizational climate by prominent social scientists who were working independently. The basis for their explorations was the key idea that "the way the individual carries out a given task depends upon what kind of person he is, on the one hand, and the setting in which he acts, on the other" (p. 11).

According to Tagiuri and Litwin (1968), organizational climate can be defined as:

> . . .the relatively enduring quality of the total environment that (a) is experienced by the occupants, (b) influences their behavior, and (c) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attributes) of the environment (p. 27).

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) viewed climate as representing "a composite of mediating variables which intervene between the structure of the organization and the style and other characteristics of leaders, and teacher performance and satisfaction" (p. 70). Mediating variables would include, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt's (1979) definition, "members' attitudes, level of commitment to organizational goals, group loyalty and commitment, and levels of performance goals" (p. 27).

These definitions of organizational climate require that attention be given to the organization as a whole and place an emphasis on the perception of the members of the organization (Ward, 1985). They also stress the idea that organizational climate connotes that the environment is interpreted by the members of the

organization which can affect personal attitudes and motivation.

Several instruments have been developed to measure organizational climate. The most noted and most widely used was Halpin and Croft's (1962) OCDQ. The climate continuum, as defined by Halpin and Croft (1962), has six possible classifications (open, autonomous, controlled, familiar, paternal, and closed) which move from the desired and hypothesized effective open climate at one end to the less desirable closed climate at the other end.

Hall (1971) made a comparison of Halpin and Croft's (1962) OCDQ and Likert and Likert's (1967) Profile of a School Questionnaire. Both of these instruments were devised to identify types of educational organizations for purposes of classification. Hall's findings indicated that the instruments correlated positively in identifying organizational types. He concluded that, although the instruments were different, they did originate from the same conceptual model.

Thomas and Slater (1973) used the OCDQ to study climates in primary schools in Australia. Their purpose was to contribute to validation efforts for the instrument. Data were analyzed from over 700 respondents and a four-factor solution was produced. Thomas and Slater (1973) identified these factors as: supportiveness, operations emphasis, intimacy, and disaffiliation. Although the authors contended that the instrument needed modification, they concluded that it is a reliable and valid instrument for measuring organizational climate.

Working independently of Halpin and Croft (1962), Stern and Steinhoff (1970) developed a different approach to the description and measurement of organizational

climate. Stern's early interest was in human personality, dealing with college students as both a teacher and researcher. He became interested in the fact that colleges are distinctly dissimilar in many significant ways -- the kinds of students they attract, the make-up of the faculty, the values and goals of the students and faculties, and so forth. Consequently, these researchers saw a correlation between human personality and the "personality of the institute." Both drew upon the early work of Murray, Barrett, and Homburger (1938), who developed the concept of "need-press" as it shaped human personality.

Murray, Barrett, and Homburger (1938) postulated that personality is the product of dynamic interplay between "need" (both internal and external), and "press," which is roughly equivalent to environmental pressures that lead to adaptive behavior. Stern and Steinhoff (1970) developed two questionnaire instruments to determine the "need-press" factors they felt influenced development of climate in colleges: the Activities Index, which dealt with the needs of individuals, and the College Characteristics Index, which probed the organizational press as experienced by persons in the organization.

Stern and Steinhoff (1970) later adapted the College Characteristics Index and developed the Organizational Climate Index, which contains 300 descriptive statements. Teachers are asked to respond as either true or false to the statements. The items on the Organizational Climate Index provide data in 30 of Murray's (1938) need-press scales. Analysis of this data lead to climate factors established by a factor analysis technique. The five first-order factors together describe a cluster called

"developmental-press," which is the capacity of the organizational environment to support, satisfy, or reward self-actualizing behavior. Another second-order factor, "control-press," refers to those characteristics of environmental press which inhibit or restrict personal expressiveness.

After approximately five years of study through the CFK, Ltd., a philanthropic foundation dedicated to the improvement of educational leadership and sponsored by the late Charles F. Ketering II, Howard, Howell, and Brainard (1987) have refined a school climate assessment instrument known as the CFK, Ltd., School Climate Profile.

According to Howard, Howell, and Brainard (1987), the term "school climate" was in the initial stages early in the 1970's, and is now a term widely used when referring to literature on school improvement projects.

Eight factors that determine a positive or negative school climate were identified by Howard, Howell and Brainard (1987) and include respect, trust, high morale, opportunities for input, continuous academic and social growth, cohesiveness, school renewal, and caring. They are achieved, according to Howard, Howell, and Brainard (1987), as a result of specific practices and programs in a school's operations and contribute to a school's climate as well as determine its quality. These eight factors are:

1. Respect. Students see themselves as persons of worth and feel that their ideas are respected. Teachers and administrators feel the same way. School is a place where individuals have self-esteem, are considerate, and appreciate others. An atmosphere of mutual respect prevails.

2. Trust. Trust is having confidence that others can be counted on to do

what they say they will do. Individuals have integrity.

3. High Morale. In a school with high morale, people feel good about what is happening. They are willing to perform assigned tasks; they are confident and cheerful. Self-discipline is the mode. A defeatist attitude does not exist.

4. Opportunities for Input. Not everyone can be involved in making the important decisions required in running a school's programs. But every person wants the opportunity to contribute ideas and know they have been considered. When people feel they have no voice, their self-esteem is diminished and the school is deprived of their influence.

5. Continuous Academic and Social Growth. Each student is developing academically, socially, and physically in skills and knowledge. Faculty also are improving their skills and knowledge with regard to their particular assignments and as cooperative members of the educational team. Effective schools research points out that successful schools operate in a climate in which the professional staff hold high expectations for their students. They believe their students do learn. In effective schools, staff are optimistic about their ability to influence student achievement and students believe their accomplishments result from how hard they work.

6. Cohesiveness. This quality is manifested by a person's attraction to the school. It is often called school spirit or esprit de corps. People feel a sense of belonging to the school. They want to stay and exert their influence on the school in collaboration with others.

7. School Renewal. The school is self renewing if it is growing, developing, and changing. Research on effective schools indicates that in such schools, the staff is confident of their ability to change, improve, and manage the learning environment. There is an atmosphere conducive to program improvement.

8. Caring. Individuals in the school feel that some other person or persons are concerned about them. People are interested in each other. Teachers feel that the administrator cares about them. The administrative leaders know that the staff understands the pressure of the job and will help if they can (p. 7-8).

It is those eight factors that determine the quality of a school's climate for learning. They also determine the success a school will have in achieving the goals of productivity and satisfaction.

This forty-item instrument asks the respondents to compare the actual status of a particular climate factor "what is" with what, in their opinion, would be the ideal or "should be" the status of that climate factor. The instrument is designed to serve two purposes. One is to provide a convenient means of assessing the school's climate factors so that initial decisions can be made about priority targets for improvement projects. The second is to serve as a benchmark for a school to measure climate change.

Collica (1978), using the CFK, Ltd., School Climate Profile, investigated the relationship of ideographic leadership in the elementary and secondary schools that had students who had a high gain score on the California Assessment Test Program for the years 1975-1976 and 1976-1977, or a school reputed by a panel of experts to have high organizational climate, high staff morale, and high student academic achievement. Seventy-six school sites in ten school districts throughout San Diego County, California, were involved in the study. Collica (1978) concluded from his investigation that the ideographic or highly interpersonal leadership traits of the site administrator contributed to the high organizational climate as perceived by the school staff.

Collica (1978) also concluded "there is cause and effect relationship between the practice of ideographic leadership style and the development or high organizational climate" (p. 139). Collica (1978) also concluded that the site administrators who practiced ideographic leadership style were significantly more accurate in their perceptions concerning how their staffs perceived the organizational climate and the

leadership factor of "what is" and "what should be" climates.

Dennis (1979) in her study sought to assess the validity and reliability of the CFK, Ltd., School Climate Profile, using data collected from ten participating Colorado high schools involving 480 administrators, counselors, teachers, and students. Using Hoyt estimates of reliability, item analysis, and analysis of variance procedures, she found that the reliability and validity of the criterion measured to be extremely high. The reliability for the total profile was .95, as were reliability coefficients for each scale and for all population groups.

However, there are also indicators of negative school climate. Below is a list of symptoms of negative climate problems in a school according to Howard, Howell, and Brainard (1987):

> High student absenteeism
> High frequency of student discipline problems
> Weak student organizations
> Student cliques
> High faculty absenteeism
> Negative discussion in faculty lounges
> Crowded conditions
> Students feeling lost because the school is too large
> Vandalism
> Student unrest
> Poor school spirit
> Faculty cliques
> Theft from lockers
> High student dropout rate
> Large numbers of underachieving students
> Low staff morale
> Passive students
> Faculty apathy
> Supplies and equipment unavailable when needed
> Poor image of the school by staff
> Dislike of students by some faculty members
> Students for whom school has little purpose

High incidence of suspensions and expulsions (p. 8)

Related Studies

The relationship of the principal's influence on the building's climate has undergone numerous investigations. There is ample supportive research available which indicates that the primary role of the principal should be that of a climate leader; a person who believes that student achievement, staff productivity, and personal satisfaction for all will improve as the climate of the school improves.

Albright (1977) investigated the relationships between organizational climate and the principal's leadership style and effectiveness. A random sample of elementary school principals and teachers was identified in the state of Kansas. Usable information was received from 21 principals and 100 teachers. The unit of analysis for the study was the elementary principal. The instruments used were the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), the OCDQ, and a Likert rating of principal effectiveness. Significant correlations were found to exist between the leadership styles of principals rated effective by subordinates in open and medium climate schools (Albright, 1977).

Ogilvie and Sadler (1979) conducted a study examining the perceptions of school effectiveness and its relationship to organizational climate. In their research, a School Outcomes Questionnaire was developed and tested in a representative sample of Brisbane state high schools in Australia. It was shown that perceptions of school effectiveness were closely linked with school organizational climate, particularly the

staff energy dimension, which focused upon aspects of the principal's leader behavior. Ogilvie and Sadler (1979) wrote: "The teachers generally associated effective schools with principals who facilitated the work of the teachers in their schools by being supportive, considerate, industrious, and communicative" (p. 147).

An investigation by Smedley and Willower (1981) also indicated that the behavior of the principal of the school made a difference in the degree of openness of a school's climate. The study revealed an association between humanistic pupil-control behavior of principals and high levels of school robustness. In this study, the impact of the principal's behavior on students was explored. Specifically examined was the relationship between the pupil-control behavior of the principals and the environmental robustness of school for students. Robust school environments were those perceived by students to be high in dramatic content; perceived to be interesting, meaningful, challenging, and action-packed. In contrast to the other schools that were perceived to be boring, meaningless, dull, and uneventful (Smedley and Willower, 1981).

