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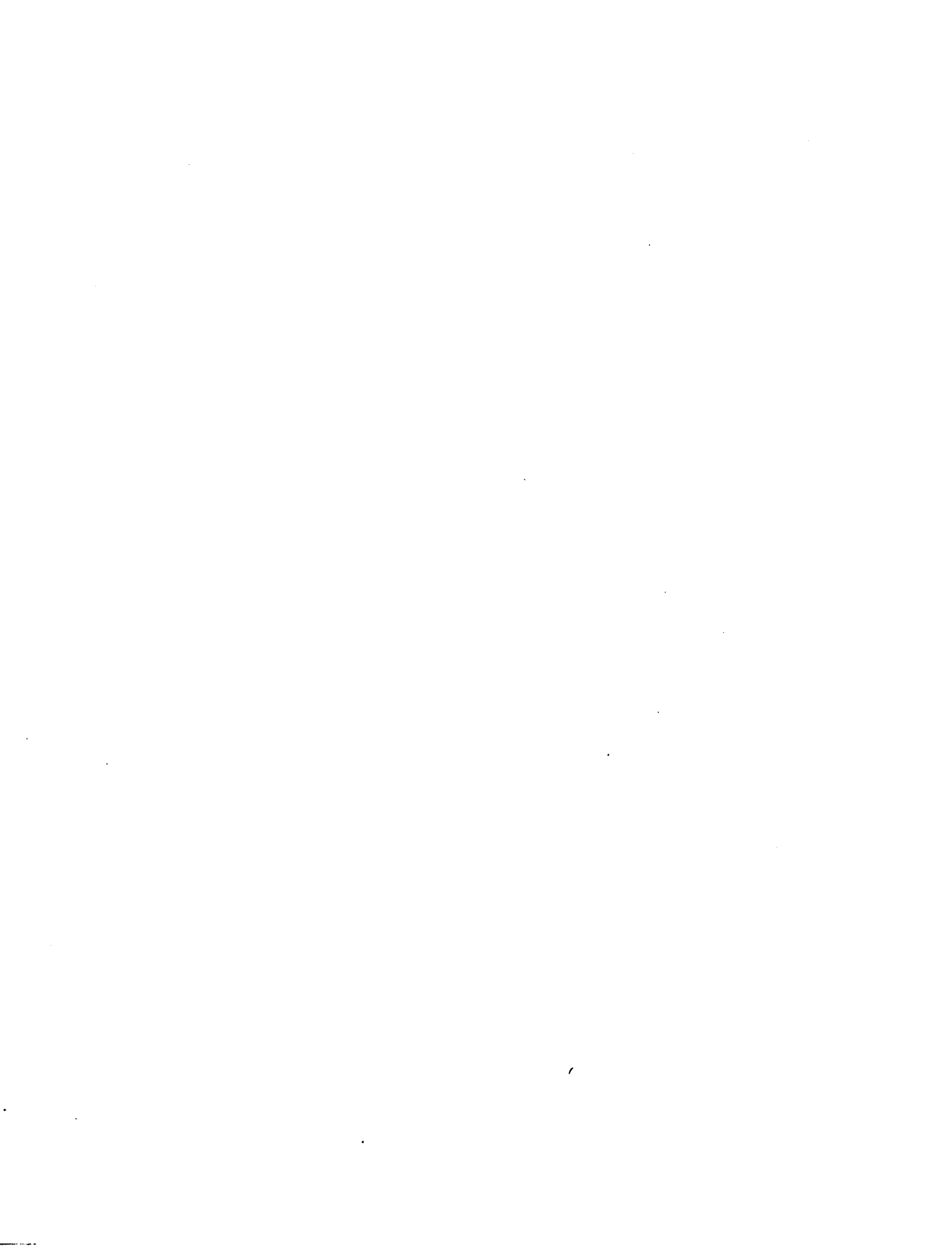
**Leadership behavior of selected community college presidents
and situational characteristics of their institutions as variables
affecting academic program evaluation**

Mann, Rebecca Smith, Ed.D.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1992

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LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR OF SELECTED COMMUNITY COLLEGE PRESIDENTS
AND SITUATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THEIR INSTITUTIONS
AS VARIABLES AFFECTING ACADEMIC PROGRAM EVALUATION

by

Rebecca S. Mann

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
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1992

Approved by



Dissertation Adviser

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APPROVAL PAGE

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MANN, REBECCA S., Ed.D. Leadership Behavior of Selected Community College Presidents and Situational Characteristics of Their Institutions as Variables Affecting Academic Program Evaluation. (1992) Directed by Dr. Bert A. Goldman. 133 pp.

The purpose of this study was to compare the leadership behavior of presidents of North Carolina community colleges who had developed and implemented high quality program evaluation with those presidents who had not and to compare the degree of situational control produced in their respective community colleges. Of the 58 community colleges in North Carolina, 40 had presidents who had held their positions for at least 3 years. These were selected for the study.

To provide a measure of leadership behavior, the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire was sent to subordinates of each president. Since Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model provided a basis for describing effectiveness of leader behavior, Fiedler's Situational Control Scales were sent to each president. The behaviors identified by these two instruments formed the independent variables. The incidence of high quality academic program evaluation, the dependent variable, was determined by means of a survey administered to the individual in each community college charged with the responsibility of program evaluation. The design procedure was based upon four research questions with predictions stated in seven hypotheses.

Significant in predicting the direction of high quality program evaluation were the following findings: (a) low relationship orientation rather than high relationship

orientation; (b) high task orientation and low relationship orientation rather than low task orientation and high relationship orientation; (c) high situational control rather than moderate situational control; and (d) high task orientation and high situational control rather than high relationship orientation and moderate situational control.

Presidents in this study in North Carolina community colleges where program evaluation has been mandated by the legislature may have selected leadership behaviors that are goal-oriented, directive, goal-facilitating, with communication being primarily task-related to achieve high quality program evaluation. These presidents also perceive themselves as leading with a high degree of control in situations that are favorable to them as leaders, and their subordinates have responded to measures with descriptors of the presidents that are low on relationship orientation and high on task orientation. A practical implication is that leaders need to be aware of the demands of a situation, realizing that the effectiveness of the leader is contingent upon those demands.

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

The impetus for academic program evaluation in higher education has come from various sectors of society with much of it being initiated, supported, or mandated by the government. State as well as federal agencies increasingly hold higher education officials accountable for their use of funds. Such accountability involves some level of assessment or evaluation of performance (Englert, 1986). Hammons (1987) ascribes failure in the search for excellence in higher education to failure to evaluate programs periodically and systematically.

Demands for accountability and quality in higher education have arisen from both governmental and consumer sectors and have targeted the community college. Sullins (1981) writes: "while designing programs and services to better [sic] meet the needs of the citizens, many [community] colleges have failed to maintain high standards of quality for student performance" (p. 29). The open-door policy of admitting high-risk students, giving them more chances to succeed, and trying new courses has led to lower expectations and lower academic standards on the part of community college educators, making these colleges vulnerable to their critics.

Legislators, citizens, faculty, and students are rejecting the lower standards of quality; this rejection has led to an increased need to evaluate academic programs.

With an increase in the strength of state governments and educational systems has come the complicating factor of a decline in the strength of leadership on college campuses (Fisher, 1984). Further, the recent democratization of society and campuses, the internal constraints of powerful faculty, student, and administrative groups, and external constraints of governing boards have added to this decline (Fisher, 1984). Even though policies of the community colleges, such as the open-door policy, have created more opportunities for students' academic success, the fruits of these opportunities may never be realized unless higher academic standards are restored.

The leadership of the college president is a crucial factor in the search for excellence at the community college. Strong leaders are needed to develop systematic, periodic assessment of programs. Development of plans for evaluation, implementation of the evaluation, and decision-making based on the evaluation require effective leadership. Although the community college ideals of access and excellence are worthy, they challenge the colleges to serve diverse needs with fewer resources (McClenney & McClenney, 1988). Calls for strengthening the quality of higher education, such as that of the

National Commission on Higher Education Issues (1982), demand that all public and independent institutions which receive direct state support submit their programs to a rigorous process of evaluation. Those presidents who have been able to implement evaluation programs in the presence of the current deteriorating economy, dwindling enrollments, bureaucratic red tape, and declining student skills may have engaged in behaviors that have led to the evaluation's successful implementation.