There have been numerous studies conducted to determine organizational climate and the relationship leadership styles have on their effectiveness or ineffectiveness. Spinks (1980) studied the level of professionalism and school climate in a public school setting. Swender (1988) studied the leadership styles of secondary school principals in southeast Kansas.

Ward (1985) studied the relationship of teachers' pupil-control idealogy and their perceptions of actual and ideal school climate. Smith (1984) studied the relationship

of school climate and the clinical supervisory practices of the elementary school principal. May (1985) studied the organizational climate and culture as a case study, and Barnett (1989) studied effective and ineffective behaviors among college presidents.

Bailey and Young (1988) conducted a study in Virginia using the same instruments that will be used in this study. Using Howard, Howell, and Brainard's (1987) CFK, Ltd., School Climate Profile, and Hersey and Blanchard's (1983) version of the leadership style analysis, they studied the relationship of school climate and high school principals leadership styles as perceived by teachers.

Bailey and Young (1988) found that teachers in high schools in West Virginia who perceived their principals as being S1, S2, or S3 (Hersey and Blanchard, 1983) leaders perceived their school climate as being positive. However, teachers who perceived their principals as being S4 leaders (Hersey and Blanchard, 1983), perceived their school climate as being negative. Only high school teachers were surveyed in this study and no mention of vocational technical teachers was made. However, that does not mean that vocational education teachers were not surveyed or that they did not contribute as a respondent.

Summary of Review of Literature

Educational research on leadership behavior styles, traits, and educational leadership has dominated the area of administrator effectiveness for the past several decades. Most of these studies of administrators in the public schools have focused

on the school district as the organization rather than upon the individual school. Initial studies on school effectiveness identified the school administrator, the instructional leader, as one of the most critical factors in effective schools. This research led to studies that further defined effective leadership (Blumberg and Greenfield, 1980, and Sweeney, 1982). They in turn found that the role of the educational leader was critical in creating conditions resulting in higher student academic performance, the setting of high standards and goals, planning and coordinating with staff and student personnel, and the involvement of parents and the community in the educational process (Blumberg and Greenfield, 1980, and Sweeney, 1982).

The current definition of the educational leader seems to be one that includes both directive behavior and supportive behavior. The development of leadership skills has become a major thrust of the district staff development programs and approximately thirty states now have academies for leadership training (Mann, 1985).

The effective school leader, according to Howard, Howell, and Brainard (1987), influences how the school is perceived by students, teachers, and the community. Riegle and Mukes (1988) state that "this perceived effectiveness or ineffectiveness can be described as a positive or negative school climate. Every person who comes in contact with a school will leave with an impression of that school based on the climate in the building" (p. 65). The recent studies regarding effective schools focuses greater attention on the effects of school climate. The emphasis on the climate of a school is an essential component in the training, education, and

preparation of future school administrators (Riegle and Mukes, 1988).

An effective administrator will meet, according to Riegle and Mukes (1988), the challenge for improving school climate through a well-developed, carefully thought-out plan of action. Riegle and Mukes (1988) further state:

> Teachers want to work with effective educational leaders/administrators who not only assure the order, security, and maintenance of the school, but who also provide direction, leadership, and high standards for student and teacher success (p. 67).

Leadership theorists do not agree on the issue of whether a leader's style is either fixed or flexible. For example, Fiedler (1967) says the former position is true, while Hersey and Blanchard (1988) argue for the latter.

Some earlier trait studies conducted by Miller (1920) and Munson (1921) have, over time, proved to be only modest predictors of leadership effectiveness. The ability to predict leadership success by identifying traits is just not that successful. Traits such as intelligence, dominance, self-confidence, or the like, would by no means assure us that a leader's subordinates would be productive and satisfied employees.

The task-people approaches such as the Ohio State model as described by Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn (1985) also offer little substance. Based on these studies, the strongest statement one can make is that leaders who rate high in people orientation should end up with satisfied employees.

Careful examination discloses that the concepts of tasks and people -- often expressed in more elaborate terms that hold substantially the same meaning -- permeate most of the theories (Karmel, 1978). The task dimension is called just that

by Fiedler (1967), but it goes by the name "initiating structure" for the Stogdill and Coons (1951) Ohio State group, "directive leadership" and "productive orientation" by the Michigan researchers, Kahn and Katz (1960).

The people dimension gets similar treatment going under such aliases as "consideration", "employee-oriented", "supportive", or "relationship-oriented" leadership.

It seems clear that leadership behavior can be reduced to two dimensions -- task and people -- but researchers continue to differ as to whether the orientations are two ends of a single continuum (a leader could be high on one end and low on the other, but not both), or two independent dimensions (a leader could be high or low, or both).

Controlled laboratory studies designed to test Fiedler's model, in aggregate, have generally supported Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory. Field studies provide more, but still limited, support according to Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn (1985).

The review of literature indicates that according to the history overview of the organizational climate concept, the review of research and relevant theories was presented regarding the interrelationships of school climate, student achievement, and leadership behavior.

Researchers described climate as being on a continuum; that the open side, or humanistic approach in leadership provides the most effective school climate. Organizational climate was described as not only influencing, but being influenced by, its inhabitants. Evidence was presented to establish the importance of administrator,

principal, or educational leader in the development and maintenance of school climate.

Evidence of the relationship between leadership styles and school climate was analyzed, and presented validated techniques for measuring leadership styles and school climate.

Finally, Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership theory is intuitively appealing. It is important for its explicit recognition to understand that the subordinate's ability and motivation are critical to the leader's success.

According to the review of literature, there can be little doubt that the success of any organization depends largely on the quality of its leadership. Whether in business, government, education, medicine, or religion, the quality of an organization's leadership determines the quality of the organization itself. Successful leaders anticipate change, vigorously exploit opportunities, motivate their followers to higher productivity and increased job satisfaction, correct poor performance, and lead the organization toward its objectives.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the planning and the procedures used in this study. The design of the study, population and sample selection, instrumentation, data collection procedures, and the hypothesis and method of analysis will be addressed.

Design of the Study

This study is a descriptive study design. Descriptive statistics will be used to present the data collected. The primary use of descriptive statistics according to Key (1974) is to:

> . . .describe information or data through the use of numbers. The characteristics of groups of numbers representing information or data are called descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics are used to describe groups of numerical data such as test scores, numbers or hours of instruction, or the number of students enrolled in a particular course (p. 142).

This study was designed to determine, through a systematic analysis, if there are differences between the identified administrative leadership behavior styles of Oklahoma area vocational technical school administrators and the "actual" and the "ideal" school climate factors as perceived by teachers. Data collected will then be

analyzed to determine if there are relationships between the observed leadership behavior styles and the school climate factors. Popham (1967) writes:

> There is a definite relationship between variances and means. It is this functional relationship which is used in determining the significance of mean differences in analyzing variances in a particular fashion (p. 166).

This descriptive research study was designed to take an established setting, identify administrator leadership styles, identify the actual and ideal school climate factors as perceived by teachers, and determine existing differences and relationships.

Population and Sample Selection

The population samples consisted of 932 Oklahoma area vocational technical school teachers, all employed during the 1990-1991 school year. Using the sample size selection chart provided in the Handbook in Research and Evaluation for Education and Behavioral Science (Isaac and Michael, 1982), it was determined that from the total population of 932 area vocational technical teachers across the state, a sample size of at least n=274 would be needed to meet the .95 level of confidence. A random sampling approach was used to select the sample population. Selection of the samples from the total population was aided by using the Oklahoma Department of Vocational and Technical Education Directory (1990-1991).

A list of random numbers were selected from Keppel (1982). Each name of the total population was assigned a random number; duplicate numbers were made and placed in a box. The selection process consisted of selecting the random numbers from the box held overhead with eyes closed until n=400 selections were made. This

completed the sample population selection processes.

Instrumentation

Two instruments were used in this study. Each teacher was asked to respond

to both instruments. These instruments were used to collect data on the perceived

leadership behavior styles and school climate respectively.

The first instrument used to collect school climate data was the CFK, Ltd.,

School Climate Profile, developed by Howard, Howell, and Brainard (1987). See

Appendix A. Permission is granted to use this instrument according to Howard,

Howell, and Brainard (1987):

> All of these instruments are copyrighted, but any purchaser of this book
> may reproduce them for use in school climate studies or for other
> purposes. Written permission is not required. However, they are not
> to be reproduced for resale to others (p. 51).

The forty-item instrument asks the respondents to compare what they perceive

as being the "what is" (actual) status of eight particular climate factors to the "what

should be" (ideal) status of a specific climate factor. These eight climate factors are:

(1) respect, (2) trust, (3) high morale, (4) opportunities for input, (5) cohesiveness,

(6) academic and social growth, (7) school renewal, and (8) caring.

This instrument, according to Howard, Howell, and Brainard (1987), is

designed to serve two purposes. First, it provides a convenient means of assessing

the school's climate factors so that initial decisions can be made about priority targets

for improvement projects. Second, it serves as a benchmark against which a school

may measure change. Dennis (1979), in her study to assess the validity and reliability

of the CFK, Ltd., School Climate Profile, found the reliability and the validity of the criterion measures to be extremely high using Hoyt estimates of reliability, item analysis, and analysis of variance. According to Dennis (1979), the reliability for the total profile was .95. Composite groups tested included administrators, teachers, and students, respectively.

Respondents were asked to answer the forty-item profile by using a Likert (1967) scale. Each one of five questions for each climate factor are rated from one to four points. Each climate factor total could, therefore, range from five to twenty points based on the following scale: (1 point) - almost never, (2 points) - occasionally, (3 points) - frequently, and (4 points) - almost always. Each climate factor on the profile therefore provides the capability to use the mean to compare "what is" (actual) and "what should be" (ideal) climate scores in each area. Climate factors and each corresponding item are listed below (Howard, Howell, and Brainard, 1987):

```
Respect  . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .  items 1-5
Trust  . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .  items 6-10
Morale  . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .  items 11-15
Input  . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .  items 16-20
Growth  . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .  items 21-25
Cohesiveness  . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .  items 26-30
Renewal  . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .  items 31-35
Caring  . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .  items 36-40
(p. 68-69).
```

The second instrument to be used was the Leadership Behavior Analysis II, developed by Blanchard Training and Development, Incorporated. Permission was granted by Blanchard Training and Development, Incorporated, for use in this study.