Conceptual Base

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) identify the three main components of the leadership process as the leader, the follower, and the situation. Through a scrutiny of the interplay of the variables in the leadership process (i.e., leader, follower, situation), contingencies that will lead to predictability of leader behavior can be found. Examination of leader, follower, and situation as variables in the leadership process is typical of situational approaches to the study of leadership. One of the situational theories is Fiedler's Contingency Theory which holds that the effectiveness of an organization depends upon (a) the personality of the leader and (b) the degree to which the situation gives the leader power, control, and influence over the situation (Stevens & Williams, 1988). Contingency Theory, supported by numerous empirical studies (Chemers & Skrzpek, 1972;

Fiedler, 1971; Sashkin, 1972), allows for the complexity of the environment of higher education. The evaluation of academic programs at community colleges presents a situation in which contingency theory calls for a task-motivated, leader-controlled consultive process in order to protect the quality of the decision to evaluate and eventually to gain acceptance by those who are expected to deliver academic quality and student learning (Baker, 1984).

Related to an investigation of a possible relationship between leader behavior and group situation and an outcome such as evaluation of academic programs is Hall and Alfred's (1985) Contingency Model for Leadership Effectiveness which contributes to the conceptual base provided by Fiedler (1967). The objective of the Hall and Alfred study was

to examine interactive leadership relationships between community college presidents and the principal internal governance groups with which they must work--their boards of trustees and their administrative cabinets. (Hall & Alfred, 1985, p. 36)

The model for analysis of presidential leadership style with these campus constituencies is based on Fiedler's contingency theory in which "leadership style" is a relatively fixed personal characteristic. The situation of the group is subject to change through alteration of one or more of its characteristics (leader/member relations, task structure, position power of the president). Hall and Alfred's model is built on the underlying concept of Fiedler's theory that

"leader success is highly dependent upon the 'match' between leadership style and the situation presented by the group or groups that the leader seeks to lead" (Hall & Alfred, 1985, p. 37). The two principal interacting variables in the model are the style of the leader (i.e., task orientation or relationship orientation) and the situation presented by the group(s) (i.e., president, vice president for academic programs, and faculty) in which the leader is immersed.

The group situation of academic program evaluation in community colleges is comprised of leader/member (or follower) relations, task structure, and position power of the president. Situational favorableness is defined as the degree to which the leader has control and influence and, therefore, the feeling that he/she can determine the outcomes of the group interaction. Situational favorableness is measured on the basis of leader/member relations, task structure, and position power. The situation is more favorable to the leader, giving the leader more control and influence, if the members of the group support the leader, if the leader knows exactly what to do and how to do it, and if the organization gives him/her the means to reward and punish his/her subordinates. The followers or members of the group include the vice-president for academic programs and faculty. Fiedler's model, presented in the review of the literature, predicts that the effectiveness of leader behavior is contingent upon

the demands of a situation in which position power, task structure, and relations between leader and the group members are of major importance. Fiedler's theory has generalized that leaders who possess a task-oriented leadership style are more likely to be effective in situations which are either highly favorable or highly unfavorable to the leader. The task-oriented leaders tend to perform most effectively in situations in which their control and influence are very high or very low. On the other hand, relationship-oriented leaders tend to perform best in situations in which their control and influence are moderate (Fiedler, 1977b). Using Fiedler's model as a conceptual base, the researcher predicts that, depending upon the demands of the three situational factors (i.e., leader/member relations, task structure, and position power), community college presidents who have implemented high-quality academic program evaluation are more likely to display task-oriented leadership behavior than those who have not implemented high quality academic program evaluation.

When the president of a community college acts to implement evaluation, the environment of the organization shifts from static to dynamic. Decision-making regarding academic matters will then no longer follow an established pattern but will become unstructured (Baker, 1984). In the framework of contingency theory, "situational favorableness" indicates the degree to which leaders have control and influence and,

therefore, feel that they can determine the outcomes of the group interaction. Situational favorableness is measured on the basis of leader-member relations, task structure, and position power (Fiedler, 1977b). In a favorable situation, the president has control and influence, and, therefore, feels that he/she can determine the outcomes of the group interaction. These psychological and organizational determinates of the president's behavior, operating in a favorable situation, will have influenced the implementation of evaluation. The individual, the president, acts within an organization, the community college, under the demand or pressure of society to evaluate academic programs.

Consumers have been prompted to search for definitions of quality in the aftermath of declining enrollments in higher education and the resulting retrenchment in institutions. Since the United States' model of regional accreditation does not provide a ranking of institutions that would suggest relative quality, attention has shifted to actual learning of students as an indication of quality (Penny, 1986). The issue of quality beyond the definition of accrediting agencies must be confronted and answered to the satisfaction of demand for public accountability. Presidents of universities, 4-year colleges, and 2-year colleges find themselves in a no-growth environment, according to a nationwide survey (Palmer, 1984). In this environment presidents turn

to evaluating college academic programs as part of their effort to revitalize and maintain the institutions in the present environment of limited resources.

To meet demands for determining quality, organizational characteristics should be examined. Several distinct characteristics that set an educational institution apart from other types of organizations have been identified. Its technology is not well-defined as it serves clients with disparate needs. Decision-making is highly diffuse since professional faculty and administrators maintain control within their own professions, thus causing the process to be fragmented. The institution is vulnerable to influences from the external environment such as legislatures, state agencies, and special interest groups. The students have greater influence over decisions than do clients in most other organizations. Funding by a third party adds external control to decision-making (Baldrige, cited in Baker, 1984). Unless situational control by the president is present, problems can result. Students with diverse needs can become pigeon-holed into standard programs, faculty can lack knowledge of the academic and psychological development of students, and the college can become powerless to meet the changing demands of its students. The president must set in motion a method of determining how much students are learning and what the value of that learning is to society (Baker, 1984). Thus, the role of the

president becomes a key factor in the implementation of an ongoing evaluation of programs in community colleges.

Basic Assumptions

A basic assumption of this study is that the use of the contingency model offers one method of examining the variables of situational control (high, medium, or low), orientation of the president (task or relationship), and evaluation of academic programs in community colleges. The method has been rigorously tested in a large variety of groups, including high school basketball teams, student surveying parties, boards of directors of small corporations, army tank crews, gasoline service station managers, and crews of open-hearth steel shops (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). Other groups (Fiedler, 1971) include an electronics firm, public health teams, leaders in church groups, executives in a development workshop, West Point cadets, student nurses, teams in the Belgian Navy, and Japanese students. Past validations of the model have been reviewed by Strube and Garcia (1981) in a meta-analytic investigation, and the model has been found to be extremely robust in predicting group performance. Fiedler's model will provide an appropriate framework for the study of community college presidents, a group to which Fiedler's model has not been applied in relation to the task of academic program evaluation. Hall's study (1983) focused on community college presidents in relation to boards of trustees and

administrative cabinets. This study will focus on community college presidents in relation to vice presidents for academic affairs and faculty.

The framework of the present study is described as conservative; that is, the framework tends to preserve existing order, regarding radical approaches with some caution. Hunt (1984) points out that the conservative approach to leadership studies emphasizes "doing more rigorously what is already being done or extending and refining current models" (p. 130). The radical approach argues for a paradigm shift with new methods of research. Attribution theory, for example, sees leadership as being in the eye of the beholder. Charismatic leadership, another approach, is viewed as consisting of force of personal abilities that leave a profound effect on followers. Hunt (1984) predicts that there will be a crossing over of conservative and radical views in leadership studies; thus, the more radical approaches will be included in the review of the literature.

Definitions

In this study, effective leadership is defined as "successful influence by the leader that results in goal attainment by the influenced followers" (Bass, 1981, p. 10). Defining leadership this way is appropriate to the study since it views implementation of evaluation as attainment of a goal.

Leadership behavior is defined as those specific, concrete behaviors in which leaders engage. In the 1950s two reliable dimensions of leader behavior were identified: one dimension related to building relationships and the other to fulfillment of a goal or task. The first dimension, Consideration, includes factors of interpersonal warmth, concern for feelings, and two-way communication. The second, Initiation of Structure, includes orientation toward the product, directiveness, goal facilitation, and task-related communication (Chemers, 1984). Behaviors of leaders will be classified according to these two dimensions. The term "consideration" will be referred to as "relationship orientation" for convenience, but it is not to be confused with other uses of the term in the literature. The term "initiation of structure" is referred to as "task orientation" and is not to be confused with other definitions of task orientation.