See Appendix F. This instrument was initially developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1974) and was formally known as the "Leader Adaptability and Style Inventory" (LASI). It first appeared in the February, 1974, issue of Training and Development Journal in the article, "So You Want to Know Your Leadership Style?" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1974). Since this initial publication, the instruments have been refined and modified.

Each instrument contains twenty multiple choice questions which yield style scores. Each respondent was presented twenty situations in which they were asked to respond to four alternatives and to determine which actions would reflect their supervisor's leadership behavior style if confronted with that particular situation. These proposed situations reflect how a leader should respond to different maturity levels of subordinates in either group or individual situations. The leadership style behavior, either high/low supportive or high/low directive, is contingent upon the maturity level in each of the situations described.

Concepts from Fiedler's (1967) "Contingency Model", Likert's (1967) research, Blake and Mouton's (1968) "Managerial Grid", and Stodgill and Coons' (1951) studies, together with extensive use and analysis of LBA II instruments, have provided sufficient information to give credence to their psychological, logical, and face validity (Gay, 1981). The situations in the LBA II have been analyzed to determine why one leadership style should be used and not another. The situations, their diagnosis, and rationale for each alternative action are based on many trials and many research studies (Hersey and Blanchard, 1983).

According to the Psychometric and Evaluation Research Services (1978), after item by item analysis, the situations were split into two halves to produce parallel forms. The parallel-form reliability of the LBA II was .76, and the proportion of agreement was .79.

The instrument was administered to a group of 35 middle managers at a management training workshop. The parallel-form scored .72 for effectiveness. The preparation of agreement in dominant style was .79 (Psychometric and Evaluative Research Services, 1978). This study was concerned only with dominant or primary leadership style. The LBA II has the capability to determine a leader's style flexibility, style effectiveness, and overall style diagnosis.

Data Collection Procedures

Packets containing both survey instruments were either hand delivered or mailed to a representative at each school site. The packet contained sealed envelopes with surveys included and the names of the persons to be surveyed on the outside of the sealed envelope. The respondents were asked to complete the surveys, seal them in the envelope provided within their individual packet and return them to a central pick-up point. The packet contained the two instruments along with a cover letter that explained the purpose of the survey, urged participation, and assured participants that strict anonymity would be maintained. Each participant had the individual envelopes delivered to their school mail distribution point. Each packet was returned to that point for pick up. The time needed to complete both surveys is lengthy -- from

twenty-five to thirty-five minutes.

In order to achieve a .95 confidence level, n=400 Oklahoma area vocational technical school teachers were surveyed. The number of surveys returned were n=325. Out of the questionnaires returned, n=38 were deemed inappropriate for use in this study. They were inappropriate for use because of incompleteness, illegibility, or because the individual requested they not be used. As a result, a total of n=287, useable surveys will be analyzed -- well within the .95 confidence level.

Each instrument was hand scored and the raw scores were transferred to a notebook for easier use. The Leadership Behavior Analysis II produces only nominal data.

Hypothesis and Method of Analysis

Research question four asked if the "what is" (actual) and "what should be" (ideal) school climate factor scores were affected by the administrator leadership behavior styles. Since the collected data was available to be tested, the following hypothesis was formulated in order to address Research question four:

There is no significant difference between the "what is" (actual) and "what should be" (ideal) eight general climate factor scores for each leadership behavior style as perceived by teachers.

This hypothesis was tested to determine if leadership behavior styles of Oklahoma area vocational technical school administrators affected the "what is" (actual) and "what should be" (ideal) eight general school climate factors as perceived

by teachers. This hypothesis was tested using t tests on the data from a representative sample from a normal population. According to Key (1974), "When attempting to determine if the difference between two means is greater than that which could be expected from chance, the "t" test may be the statistical technique we seek" (p. 177). The "t" is the difference between two sample means, measured in terms of the standard error of those means. Key (1974) writes that the "t" is a "comparison between two group means which takes into account the differences in group variation and group size of the two groups" (p. 177).

A post-hoc test eta^2, was used to measure the strength-of-association on the results of the t test, according to Linton and Gallo (1975). Linton and Gallo (1975) further state:

> Unfortunately, as yet there are no hard and fast rules to tell you how strong a relationship you need before you begin to feel happy about your results. A good dose of common sense is probably the best guideline. Judging from the present state of the art in behavioral sciences, anytime you can account for more than 10% of the variance, you are doing better than a vast majority of studies (p. 331).

Summary

All of the data collected was analyzed in order to determine, through a systematic analysis, if there were differences between the "what is" (actual) eight general climate factor scores; if there were differences between the "what should be" (ideal) eight general climate factor scores; if there were differences between the "what is" (actual) and "what should be" (ideal) eight general climate factor scores; and to determine if the "what is" (actual) and "what should be" (ideal) school climate factor

scores are affected by administrator leadership behavior styles. All of the data collected was based on teacher perceptions of their school climate and how they perceived the leadership behavior style of their immediate supervisor.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

Introduction

This study investigated the differences between administrator leadership behavior styles and actual and ideal climate factors as perceived by teachers. One hypothesis was developed to examine the existing differences between leadership styles and the actual and ideal climate factors.

The Leadership Behavior Analysis II, developed by Blanchard Training and Development, Incorporated, was used to determine leadership styles. The CFK, Ltd., School Climate Profile was used to determine school climate factor (actual and ideal) scores. Both instruments were analyzed based on Oklahoma area vocational technical school teachers' perceived notions about their supervisors leadership behavior and their school climate.

The level of significance for rejecting the null hypotheses was set at .05 for this study.

Demographic Data

At the time this study was conducted, there were 932 area vocational technical school teachers across the state of Oklahoma. To insure the sample population would meet the .95 level of confidence, n=400 questionnaires were delivered to area

vocational technical school teachers representing the 28 area vocational technical school districts in Oklahoma. A total return of n=325 questionnaires was recorded. Of this total return, 38 questionnaires were deemed incomplete, illegible, or were not used because respondents requested they not be used. A return of 71.75% or n=287 respondents were used in this study. This is well within the sample size needed to maintain the .95 confidence level. Vocational technical school teachers surveyed included both male and female respondents, as indicated in Table I, Table II, and Table III, respectively. All respondents had a mean of 14.5 years of vocational technical school teaching experience. Table III depicts the composite totals for male and female respondents.

TABLE I

DEMOGRAPHICS FOR MALE RESPONDENTS

Teaching Specialty	Respondents	Percentage
Trade and Industry	146	85.88
Construction Trades	20	11.36
Business/Office Tech.	4	2.76
Total	170	100.0

TABLE II

DEMOGRAPHICS FOR FEMALE RESPONDENTS

Teaching Specialty	Respondents	Percentage
Business/Office Tech.	74	63.25
Health Occupations	21	17.95
Home Economics	18	15.40
Merchandising	4	3.40
Total	117	100.0

TABLE III

COMPOSITE DEMOGRAPHICS FOR RESPONDENTS

Teaching Specialty*	Respondents	Percentage
Trade and Industry	146	50.87
Construction Trades	20	7.00
Business/Office Tech.	78	27.18
Health Occupations	21	7.30
Home Economics	18	6.27
Merchandising	4	1.38
Total	287	100.0

* Teaching specialty listed from high to low numbers of respondents

Research Question 1

Research question one was to determine the scores for the "what is" (actual) eight general school climate factors as perceived by teachers. Teachers' perceptions of the "what is" (actual) eight general school climate factors are shown in the descriptive data in Table IV.

TABLE IV

DESCRIPTIVE DATA FOR ACTUAL CLIMATE FACTORS*

Climate Factor	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
Input	13.82	4.10	15
Trust	15.65	2.80	12
Cohesiveness	15.76	3.25	15
Growth	15.87	2.88	13
Morale	16.40	2.39	14
Renewal	16.66	3.33	15
Respect	17.04	2.68	10
Caring	17.40	3.24	15
Composite	16.08	3.08	--
Range	3.58		

* Climate factors are ranked by mean score, from low to high.

The descriptive data represented in Table IV depict the various perceptions of how the participants viewed the actual eight general school climate factors. As shown in Table IV, there are wide differences between the mean scores of the eight general school climate factors. As seen in actual climate factors, the composite mean score was 16.08 on a scale of 5 to 20, with a range of 3.58.

Opportunities for Input with a mean score of 13.82, was rated lowest among all climate factors. It should be noted that it had a range of 15, and therefore was equivalent with three other factors for widest distribution margins among climate factors. With a standard deviation of 4.10, Opportunities for Input also had the widest variation from the mean. The distribution of scores for this climate factor showed not only that it was rated the lowest, but that it also had a wider range of scores. Trust, with a mean score of 15.65, a range of 12, and standard deviation of 2.80, had the second lowest mean score.

The actual climate factor of Caring ranked highest with a mean score of 17.40, a range of 15, and a standard deviation of 3.24. It was obvious, even with a range of 15, that this factor was perceived as a positive factor, as well as was the factor of Respect, with a mean of 17.04, a range of 10, and a standard deviation of 2.68.

Actual climate scores differed significantly as shown in Table IV. Table IV also illustrates the standard deviations and the wide range of opinions submitted by the participants. The actual climate factor scores for Caring, Respect, Renewal, and Morale, with mean scores of 17.40, 17.04, 16.66, and 16.40 respectively, were the four climate factors ranked highest in terms of what teachers perceived to be the

actual climate scores in their school.

Research Question 2

Research question two was to determine the scores of the "what should be" (ideal) eight general climate factors as perceived by teachers. Table V shows the descriptive data for the ideal climate factor scores.

Opportunities for Input with a mean of 18.74, a range of 8, and standard deviation of 2.00, also ranked the lowest on the "what should be" (ideal) climate subscale. The standard deviation shows this factor had the widest average variation from the mean, as shown in Table V. The descriptive data for this factor shows that there was a wide range of opinions about this factor and it was perceived to be the least significant contributor toward a positive school climate. Cohesiveness, Social and Academic Growth, and Trust, respectively, had the next highest standard deviations.

The climate factor ranked the highest was Morale with a mean score of 19.83. This ideal climate factor also had the lowest standard deviation and the lowest range. Ideal climate factors of Caring (19.73), Respect (19.69), and Renewal (19.65), were the four factors that were perceived by teachers to be the most important in an ideal school climate.