For this study, "situation" is defined as the group formed by the president, vice-president for academic affairs, and faculty. The faculty to be studied will be limited to department heads who have had contact with the president in his/her decision-making role and who have observed leadership traits, especially in relation to program evaluation. "Task" is defined as the daily operation of the community college.

Situational characteristics are defined as parameters of a given situation in which the most important factors

are (a) the leader's position power; (b) the structure of the task; and (c) the interpersonal relationship between leader and member or follower (Fiedler, 1967). Fiedler (1977b) found that no one leadership style fits in all situations; rather style needs to vary according to the degree of control the situation demands. The degree to which the situation provides the leader with control and influence determines "situational favorableness" (Fiedler, 1977b). Situational control can be computed by combining scores on three scales: leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. The range of these combined scores forms three zones: high control, moderate control, and low control. In high control situations, task accomplishment is assured by a clear task and a cooperative group; thus, an effective style is a calm, relaxed task-oriented leader with a strong emphasis on task accomplishment. In moderate control situations, the result of an ambiguous task or an uncooperative group calls for a more open, considerate, and participative style with a relationship-oriented leader. In low control situations, a firm, directive leadership style is needed, which the task-oriented leader can provide (Chemers, 1987).

In addition, the external environment and its effect on an organization will be considered. The circumstances contained in the external environment can have an effect on an organization; therefore, the location of an institution,

for example, can have an effect on the presence of evaluation of academic programs in community colleges. When evaluation of programs is required by a state legislature or by an accrediting agency, the external environment has changed in ways beyond the control of an organization, and this is a form of social change.

Program evaluation is defined as the assessment of a complex of people, materials, and organization which makes up a particular educational program that has limited generalizability across time and geography (Worthen & Sanders, 1987). Goals are not mentioned in order to include goal-free evaluations within the scope of the definition.

High quality evaluation is defined as the degree to which program evaluation at a given community college is attempting to follow the organized statement of principles for sound educational evaluation (Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation, 1981). This statement includes principles for evaluation based on utility (whether an evaluation serves the practical information needs of a given audience), feasibility (whether an evaluation is operable in an actual setting, consuming no more materials and personnel time than necessary), propriety (whether the rights of persons affected are protected against unlawful or unethical acts), and accuracy (whether an evaluation has produced sound information). These standards served as the guideline

for questions on a survey developed by the researcher and responded to by an individual charged with the responsibility of program evaluation in each of the community colleges identified for the study. From the responses on the survey, a "score" reflected the quality of the program evaluation being conducted.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to compare the leadership behavior of community college presidents who had developed and implemented high quality academic program evaluation with those presidents who had not and to compare the degree of situational control produced in their respective community colleges. In addition, the study investigated possible interactive effects of leadership behavior and situational control.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited as follows:

1. The presidents studied were those from the 58 North Carolina community colleges who had been in their present positions for at least 3 years.
2. The board of trustees, a body that has control over a president, was not studied. While a board is theoretically responsible for the operation of the college, it typically places the operation of the

institution under the control of professionals in the field.

3. Professional staff, such as counselors, were not included in the study.
4. Confidentiality was assured; therefore, individual institutions and presidents were not identified by name.
5. The study involved descriptive research only (collecting data in order to test hypotheses concerning the current status of the subjects); no intervention was conducted.
6. Findings were limited to the strength of the instruments used.
7. Evaluation included, but was not limited to, that associated with accreditation.
8. Quality of evaluation was limited to responses on a survey based on utility, feasibility, propriety, and accuracy.
9. Results may not be generalizable.

Research Questions

In order to examine the issues posed by this study, the following research questions were addressed:

1. Are community college presidents who are task-oriented in their leadership behavior more likely to implement high quality academic program evaluation than those who are not task-oriented?

2. Are community college presidents who are relationship-oriented in their leadership behavior more likely to implement high quality academic program evaluation than those community college presidents who are not relationship-oriented?
3. How does the incidence of implementation of high quality academic program evaluation compare among community college presidents in relation to their degree (high, moderate, low) of situational control?
4. What combinations of leadership behavior of community college presidents and their degree of situational control tend to result in high quality academic program evaluation?