TABLE V

DESCRIPTIVE DATA FOR IDEAL CLIMATE FACTORS*

Climate Factor	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
Input	18.74	2.00	8
Cohesiveness	19.26	1.67	11
Growth	19.40	1.45	10
Trust	19.43	1.08	5
Renewal	19.65	0.88	6
Respect	19.69	0.87	5
Caring	19.73	0.93	7
Morale	19.83	0.62	4
Composite	19.47	1.19	--
Range	1.09		

* Climate factors are ranked by mean score, from low to high.

Research Question 3

The combined scores of actual and ideal climate factors scores are illustrated in Table VI. Table VI combines the actual and the ideal eight general school climate factor scores for easy comparisons.

TABLE VI

COMBINED DESCRIPTIVE DATA FOR ACTUAL

AND IDEAL CLIMATE FACTORS

Ranking of Actual Climate Factors	Mean	Standard Deviation	Ranking of Ideal Climate Factors	Mean	Standard Deviation
Input	13.82	4.10	Input	18.74	2.00
Trust	15.65	2.80	Trust	19.43	1.08
Cohesiveness	15.76	3.25	Cohesiveness	19.26	1.67
Growth	15.87	2.88	Growth	19.40	1.45
Morale	16.40	2.39	Morale	19.83	0.62
Renewal	16.66	3.33	Renewal	19.65	0.88
Respect	17.04	2.68	Respect	19.69	0.87
Caring	17.40	3.24	Caring	19.73	0.93
Range	3.58		Range	1.09	

As noted, Opportunities for Input ranked lowest on both subscales, while the actual climate factor of Caring ranked the highest. High Morale was considered to be the most important factor on the ideal subscale, followed closely by the climate factor of Caring.

Further study of Table VI illustrates that the actual climate factor scores for Opportunities for Input, Cohesiveness, Growth, Renewal, and Caring, all show a wide variance from the mean, indicating a wide range of perceptions of those specific climate factors.

Table VII represents the climate factor gap scores. The gap scores are accounted for by subtracting the ideal climate factor scores from the actual climate factor scores. As noted, the ideal climate factor scores were ranked considerably higher than the actual climate factor scores by teachers. This connotes a perceived discrepancy by the respondents. The general climate factor gap score for Opportunities for Input was by far the largest at 4.92. However, Input ranked lowest in terms of what teachers perceived as most conducive to an ideal school climate. Trust, with a gap score of 3.78 also shows a wide perceived discrepancy, yet it ranks no higher than fifth on the ideal climate subscale. Caring ranks second on the ideal climate factor subscale and first on the actual subscale, indicating that teachers perceived this factor to be an important contributor for positive school climate.

The composite gap score indicates an overall discrepancy of 3.39. Further, the data indicates that while Input, Cohesiveness, Growth, and Trust should be

TABLE VII

GENERAL CLIMATE FACTORS: GAP SCORES

Climate Factor	Mean Actual	Mean Ideal	Mean Difference (Gap Scores)*
Caring	17.40	19.73	2.43
Respect	17.04	19.69	2.65
Renewal	16.66	19.65	2.99
Morale	16.40	19.83	3.43
Cohesiveness	15.76	19.26	3.50
Growth	15.87	19.40	3.53
Trust	15.65	19.43	3.78
Input	13.82	18.74	4.92
Composite	16.08	19.47	3.39
Range	3.58	1.09	2.49

* Gap scores are listed lowest to highest.

considered in overall school climate improvement projects, those factors are not perceived to be as important as the remaining factors; Morale, Caring, Respect, and Renewal respectively. The descriptive data in Table VII indicates gap scores of 3.43 for Morale, 2.43 for Caring, and 2.65 for Respect. At the time of the investigation, the participants perceived the general welfare (Morale) of all the individuals within

their school to be the most significant contributors to overall school climate. Caring, which generated the lowest gap score (2.43), was also deemed important.

When looking at only the ideal climate factor scores, the range is only 1.09 compared to 3.58 for the actual climate factor scores. Teachers perceived all of the ideal eight general climate factors to be important. As seen in Table VII, even the lowest rated ideal climate factor score of 19.47 (Opportunities for Input) was greater than the highest ranked actual climate score of 17.40 (Caring).

Research Question 4 and Hypothesis Statement

Research question four asked if the "what is" (actual) and the "what should be" (ideal) school climate factor scores were affected by the administrator leadership behavior styles. In order to determine the solution to Research question 4, the following hypothesis was formed:

There is no significant difference between the "what is" (actual) and "what should be" (ideal) eight general climate factor scores for each leadership style as perceived by teachers.

Table VIII illustrates the identified leadership behavior styles as perceived by teachers; that is n=43 respondents perceived their supervisor to be a S1 leaders; n=108 respondents perceived their supervisor to be a S2 leader; n=73 respondents perceived their supervisor to be a S3 leader; and n=63 respondents perceived their supervisor as being a S4 leader.

TABLE VIII

LEADERSHIP STYLE DISTRIBUTION

Leadership Style*	Frequency	Percentage
S1	43	14.98
S2	108	37.63
S3	73	25.44
S4	63	21.95
Total	287	100.0

* Hersey and Blanchard (1988) defines leadership behavior as:
S1 - high directive, low supportive behavior
S2 - high directive, high supportive behavior
S3 - high supportive, low directive behavior
S4 - low supportive, low directive behavior

Situational leadership, according to Hersey and Blanchard (1988) is based on an interplay among: (1) the amount of guidance and direction (task behavior) a leader gives, (2) the amount of socioemotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides, and (3) the readiness (maturity) level that followers exhibit while performing a specific task, function, or objective. The concept was developed to help people attempting leadership, regardless of their role, to be more effective with their daily interactions with others. Situational leadership provides leaders with some understanding of the relationship between an effective style of leadership and the level

of maturity of their followers.

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) also believe that while all the situational variables (leader, followers, supervisor, associates, organization, job demands, and time) are important, "the emphasis in Situational Leadership is on the behavior for the leader in relation to followers" (p. 150). Followers, state Hersey and Blanchard (1988) are vital, not only because individually they accept or reject the leader "but because as a group they determine whatever power a leader may have" (p. 150).

Leadership behavior style data was evaluated using t tests. Distribution of leaders by style is shown in Table VIII. Table IX depicts the analysis of the collected data based on the number (43 or 14.98%) of respondents that perceived their

TABLE IX

S1 LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ACTUAL
VERSUS IDEAL CLIMATE FACTORS

Source		df	t
Mean Difference	3.994	343	22.848*
SD Difference	3.242		

* p. < .001

$eta^2 = 60.34\%$

supervisor as being a S1 (high directive/low supportive) leader. Results of the t test show that a significant difference between actual and ideal school climate factor scores. There is no certainty that the significant difference is due to treatment (S1

leader) effect. However, using the eta^2 post-hoc strength-of-association test, it was determined that, based on the 60.34 percent of the variance, there is a strong relationship between the discrepancy of the climate factor scores and the S1 leadership behavior style.

Table X illustrates the analysis of the collected data based on the largest number (108 or 37.63%) of respondents that perceived their supervisor as being a S2 (high directive/high supportive) leaders. Results of the t test show a significant t value indicating a significant difference between actual and ideal climate factor scores. The eta^2 strength-of-association test confirmed that 51.13 percent of the variance could account for the relationship between the discrepancy of the climate factor scores and leadership behavior style.

TABLE X

S2 LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ACTUAL
VERSUS IDEAL CLIMATE FACTORS

Source		df	t
Mean Difference	2.314	863	30.050*
SD Difference	2.263		

* p. < .001
eta^2 = 51.13%

The t test results for the S3 leader is shown in Table XI. This leadership style yielded descriptive data for 73 (25.44%) of the respondents. The S3 leader exhibits high supportive, low directive behavior. Although the t test results indicate a

significant difference between actual and ideal factor scores, the eta^2 strength-of-association test yielded only a 47.58 percent of variance, suggesting that this leadership behavior style had a less than 50 percent variance that could be attributed to the relationship between the discrepancy of the climate factor scores and the S3 leadership behavior style.

TABLE XI

S3 LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ACTUAL
VERSUS IDEAL CLIMATE FACTORS

Source		df	t
Mean Difference	2.884	583	23.008*
SD Difference	3.029		

* p. < .001

eta^2 = 47.58%

The t test results for the S4 leader is shown in Table XII. The S4 leadership behavior (low supportive/low directive) was perceived by 63 (21.95%) of the respondents as noted in Table VIII. The t test results indicate a significant difference between actual and ideal climate factors. The strength-of-association test, eta^2, revealed that 64.38 percent of the variance is could account for the strong relationship between the discrepancy of the climate factor scores and the leadership behavior style as perceived by teachers.

TABLE XII

S4 LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ACTUAL
VERSUS IDEAL CLIMATE FACTORS

Source		df	t
Mean Difference	5.405	503	38.153*
SD Difference	3.180		

* $p. < .001$

$eta^2 = 64.38\%$

Based on the above analysis, there appear to be significant differences between actual and ideal climate factor scores. A strong relationship exists between the discrepancy of the climate factor scores and the leadership behavior style of the S1, S2, and S4 leaders. The S3 leader depicts a slightly lower relationship (47.58%) between the discrepancy of the climate factor scores and the leadership behavior style. However, based on the results of the t tests, the null hypothesis is rejected.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine, through a systematic analysis, if there are differences between leadership behavior styles of Oklahoma area vocational technical school administrators and the "actual" and "ideal" eight general school climate factors as perceived by teachers. Teachers were asked to rate their perceptions of their school climate using the CFK, Ltd., School Climate Profile (Howard, Howell, and Brainard, 1987), and to rank eight school climate factors based on their perceptions of "what is" (actual) and "what should be" (ideal) school climate. Teachers were also asked to respond to Blanchard Training and Development Incorporated's, Leadership Behavior Analysis II; an instrument used to determine their administrative supervisor's leadership style.

There were four specific research questions developed for this study. The research questions were:

1. What are the scores for the "what is" (actual) eight general school climate factors as perceived by teachers?

2. What are the scores for the "what should be" (ideal) eight general school climate factor scores as perceived by teachers?

3. What are the differences (gap scores) between the "what is" (actual) and

"what should be" (ideal) eight general school climate factor scores as perceived by teachers?

4. Does each identified leadership behavior style affect the difference between the "what is" (actual) and "what should be" (ideal) eight general school climate factor scores factor scores as perceived by teachers?

The subjects of this study were area vocational technical school administrators and school climate in Oklahoma. The sample population was (n=287) randomly selected area vocational technical school teachers representing the 28 area vocational technical schools and 48 campuses across the state (Oklahoma State Department of Vocational and Technical Education Data Sheet, 1990-1991).

Summary

The review of literature presented a historic overview of leadership beginning with Miller (1920) and Munson (1921) trait studies. Stogdill and Coon's (1951) Ohio State University studies explained how researchers started the move away from trait characteristics and toward leadership behavior concepts. Kahn and Katz (1960) soon followed in their research at the University of Michigan and offered their contributions to leadership studies. Their notions about two dimensional leadership behaviors were termed employee-centered and production-centered behaviors. Getzels and Guba (1957) used two new terms to discuss the leadership styles. They referred to styles as idiographic (individual need disposition) and nomothetic, a style that placed emphasis on organizational role expectations.

Fiedler's (1967) Contingency Model was given credit for the first contingency leadership theory. By manipulating three situational criteria: (1) leader-member relations, (2) directive structure, and (3) position power, Fiedler (1967) believed his plan could create the proper situation for the leader. Fiedler (1967) did not believe that a leader's style was flexible, rather that it was static.

Hersey and Blanchard (1974) were just beginning to be recognized for their situational theory approach to leadership in 1974. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) believed that leadership behavior is influenced by many components, not the least of which is the readiness level or maturity level of the follower(s). The situational leadership concept, according to Hersey and Blanchard (1988), states that a leader exhibits two behavior characteristics; directive and supportive behavior. Situational leadership actually incorporates some of the same concepts as Fiedler (1967), Kahn and Katz (1960), and Stogdill and Coons (1951). Robbins (1989) stated that Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) theory provides at least partial support for situational theory.

School climate background information shows that organizational climate was a term credited to Cornell (1955). Cornell (1955) concluded, after four years of study, that school districts differ in their organizational climate, and that teachers react differently to those organizational relationships. Several similar definitions and versions of school climate were identified. Various instruments to measure organizational climate were identified and discussed, and examples were given concerning the validity and the use of climate measurement instruments used in schools. The CFK, Ltd., School Climate Profile (Howard, Howell, and Brainard,

1987) was described in detail, including studies where the questionnaire was utilized and the reliability and validity of the instrument was determined.

The related studies section of the review of literature mentioned several investigations between organizational climate and leadership style effectiveness. Most noted was Bailey and Young's (1988) study of the leadership styles of high school principals in West Virginia and the relationship toward school climate as perceived by teachers.

This study used descriptive research design techniques to analyze the collected data. Research question one found differences between the scores of the "what is" (actual) eight general school climate factors as illustrated in Table IV. Research question two found differences between the scores of the "what should be" (ideal) eight general school climate factors as depicted in Table V. Research question three found that there were differences (gap scores) between the "what is" (actual) and "what should be" (ideal) eight general school climate factor scores as shown in Table VI and Table VII. Research question four was tested by formulating the following null hypothesis:

There is no significant difference between the "what is" (actual) and the "what should be" (ideal) general school climate for each leadership behavior style as perceived by teachers.

The results of this analysis were illustrated in Tables IX, X, XI, and XII. Based on the results of the t tests, the null hypothesis was rejected. The eta^2 significance-of-association post-hoc test further revealed that strong relationships

existed between the discrepancy of actual and ideal climate factor scores and the leadership behavior styles of S1, S2, and S4 leaders as perceived by teachers.

Conclusions

1. The "what is" (actual) school climate factor scores established baseline data that reflects the general opinions of the entire group of vocational technical school teachers across the state of Oklahoma.

2. According to the "what is" (actual) school climate factor scores, participants in this study appeared to cherish Opportunities for Input, at least for consideration, but other factors were deemed more important.

3. Based on the "what should be" (ideal) school climate factor scores, teachers find it difficult to analyze an "ideal" school climate.

4. Gap score results indicate that teachers have a wide range of perceptions about what their school climate actually is and what the ideal school climate should be. In other words, it is difficult to make everyone happy all the time.

5. Based on the analysis of the discrepancies between the "what is" (actual) and "what should be" (ideal) school climate factor scores and leadership behavior styles, some leadership styles may affect school climate more than others.

6. Based on the mean of 14.5 years of vocational teaching experience of the respondents, the S4 leadership behavior style (low supportive/low directive) may be more appropriate to use than the S3 (high supportive/low directive) leadership behavior style.

7. Regardless of the leadership behavior style teachers perceive their supervisor to exhibit, they will rarely agree on how school climate is affected by their supervisor.

Recommendations

Based on the review of literature and the results of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Opportunities for Input is a school climate factor that should be addressed as a priority for school climate improvement projects.

2. School climate should be assessed periodically to identify areas of concern and/or establish priorities for improvement projects.

3. Administrators at all levels should make a concerted effort to maximize their ability to assess the maturity levels of their subordinates.

4. Administrators should adjust their leadership style as necessary to remain consistent with the emerging maturity levels of their subordinates.

5. The Oklahoma State Department of Vocational and Technical Education should show an increased emphasis in professional development programs for present and future administrators at all levels. Administrators should assess their personal leadership behavior style and learn how to improve their ability to use directive and supportive behaviors with each individual they supervise.

Implications for Further Research

Based on the review of literature and the results of this study, the following implications for further research are offered:

1. It is recommended that further research is warranted to identify other diagnostic instruments for assessing school climate.

2. It is recommended that instrument comparisons for assessing school climate would be appropriate, utilizing both the same and different subjects, namely teachers and students.

3. A longitudinal study on school climate to assess actual and ideal school climate over lengths of time seems appropriate.

4. Case studies involving leadership styles of Oklahoma area vocational technical school administrators seems appropriate.

5. It is recommended that viable comparisons could be made on case studies involving leadership styles of Oklahoma area vocational technical school administrators when the perceptions of teachers, students, and staff are utilized for comparison studies.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

CFK, LTD., SCHOOL CLIMATE PROFILE

The CFK, Ltd., School Climate Profile

Purpose:

This instrument gives you an opportunity to express your feelings about many aspects of your school's climate. Although it may not include every item you consider important in your school, it does provide an overall assessment of a school's climate. The ratings for the various items in this instrument will help in deciding which climate factors should be looked at more intensively when engaging in school improvement projects.

Directions:

1.   Check the category you fall under:

		Age:	
_____	Male		
_____	Female	_____	20-25
_____	Trade/Industry	_____	26-30
_____	Business/Office Technology	_____	31-35
_____	Home Economics Occupations	_____	35-40
_____	Health Occupations	_____	41-45
_____	Adult Education	_____	46 and above
_____	Merchandising/Business Management	_____	Number years in
_____	Construction Trades		Vocational Education

School Where You Work_____

2.   Read each item thoughtfully and indicate a rating under both the "What Is" column and the "What Should Be" column. Use both the following scale to indicate your rating for each item in both columns:

1 -   Almost Never
2 -   Occasionally
3 -   Frequently
4 -   Almost Always

3.   In the box at the bottom of each of 8 sections, total your score. Your lowest possible score for each section would be 5; the highest 20.

Part A

General Climate Factors

	What Is:	What Should be:
1. Respect		
1. In this school, even low achieving students are respected.		
2. Teachers treat students as persons.		
3. Parents are considered by this school as important collaborators.		
4. Teachers from one subject area or grade level respect those from other subject areas		
5. Teachers in this school are proud to be teachers.		
TOTAL		
2. Trust		
1. Students feel that teachers are "on their side."		
2. While we don't always agree, we can share our concerns with each other openly.		
3. Our principal administrator is a good spokesman for our interests and needs before the superintendent and the board.		
4. Students can count on teachers to listen to their side of the story and to be fair.		
5. Teachers trust students to use good judgement.		
TOTAL		

	What Is:	What Should be:
3. High Morale: 1. This school makes student enthusiastic about learning.		
2. Teachers feel pride in this school and in its students.		
3. Attendance is good; students stay away only for urgent and good reasons.		
4. Parents, teachers, and students would rise to the defense of this school's program if it were challenged.		
5. I like working in this school.		
TOTAL		
2. Opportunity for Input 1. I feel that my ideas are listened to and used in this school.		
2. When important decisions are made about the programs in this school, I, personally, have heard about the plan beforehand and have been involved in some of the discussions.		
3. Important decisions are made in this school by a governing councis with representation from students, faculty, and administration.		
4. While I obviously can't have a vote on every decision that is made in this school that affects me, I do feel that I can have some important input into that decision.		
5. When all is said and done, I feel that I count in this school.		
TOTAL		

	What Is:	What Should be:
5. Continuous Academic and Social Growth:		
1. The teachers are "alive"; they are interested in life around them; they are doing interesting things outside of school.		
2. Teachers in this school are "out in front", seeking better ways of teaching and learning.		
3. Students feel that the school program is meaningful and relevant to their present and future needs		
4. The principal is growing and learning too. He or she is seeking new ideas.		
5. The school supports parent growth. Regular opportunities are provided for parents to be involved in learning activities and in examining new ideas.		
TOTAL		
6. Cohesiveness:		
1. Students would rather attend this school than transfer to another.		
2. There is a "we" spirit in this school.		
3. Administration and teachers collaborate toward making the school run effectively; there is little administrator-teacher tension.		
4. Differences between individuals and groups (both faculty and students) richness of the school, not as a divisive influences.		
5. New students and faculty members are made to feel welcome and part of the group.		
TOTAL		

	What Is:	What Should be:
7. School Renewal:		
1. When a problem comes up, this school has procedures for working on it; problems are seen as normal challenges, not as "rocking the boat."		
2. Teachers are encouraged to innovate in their classroom rather than to conform.		
3. When a student comes along who has special problems, this school works out a plan that helps that student.		
4. Students are encouraged to be creative rather than conform.		
5. Careful effort is made, when new programs are introduced, to adapt them to the particular needs of the community and this school.		
TOTAL		
8. Caring:		
1. There is someone in this school that I can always count on.		
2. The principal really cares about students.		
3. I think people in this school care about me as a person and are concerned about more than just how well I performed my role at school.		
4. I feel wanted and needed in this school.		
5. Most people at this school are kind.		
TOTAL		

APPENDIX B

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS II
Perceptions of Leadership Style

LEADER BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS II™

Kenneth H. Blanchard, Ronald K. Hambleton,
Drea Zigarmi and Douglas Forsyth

THE
PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP STYLE

DIRECTIONS:

The purpose of the LBA II Other is to provide a leader with
information about your perceptions of his or her leadership
style. The instrument consists of twenty typical job situations
that involve a leader and one or more staff members. Follow-
ing each situation are four possible actions that a leader may
take. Assume _____
(name of leader)

is involved in each of the twenty situations. In each of the
situations, you must choose one of the four leader decisions.
Circle the letter of the decision that you think would best
describe the behavior of this leader in the situation presented.
Circle only one choice.