Hypotheses

Fiedler suggests that the effectiveness of an organization depends upon the personality of the leader and the degree to which the situation gives the leader power, control, and influence over the situation, known as favorableness of a situation. Task-oriented leaders tend to perform best in situations that are either very favorable or very unfavorable to the leader, according to Fiedler's theory. Relationship-oriented leaders tend to perform best in situations of moderate favorableness. In order to answer the research questions, the following directional hypotheses have been formulated based upon Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model:

1. There will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents who score high on measures of task orientation than implemented by community college presidents who score low on measures of task orientation.
2. There will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents who score low on measures of relationship orientation than implemented by community college presidents who score high on measures of relationship orientation.
3. There will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents who score high on task orientation measures and score low on relationship orientation measures than implemented by those who score low on task orientation measures and high on relationship measures.
4. There will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents with high situational control than implemented by community college presidents with moderate situational control.
5. There will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented

by community college presidents with low situational control than implemented by community college presidents with moderate situational control.

6. There will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by task-oriented community college presidents with high situational control than implemented by relationship-oriented community college presidents with moderate situational control.
7. There will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by task-oriented community college presidents with low situational control than implemented by relationship-oriented community college presidents with moderate situational control.

Significance

This study compared the leadership behaviors of North Carolina community college presidents who had held their present positions for at least 3 years and who had initiated a high quality academic program evaluation with those presidents in office for at least 3 years who had not initiated a high quality academic program evaluation. The study provided further description of the nature of the president's role in the implementation of evaluation in the community college. Finally, the study identified other factors or

conditions from the environment of the community colleges in North Carolina that may have contributed to the implementation of evaluation of programs, especially contingencies of situational favorableness as defined by contingency theory.

While there may be many factors of personality or situations that help to determine effectiveness of leadership, this study focused on two dimensions of effectiveness: task orientation and relationship orientation of the leader. Educational administrators in the community colleges who face implementing evaluation of academic programs may benefit from this study of North Carolina's community college presidents who have led in situations of high quality academic program evaluation. Presidents may benefit by gaining an increase in their understanding of the complexity of a leadership situation and identification of some factors that can influence the effectiveness of the leader in implementation of high quality academic program evaluation even though results may be limited in generalizability.

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Leadership

The purpose of this study is to investigate the leadership behavior of presidents of North Carolina public community colleges who have developed and implemented academic program evaluation and to examine the situational characteristics of the group formed by the president, his or her vice-president, and faculty. This study will be based on a situational approach to leadership with emphasis on observed behavior. The need for considering situational factors has been suggested by the failure of researchers prior to 1945 to find any leader traits, styles, or patterns of behavior that were consistently related to effective group performance (Chemers & Rice, 1974).

After the personality trait approach to the study of leadership proved to be "fruitless" (Bass, 1981, p. 358), behaviors rather than traits of leaders were studied. An attempt was made at Ohio State University to develop a list of 1800 items describing various aspects of leader behavior. The items were sorted into nine different categories; 150 of these items were assigned to one subscale only, rather than to several. These items were used to develop the first form of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire.

Factor-analysis of item intercorrelations produced two factors--Consideration and Initiation of Structure--in interaction. Similar studies of subscale scores tended to yield two factors and occasionally a third weak factor. Rather than nine different patterns of behavior, two--Consideration and Initiation of Structure--were found to be measured by the items and the subscales (Bass, 1981).

From the Ohio State studies, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) adapted dimensions of relationship-oriented behaviors and task-oriented behaviors to form a range of choices on a continuum of leader behavior. One of seven possible leader behaviors can be selected depending upon the degree of authority used by the boss and the amount of freedom available to his subordinates in reaching decisions (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958). The range of behaviors is from traditional authoritarian patterns of leadership to democratic leadership with concern for relationships, yet neither extreme is absolute. A wide variety of styles of leader behavior can be found between the two extremes.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt updated their original work in 1973 to reflect societal changes and new management concepts. The youth revolution, the civil rights movement, ecology and consumer movements, and concern for the quality of working life and its relationship to productivity have led to the open-system theory. New emphasis on the interdependency of

subsystems and on the interaction of the organization with the environment have affected managers' approaches to problems. Forces acting on an organization include those in the larger society. Power is recognized as being available to both manager and nonmanager. Tannenbaum and Schmidt's revised design of the behavior continuum is more complex and dynamic, reflecting constant interactions between managers, nonmanagers, and the forces in the environment.

The Ohio State leadership studies have influenced the House-Mitchell Path-Goal model. The expectancy model of motivation, which focuses on the effort-performance of the performance-goal satisfaction (reward) linkages, also influenced the Path-Goal model (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). The theory specifies some of the situational moderators on which the effects of specific leader behaviors are contingent (House, 1971).

A basic proposition of the theory is that one of the strategic functions of the leader is to enhance the psychological states of subordinates that result in the motivation to perform or in satisfaction with the job. (House & Dessler, 1974, p. 30)

Path-goal theory stimulated efforts to explain how the nature of the group's task systematically affects whether consideration (concern for the welfare of the group), initiation of structure (extent to which the leader initiates activity, organizes it, and defines how to do it), or their interplay makes more of a contribution to the group's satisfaction and

effectiveness (Bass, 1981). Another proposition of the theory is that the specific leader behavior that will accomplish the motivational function of leadership is determined by the situation in which the leader operates. Situational variables are defined as consisting of two classes: (a) the characteristics of subordinates and (b) the environmental pressures and demands the subordinates must cope with to complete work goals and satisfy their own needs (House & Dessler, 1974).

Literature reporting the testing of hypotheses derived from the theory (House, 1971; House & Dessler, 1974) finds support for the theory. However, House and Mitchell (1974) caution that path-goal theory is more a tool of a theoretical nature than a proven guide for managerial action. Bass (1981) explains sources of contradictory findings, such as the use of more coercive or less coercive measures, the leaders' personality traits, and the subordinates' personality traits.

Another model of leadership that lends itself to researchers who take a contingency approach is the Vroom-Yetton Contingency Model. This model places the leader's behavior as the central variable, determined by attributes of the leader himself or herself and attributes of the situation he or she encounters (Vroom, 1977). Situational variables interact in this model with personal attributes or characteristics of the leader, resulting in leader behavior

that can affect organizational effectiveness. The resulting change in the organization can then affect the next leadership intervention (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Vroom and Yetton (1973a) present the basic assumptions underlying a normative model in an effort to provide guidelines of value to managers in choosing leadership styles to fit the demands of the situations they encounter. The guidelines concern the consequences of participation in decision-making and specify a set of rules used in determining the amount and form of participation by subordinates in various situations. Vroom and Yetton (1973a) assert that behavioral scientists widely recognize that the most effective leadership method or style is dependent on the situation. Even though "situational relativity" is applied here to participative management, it is applicable in other settings in organizations.

In a laboratory test of the Vroom-Yetton model, Field (1982) found evidence for the validity of the model. Four of the seven rules underlying the model operate as predicted, a finding which adds to the evidence that managers should be aware of the normative model and use it to aid different decision processes in different situations as a tool to increase overall decision effectiveness.

According to the results of two experiments in which the leader's actions were reported as either "correct" or "incorrect" in terms of the Vroom-Yetton model (Heilman,

Cage, Hornstein, & Herschlag, 1984), an autocratic leader's behavior was never rated as more effective than a participative leader's behavior, even when the situation was one in which the model would prescribe autocratic behavior. The results indicated that the perspective of the individual viewing a leader influences the way in which he/she evaluates the leader's task effectiveness. Respondents cast as leaders evaluated leader effectiveness in a manner consistent with the model, while respondents cast as subordinates did so only when the situation was one in which participative behavior was prescribed. Implications for leaders are that they must decide before they act whom they want to impress, the leaders higher up or the subordinates, and differ their behavior accordingly. Subordinates in the study (Heilman et al., 1984) saw participative behavior as effective, but leaders did not.

Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard (1988) describe the Hersey-Blanchard Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness model. This model utilizes the terms task behavior and relationship behavior to describe concepts similar to Consideration and Initiating Structure of the Ohio State studies. These two types of behavior are central to the concept of leadership style or behavior pattern exhibited when the leader attempts to influence the activities of others as perceived by those others. To this two-dimensional model is added an effectiveness dimension in an effort to integrate

the concepts of leader style with situational demands of a specific environment. Although the third dimension is really the environment in which the leader is operating, it is called effectiveness dimension because in most organizational settings various performance measures are used to gauge the degree of effectiveness or ineffectiveness in a leader. This model is unique in that it does not suggest a single ideal leader behavior style as being appropriate at all times. The four basic leader behavior styles (high task and low relationship; high task and high relationship; high relationship and low task; low relationship and low task) are appropriate only in certain situations.