Leader's : Supervisor
: Associate
: Team Member

btd

Blanchard Training and Development, Inc.
125 State Place, Escondido, CA 92029
(800) 728-6000 (619) 489-5005

LBAII

1 A new employee has been asked to write a report to buy new equipment for the division. She needs to learn more about this equipment to make a sound decision about options and costs. She feels this assignment will stretch her already full schedule. This manager would...

A Tell her when the report is needed, and what should be in the report. Outline the steps the employee should take to become knowledgeable about the new equipment. Set weekly meetings with her to track progress.

B Ask her to produce the report, and discuss its importance. Ask her for a deadline for completion. Give her the resources she thinks she needs. Periodically check with her to track progress.

C Tell her when the report is needed, and discuss its importance. Explain what the report should include. Outline steps the employee should take to learn more about the equipment. Listen to her concerns and use her ideas when possible. Plan weekly meetings to track her progress.

D Ask her to produce the report, and discuss its importance. Explore the barriers the employee feels must be removed and the strategies for removing them. Ask her to set a deadline for completion and periodically check with her to track progress.

2 This manager's task force has been working hard to complete its division-wide report. A new member has joined the group. He must present cost figures at the end of next week, but he knows nothing about the report requirements and format. He is excited about learning more about his role in the group. This manager would...

A Tell him exactly what is needed, and specify the format and requirements. Introduce him to other task-force members. Check with him frequently during the week to monitor his progress and to specify corrections.

B Ask him if there is anything he or she can do to help. Introduce him to other task-force members. Explore with him what he thinks he needs to get "up to speed" with the report. Check with him frequently during the week to see how he is doing.

C Specify the report format and information needed, and solicit his ideas. Introduce him to each task-force member. Check with him frequently during the week to see how the report is progressing and to help with modifications.

D Welcome him and introduce him to members of the task force who could help him. Check with him during the week to see how he is doing.

3 This manager has recently noticed a performance problem with an employee. He seems to show a "don't care" attitude. Only this manager's constant prodding has brought about task completion. The manager suspects this employee may not have enough expertise to complete the high-priority task that has been given him. This manager would...

A Specify the steps this employee needs to take and the desired outcomes. Clarify timelines and paperwork requirements. Frequently check to see if the task is progressing as it should.

B Specify the steps this employee needs to take and the desired outcomes. Ask for his ideas and incorporate them as appropriate. Ask him to share his feelings about this task assignment. Frequently check to see the task is progressing as it should.

C Involve this employee in problem solving for this task. Offer help and encourage him to use his ideas to complete the project. Ask him to share his feelings about the assignment. Frequently check to see that the task is progressing as it should.

D Let this employee know how important this task is. Ask him to outline his plan for completion and to send the manager a copy. Frequently check to see if the task is progressing as it should.

4 The composition of this manager's work group has changed because of company restructuring. Performance levels have dropped. Deadlines are being missed and the manager's boss is concerned. Group members want to improve their performance but need more knowledge and skills. This manager would...

A Ask the group to develop their own plan for improving performance. Be available to help them, if asked. Ask them what training they think they need to improve performance, and give them the resources they need. Continue to track performance.

B Discuss a plan to solve this problem. Ask the group for their input and include their ideas in the plan, if possible. Explain the rationale for the plan. Track performance to see how it is carried out.

C Outline the specific steps the group should follow to solve this problem. Be specific about the time requirements and the skills they need to learn. Continue to track performance.

D Help them determine a plan, and encourage them to be creative. Support their plan and continue to track performance.

5 Because of budget cuts, it is necessary to consolidate. A highly experienced department member has been asked to take charge of the consolidation. This person has worked in all areas of this manager's department. In the past, she has usually been eager to help. While this manager feels she is able to perform the assignment, the employee seems indifferent to the task. This manager would...

A Reassure her. Outline the steps she should take to handle this project. Ask for her ideas and incorporate them when possible, but make sure she follows the manager's general approach. Frequently check to see how things are going.

B Reassure her. Ask her to handle the project as she sees fit. Be patient, but be available to help. Frequently check to see what is being done.

C Reassure her. Ask her to determine the best way to approach the project. Help her develop options, and encourage her to use her own ideas. Frequently check to see how she is doing.

D Reassure her. Outline an overall plan and specify the steps she should follow. Frequently check to see how the steps are being implemented.

6 For the second time in a month, an employee's weekly progress reports have been incomplete and late. In the past year, he has submitted accurately completed reports on time. This is the first time this manager has spoken to him about this problem. This manager would...

A Tell him to improve the completeness and timeliness of his paperwork. Go over the areas that are incomplete. Make sure he knows what is expected and how to fill out each report section. Continue to track his performance.

B Ask him to turn in his paperwork on time and accurately, without pushing him. Continue to track his performance.

C Discuss time and completion standards with him. Listen to his concerns, but make sure he knows what is expected. Go over each report section, and answer any questions he may have. Use his ideas, if possible. Continue to track his performance.

D Ask him why the paperwork is incomplete. Listen to his concerns, and do what can be done to help him understand the importance of timeliness and completeness. Continue to track his performance.

7 A senior employee has been asked to take on a new project. In the past, his performance has been outstanding. The project he has been given is important to the future of this manager's work group. He is excited about the new assignment but doesn't know where to begin because he lacks project information. The manager's relationship with him is good. This manager would...

A Explain why this employee has the skills to do the job. Ask him what problems he anticipates and help him explore alternative solutions. Frequently stay in touch to support him.

B Specify how this employee should handle the project. Define the activities necessary to complete the job. Regularly check to see how things are going.

C Ask this employee for a plan for completing the project in two weeks. Ask him to send a copy for approval. Give him enough time to get started, without pushing him. Frequently offer support.

D Outline how the project should be handled, and solicit the employee's ideas and suggestions. Use his ideas when possible, but make sure the manager's general outline is followed. Regularly check to see how things are going.

8 A staff member is feeling insecure about a job that has been assigned to him. He is highly competent and this manager knows that this employee has the skills to successfully complete the task. The deadline for completion is near. This manager would...

A Let the employee know of his or her concerns about the impending deadline. Help him explore alternative action steps, and encourage him to use his own ideas. Frequently check with him to lend support.

B Discuss his or her concerns about the impending deadline. Outline an action plan for the employee to follow, and get his reactions to the plan. Modify the plan if possible but make sure the employee follows the general outline. Frequently check with him to see how things are going.

C Specify the reasons for on-time completion of the assignment. Outline the steps the employee should follow. Ask that the steps be followed. Frequently check to see how he is progressing.

D Ask the employee if there are any problems, but let him resolve the issue himself. Remind him of the impending deadline, without pushing him. Ask for an update in three days.

9 The staff has asked this manager to consider a change in their work schedule. Their changes make good sense and the manager is well aware of the need for change. Members are very competent and work well together. This manager would...

A Help them explore alternative scheduling possibilities. Be available to facilitate their group discussion. Support the plan they develop. Check to see how they implement their plan.

B Design the work schedule and explain the rationale behind the design. Listen to their reactions, ask for their ideas and use their recommendations when possible. Check to see how they carry out the schedule.

C Allow the staff to set a work schedule on their own. Let them implement their plan after the manager has approved it. Check with them at a later date to assess their progress.

D Design the work schedule and explain how it will work. Answer any questions they may have. Check to see that the schedule is followed.

10 Due to an organizational change, this manager has been assigned six new people whose performance has been declining over the past three months. They do not seem to have the task knowledge and skills to do their new jobs, and their attitudes have worsened because of the change. In a group meeting, this manager would...

A Make them aware of their three-month performance trend. Ask them to decide what to do about it and set a deadline for implementing their solution. Monitor their progress.

B Make them aware of their three-month performance trend. Specify the action steps they should follow. Give them constructive feedback on how to improve their performance. Continue to monitor performance.

C Make them aware of their three-month performance trend. Outline the steps they should follow. Explain why the steps are important, and seek their feedback. Use their ideas when possible, but make sure they follow the general approach. Continue to monitor performance.

D Make them aware of their three-month performance trend. Ask them why their performance is declining. Listen to their concerns and ideas. Help them create their own plan for improving performance. Track their performance.

11 A department member has had a fine performance record over the last 22 months. This employee is excited by the challenges of the upcoming year. Budgets and unit goals have not changed much from last year. In a meeting with him to discuss goals and an action plan for next year, this manager would...

A Ask this employee to submit an outline of his goals and an action plan for next year for the manager's approval. Tell the employee to expect a call if there are any questions.

B Prepare a list of goals and an action plan for the employee to accomplish next year. Send it to him and meet with him to see if he has any questions.

C Prepare a list of goals and an action plan for the employee to achieve next year. Meet with him to discuss his reactions and suggestions. Modify the plan while listening to his ideas, but make the final decisions.

D Ask this employee to submit an outline of his goals and an action plan for next year. Review the goals and plan with him. Listen to his ideas and help him explore alternatives. Let him make the final decisions on his goals and plan.

12 This manager's unit has had an excellent performance record over the past two years. However, they have recently experienced three major setbacks due to factors beyond their control. Their performance and morale have drastically dropped and this manager's boss is concerned. In a group meeting, this manager would...

A Discuss the recent setbacks. Give them the specific steps they should follow to improve their performance. Continue to track performance.

B Ask them how they feel about the recent setbacks. Listen to their concerns, and encourage and help them explore their ideas for improving performance. Continue to track performance.

C Discuss the recent setbacks. Clarify the steps they should follow to improve performance. Listen to their ideas and incorporate them, if possible. Emphasize results. Encourage them to keep trying. Continue to track performance.

D Discuss the recent setbacks, without pressuring them. Ask them to set a deadline to improve performance and to support each other along the way. Continue to track performance.

LBAII

13 This manager was recently assigned a new employee who will perform an important job in the unit. Even though this employee is inexperienced, she is enthusiastic and feels she has the confidence to do the job. This manager would...

A Allow her time to determine what the job requires and how to do it. Let her know why the job is important. Ask her to be in touch if she needs help. Track her progress.

B Specify the desired results and timelines. Clearly define the steps the employee should take to achieve results. Show her how to do the job. Track her progress.

C Discuss the desired results and timelines. Clearly define the steps she can take to achieve the results. Explain why these steps are necessary and get her ideas. Use her ideas if possible, but make sure the manager's general plan is followed. Track her performance.

D Ask her how she plans to tackle this job. Help her explore the problems she anticipates by generating possible alternative solutions. Encourage her to carry out her plan. Be available to listen to her concerns. Track her performance.

14 This manager's boss has requested a seven percent increase in the unit's output. This manager knows this can be done, but it will require his or her active involvement. To free the manager's time, the task of developing a new cost-control system must be reassigned. The person chosen has had considerable experience with cost-control systems, but is slightly unsure of doing this task on her own. This manager would...

A Assign her the task and listen to her concerns. Express confidence in her skills to handle this assignment. Help her explore alternative approaches if she thinks it would be helpful. Encourage and support her by providing needed resources. Track her progress.

B Assign her the task and listen to her concerns. Discuss the steps she should follow to complete the task. Ask for her ideas and suggestions. After incorporating her ideas, if possible, make sure she follows the manager's general approach. Track her progress.

C Assign her the task. Listen to her concerns. but let her resolve the issue. Give her time to adjust, and avoid asking for results right away. Track her progress.

D Assign her the task. Listen to her concerns, and minimize her feelings of insecurity by telling her specifically how to handle this task. Outline the steps to be taken. Closely monitor her progress.

15 This manager's boss has asked to have someone assigned to serve on a company-wide task force. This task force will make recommendations for restructuring the company's compensation plan. This manager has chosen a highly productive employee, who knows how her co-workers feel about the existing compensation plan. She has successfully led another unit task force. She wants the assignment. This manager would...

A Give this employee the assignment, but tell her how she should represent her co-workers' point-of-view. Specify that she give the manager a progress report within two days of each task-force meeting.

B Ask this employee to accept the assignment. Help her develop the point-of-view she will take on the task force. Periodically check with her.

C Give this employee the assignment. Discuss what she should do to ensure her co-workers' perspective is considered by the task force. Ask for her ideas and make sure she follows the manager's general approach. Ask her for a report after every task-force meeting.

D Give this employee the assignment. Ask for updates as things progress. Periodically check with her

16 Due to a family illness, this manager has been forced to miss two meetings of a committee he or she directs. Upon attending the next meeting, this manager finds that the committee is operating well and making progress toward completing its goals. All group members come prepared, participate and seem to be enthusiastic about their progress. This manager is unsure of what his or her role should be. This manager would...

A Thank the committee members for their work so far. Let the group continue to work as it has during the last two meetings.

B Thank the committee members for their work so far. Set the agenda for the next meeting. Begin to direct the group's activities.

C Thank the committee members for their work so far. Make the members feel important and involved. Try to solicit alternative ideas and suggestions.

D Thank the committee members for their work so far. Set the agenda for the next meeting, but make sure to solicit their ideas and suggestions.

17 This manager's staff is very competent and works well on their own. Their enthusiasm is high because of a recent success. Their performance as a group is outstanding. Now, this manager must set unit goals for next year. In a group meeting, this manager would...

A Praise them for last year's results. Involve the group in problem solving and goal setting for next year. Encourage them to be creative and help them explore alternatives. Track the implementation of their plan.

B Praise them for last year's results. Challenge them by setting the goals for next year. Outline the action steps necessary to accomplish these goals. Track implementation of the plan.

C Praise them for last year's results. Ask them to set the goals for next year, and define the action plan needed to accomplish these goals. Be available to contribute when asked. Track the implementation of their plan.

D Praise them for last year's results. Set the goals for next year and outline the action steps necessary to accomplish these goals. Solicit the group's ideas and suggestions and incorporate them if possible. Track implementation of their plan.

18 This manager and his or her boss know that the manager's department needs a new set of work procedures to improve long-term performance. Department members are eager to make some changes but, because of their specialized functions, they lack the knowledge and skills for understanding the "big picture." This manager would...

A Outline the new procedures. Organize and direct the implementation. Involve the group in a discussion of alternatives. Use their suggestions when possible, but see that they follow the general outline. Track their use of the new procedures.

B Outline and demonstrate the new procedures. Closely direct the group in their initial use of the new procedures. Track their use.

C Involve the group in a discussion of what the new procedures should be. Encourage their initiative and creativity in developing the new procedures. Help them explore possible alternatives. Support their use of the new procedures. Closely track results.

D Ask the group to formulate and implement a set of new procedures. Answer any informational concerns, but give them the responsibility for the task. Closely track the use of the new procedures.

19 This manager was recently appointed head of the division. Since taking over, there has been a drop in performance. There have been changes in technology, and this manager's staff has not mastered the new skills and techniques. Worst of all, they do not seem to be motivated to learn these skills. In a group meeting, this manager would...

A Discuss the staff's drop in performance. Listen to their concerns. Ask for their solutions for improving performance. Express faith in their strategies. Emphasize their past efforts, but track performance as they carry out their strategies.

B Outline the necessary corrective actions they should take. Explore alternatives and incorporate their ideas. Modify the plan if appropriate, but see that they implement it. Track their performance.

C Tell them about the drop in performance. Ask them to analyze the problem, and draft a set of action steps for approval. Set a deadline for the plan. Track its implementation.

D Outline and direct the necessary corrective actions they should take. Define roles, responsibilities and standards. Frequently check to see if their performance is improving.

20 This manager has noticed that an inexperienced employee is not properly completing certain tasks. She has submitted inaccurate and incomplete reports. She is not enthusiastic about this task and often thinks paperwork is a waste of time. This manager would...

A Let the employee know that she is submitting inaccurate and incomplete reports. Discuss the steps she should take and clarify why these steps are important. Ask for her suggestions, but make sure she follows the manager's general outline.

B Let the employee know that she is submitting inaccurate and incomplete reports. Ask her to set and meet her own paperwork deadlines. Give her more time to do the job properly. Monitor her performance.

C Let the employee know that she is submitting inaccurate and incomplete reports. Ask her what she plans to do about it. Help her develop a plan for solving her problems. Monitor her performance.

D Let the employee know that she is submitting inaccurate and incomplete reports. Specify the steps she should take with appropriate deadlines. Show her how to complete the reports. Monitor her performance.

APPENDIX C

COVER LETTER TO VOCATIONAL TEACHERS

Date:_____

Dear Vocational Educator:

Enclosed you will find two educational research surveys, the CFK School Climate profile and the LBA II (Leadership Behavior Analysis). These surveys are designed to evaluate administrators. Your input as a teaching professional is valued and may help change leadership skills in higher education for the better.

The CFK School Climate profile is intended to determine how you <u>feel</u> about several aspects important to your school's effectiveness. Secondly, the LBA II (Leadership Behavior Analysis) survey asks you to rate your <u>immediate</u> supervisor and give your perceptions of how your supervisor might handle the various situations presented. Be <u>honest</u>! This information will not be used to single out any school or program. No names are used. The surveys are confidential and complete anonymity will be maintained.

APPENDIX D

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS II
Scoring Form A

LEADER BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS II™

Kenneth Blanchard, Ronald Hambleton,
Douglas Forsyth, Drea Zigarmi

SCORING-A

DIRECTIONS:

1. Record your answers from the Leader Behavior Analysis II form in the columns labeled S1, S2, S3 or S4 under Style Flexibility. For each situation (1-20), circle the letter that corresponds to your answer.
2. Once this step is completed, repeat the procedure in the columns labeled P, F, G or E under Style Effectiveness.
3. Add the number of circled letters in each of the eight columns on the scoring sheet, and enter the sums in the boxes labeled "Totals."

btd

Blanchard Training and Development, Inc.
125 State Place, Escondido, CA 92029
(800) 728-6000   (619) 489-5005

LBAII™

STYLE FLEXIBILITY

1 The column headings under Style Flexibility correspond to the four leadership styles.

S1 - High Directive, Low Supportive Behavior
S2 - High Directive, High Supportive Behavior
S3 - High Supportive, Low Directive Behavior
S4 - Low Supportive, Low Directive Behavior

The column (S1, S2, S3 and S4) with the largest number of circled letters is your primary leadership style. Enter this number in the circle in the appropriate quadrant on the

Primary Style Matrix. For example, assume that the column with the largest number of circled items is column S3. If eight items have been circled, you would enter the number 8 in the S3 circle on the Primary Style Matrix. If you have a tie for your primary style (two or more columns with the same number of items circled), enter the numbers from each of these styles in the appropriate quadrants.

2 Any column with four or more circled letters, other than your primary style(s), indicates a secondary leadership style. Enter this number(s) in the appropriate triangle(s) on the Secondary Style Matrix.

	S1	S2	S3	S4
1	A	C	D	B
2	A	C	B	D
3	A	B	C	D
4	C	B	D	A
5	D	A	C	B
6	A	C	D	B
7	B	D	A	C
8	C	B	A	D
9	D	B	A	C
10	B	C	D	A
11	B	C	D	A
12	A	C	B	D
13	B	C	D	A
14	D	B	A	C
15	A	C	B	D
16	B	D	C	A
17	B	D	A	C
18	B	A	C	D
19	D	B	A	C
20	D	A	C	B

Totals

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN

5 □ + 5 □ + 5 □ + 5 □ = Subtotal □

Subtract the number in the Subtotal box from 30 to get your

Style Flexibility Score □

Primary Style Matrix

Secondary Style Matrix
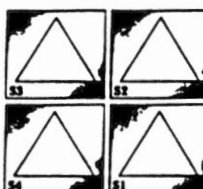
Developing Style Matrix

Style Flexibility Graph

High — 30
— 25
— 20
— 15
— 10
— 5
Low — 0
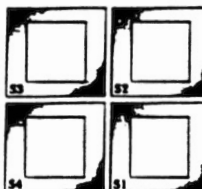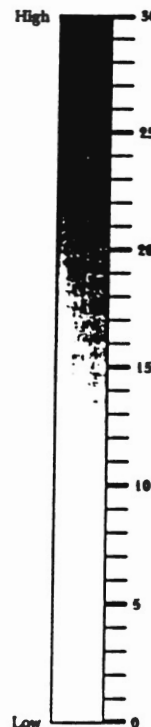
3 Any column with less than four circled letters should be considered a style you may want to develop. Enter this number(s) in the appropriate box(es) on the Developing Style Matrix.

STYLE FLEXIBILITY SCORE

1 To obtain your Style Flexibility Score, calculate the difference between 5 and each total. Subtract in either direction. **Disregard the plus or minus sign.** Enter these numbers in the shaded boxes at the bottom of the Style Flexibility columns. For example, if the total in column S2 is 2,
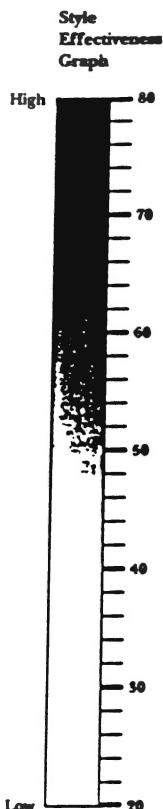
then the difference between 5 and 2 would be 3, and a 3 should be entered in the box. If the total is 6, then the difference between 5 and 6 would be 1, and a 1 should be entered in the box.

2 Add all four numbers in the shaded boxes and enter this sum in the Subtotal box. Subtract the Subtotal from 30 and enter this number in the Style Flexibility Score box. Scores can range from 0-30. Draw an arrow at the corresponding number along the Style Flexibility Graph. A lower score indicates low style flexibility, which means that you select the same one or two styles for every situation. A higher score indicates high style flexibility, which means that you use all of the four styles more or less equally.

STYLE EFFECTIVENESS

To score high on style effectiveness, you must not only show a high level of flexibility in style selection, but you must also choose the leadership style that is most appropriate for each situation. The Style Effectiveness columns are headed by poor (P), fair (F), good (G) or excellent (E) ratings. The totals at the bottom of these columns indicate how often you choose a poor, fair, good or excellent answer.

STYLE EFFECTIVENESS SCORE

1 To obtain your Style Effectiveness Score, multiply each total entered in the P, F, G and E columns by the number below each total. Enter the products in the shaded boxes at the bottom of the Style Effectiveness columns. Add all four numbers and enter the sum in the Style Effectiveness Score box. Scores range from 20-80. A lower score indicates low style effectiveness, which means that you chose a greater number of fair or poor leader style choices for the 20 situations. A higher score suggests high effectiveness, which means that you chose a greater number of good and excellent leader style choices.

2 Draw an arrow at the corresponding number along the Style Effectiveness Graph.

	STYLE EFFECTIVENESS			
	P	**F**	**G**	**E**
1	B 4	D 3	A	C
2	D 4	B 3	C	A
3	D 4	C 3	A	B
4	A 4	D 3	B	C
5	D 1	B 4	A	C
6	A 1	C 2	B	D
7	C 4	A 3	D	B
8	C 1	B 2	D	A
9	D 1	B 2	A	C
10	A 4	B 1	D	C
11	B 1	C 2	D	A
12	A 1	C 2	D	B
13	A 4	D 3	C	B
14	D 1	B 2	C	A
15	A 1	C 2	B	D
16	B 1	D 2	C	A
17	B 1	D 2	A	C
18	D 4	C 3	A	B
19	C 4	A 3	D	B
20	B 4	C 3	D	A
Totals				

MULTIPLY BY

i 1 3 4

□ + □ + □ + □ = □

Style Effectiveness Score

Style Effectiveness Graph

High — 80

— 70

— 60

— 50

— 40

— 30

Low — 20

Leader Behavior Analysis II™

Style Diagnosis

To better understand how you might improve your effectiveness score, it is helpful to examine the appropriateness of your style selections. The numbers in subscript in the poor and fair Style Effectiveness columns are the leadership styles you chose when you circled responses A, B, C or D. Record the number of Style 1 choices you made in the poor and fair columns and place that number in the oval in the S1 quadrant on the Style Diagnosis Matrix. Repeat this procedure for Style 2, Style 3 and Style 4 choices within the poor and fair columns. A pattern of four or more answers in the fair and poor categories in one leadership style means that you may not be taking the development level of the person or group with whom you are working into consideration when choosing a leadership style. Go back to your LBAII Self form, and reanalyze the situations to see if you can better understand why you may be using those styles inappropriately.

Style Diagnosis Matrix

APPENDIX E

PERMISSION REQUEST FOR LBA II

August 14, 1991

Ms. Cathy Cowles
Blanchard Training and Development, Inc.
125 State Place
Escondedo, CA 92025

Dear Ms. Cowles;

As a student of the Situational Leadership Theory and a Doctoral Candidate in Occupational and Adult Education Administration at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater, Oklahoma, I am requesting your assistance. I hope to complete my degree in December of 1991 and so am currently involved in writing my doctoral dissertation. In order to continue with my research, I would like to ask for permission to use the Blanchard Training and Development, Incorporated's 1985 version of the LBA II Other and LBA II Scoring instruments.
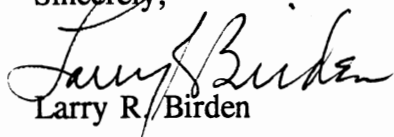
My dissertation title is "Leadership Styles of Occupational Supervisors and School Climate as Perceived by Teachers." Although Oklahoma is known nationwide for its outstanding occupational education schools, there is always room for improvement. The research will include surveying teachers about their perception of occupational education supervisor's leadership styles. I believe the LBA II Other and LBA II Scoring instrument(s) will help to explicate an additional leadership training that may be necessary through workshops, seminars, or high education to improve occupational leadership practices.

The cost of these instruments is not excessive, however, cost becomes a factor that I cannot overcome as an individual when I plan to survey well over 300 teachers. If you will grant me permission to duplicate these instruments, I will provide you with the results of the research and any other information you might request.

I have no intention of selling, charging fees, or profiting either directly or indirectly from commercial use of the afore-mentioned instruments. These instruments will be used strictly for educational research. Blanchard Training and Development, Incorporated will receive full credit for their contribution to the research.

If you have any questions, or if you need additional information in order to make this decision, please do not hesitate to contact me. Thank you for your consideration in this matter.

Sincerely,

Larry R. Birden

APPENDIX F

PERMISSION APPROVAL LETTER

Blanchard Training
and Development, Inc.

bTd

125 State Place
Escondido, CA 92029
619 489-5005

September 9, 1991

Mr. Larry R. Birden
340 Royal Oak
Norman, OK 73069

Dear Larry:

Thank you for your letter of August 14. We will be glad to grant you permission to use the LBA II Self and Other under the following conditions:

1. That any dissertations, papers, etc. written from this theoretical framework and using these instruments give citations and references as to where the instruments can be obtained.

2. That you do not sell or make economic gain from selling the instruments for popular consumption and that any copies of the instruments used by clearly marked "For research only."

3. That Blanchard Training and Development receive a full bound copy of any dissertation or monograph written concerning this research.

4. That Blanchard Training and Development be allowed to pass on your research to others who might be doing similar research as a way of supporting those who are working hard to further the field of education.

We do not give permission to Xerox the LBA II Self or Other, but we will provide them to you at no cost. Please send us a copy of your proposal for your dissertation so we understand the focus of your research.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

Dr. Drea Zigarmi
Research Coordinator

DZ:JK

APPENDIX G

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT OF PERMISSION GRANTED
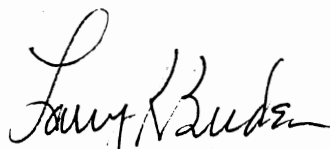
September 20, 1991

Dear Dr. Zigarmi:

Thank you so much for your positive response to my letter dated August 14, 1991, requesting permission to use the LBA II Other and LBA II Scoring Instrument for educational research. I agree to the conditions listed in your letter dated September 9, 1991. The conditions I agree to are listed below:

1. I will use appropriate citations and give credit to Blanchard Training and Development for the use of the instruments and I will supply information as to where these instruments can be obtained.

2. I will not sell or use these instruments for economic gain. Further, I will clearly mark "For Research Only" on each instrument.

3. Upon completion of my dissertation, I will supply to Blanchard Training and Development a full bound copy of my dissertation at no cost.

4. I will give permission to Blanchard Training and Development to use my research to further the field of education, or as Blanchard Training and Development deems appropriate.

I plan to sample at least 400 individual teachers in order to meet the criteria needed to make inferences to the general population.

Please find enclosed my research proposal as requested. It is critical that I receive the instruments as soon as possible. Thank you once again for your outstanding support of this educational research project.

Sincerely,

Larry R. Birden
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX H

CFK, LTD., SCHOOL CLIMATE SUMMARY

CFK, Ltd., School Climate Profile

General Climate Factors
For _____ School
Based on data summarized from _____ respondents
(State role group)

A. General Climate Factors

	Almost Never 5				Occasionally 10				Frequently 15				Almost Always 20

1. Respect

2. Trust

3. High Morale

4. Opportunities for Input

5. Continuous Academic and

   Social Growth

6. Cohesiveness

7. School Reward

8. Caring

NOTE: Solid line indicates mean "What Is" scores. Broken line indicates mean "What Should Be" scores.

VITA

Larry Ronald Birden

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR STYLES OF ADMINISTRATORS AND
SCHOOL CLIMATE IN AREA VOCATIONAL TECHNICAL SCHOOLS
IN OKLAHOMA AS PERCEIVED BY TEACHERS

Major Field: Occupational and Adult Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, December 6, 1946, the
son of Lawrence and Myrtle L. Birden. Married Cherrie Jane
Clinkenbeard, June 8, 1968.

Education: Graduated from Norman High School, Norman,
Oklahoma, in May, 1965; received Bachelor of Science Degree in
Education from the University of Oklahoma, May, 1970; received a
Master of Education Degree in Secondary School Administration from
the University of Oklahoma in July, 1978. Completed requirements for
the Doctor of Education degree from Oklahoma State University,
Stillwater, Oklahoma in May, 1992.

Professional Experience: First Lieutenant, U.S. Army, September, 1970, to
August, 1974; Special Education Teacher (EMH), Central Mid-High
School, Norman, Oklahoma, August 1974 - June 1980. Curriculum
Coordinator, Instructional Services Center, Moore-Norman Area
Vocational Technical School, July 1980 - April 1991; Director of
Program Development and Cooperative Education, Oklahoma City
Community College, April 1991 - to present.

Professional Organizations: American Vocational Association, Oklahoma
Vocational Association, National Cooperative Education Association,
Oklahoma Cooperative Education Association, and Oklahoma Association
of Community and Junior Colleges.