Instrumentation was developed (Hersey & Blanchard, 1974) to gather data about the behavior of leaders. The Leader Adaptability and Style Inventory (LASI) is a self-reporting inventory that reveals one's own perceptions of one's leadership style. The degree of style adaptability or effectiveness can also be calculated from the inventory. In addition to knowing one's style of leadership, a leader should also be aware of how consistent this perception is with the perception of others.

As the contingency paradigm has continued to expand and develop, Stewart (1982) has contributed to an understanding of important organizational contingencies. The general variable categories that Stewart sees as contingencies in managerial jobs are demands, constraints, and choices. These

variables have an effect on the amount and kind of influence available and appropriate to the manager, and they expand the traditional paradigm by embedding leadership within a complex of managerial duties and by including horizontal or lateral influence as well as vertical superior-subordinate influence (Hunt, 1984).

Different managers focus on different aspects of the same job depending on what each views as important. Stewart suggests that a pragmatic definition of a job is "the summation of all the possible behaviors by different jobholders" (1982, p. 27), a definition which highlights the flexibility of the job with a wide choice of different behaviors. Since this would make the job difficult to describe, one could include demands, constraints, and choices to emphasize that although the job could be done a variety of ways, all the ways contribute to desired outcomes. These considerations move leadership beyond the traditional contingency paradigm.

In further expanding contingency models, Tosi (1982) separates leadership behavior from managerial behavior, providing a base for clarifying the difference. The paradigm shift directs attention toward a more complete set of dimensions which affect performance and, in turn, predictability of patterns of behavior which occur over time. These factors affect or cause (a) how well a person performs, (b) the level of personal commitment, and (c) the amount of work satisfaction (Tosi, 1982). A portion of the predictability in

behavior patterns is accounted for by interpersonal influence as well as by other factors that are rarely integrated into leadership theory and research in a systematic fashion. These factors are formalization, technology, socialization, selection, reward systems, work relationships, and leadership.

Osborn and Hunt's Multiple Influence Model of Leadership (MIML), a second example of the expanded contingency approach, assumes that the environment, size, technology, structure, and condition within the work unit affect the manager's role (Hunt, 1984). All these factors along with leader behavior affect performance and outcomes. The MIML recognizes the gap between predicted and actual outcomes and argues that the leader (manager) steps in to narrow the gap with appropriate behavior. Performance and satisfaction increase as the manager responds by rewarding, resolving uncertainty, and developing network lines with other units. The test of this second-generation contingency model was interpreted by Hunt and Osborn as providing support for it (Hunt & Osborn, 1982).

All of the models of contingency approaches to leadership that have been reviewed find roots in the first of such models, Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model. According to Bass (1981), Contingency Theory dominated much of the research activity of the 1970's. Fiedler's theory (1967) sets forth what has come to be regarded as the traditional contingency paradigm. Fiedler's classification system of interacting task groups emerged during the course of research.

The system is guided by this notion: "the leader's style of interacting with his members will be affected by the degree to which the leader can wield power and influence" (Fiedler, 1967, p. 22). The effectiveness of a pattern of leader behavior is contingent upon the demands of a situation in which the three factors of major importance are (a) the leader's position power, (b) the structure of the task, and (c) the interpersonal relationship between leader and members.

Eight possible combinations of the three situational variables can occur. Favorableness, defined as the degree to which the leader is able to exert influence over the group, results if the leader is esteemed by the group (good leader-member relations), if the task to be accomplished is well-defined, clear, simple, and easy to solve (high task structure), and if the leader has legitimacy and power due to position (high position power). In contrast, the most unfavorable situation is one in which the leader is disliked, has little position power, and faces an unstructured task. Thus the effectiveness of a group or organization depends on the interaction between the leader's personality and the situation (Fiedler, 1977b).

Scales were developed (Fiedler, Chemers, & Mahar, 1976) to measure situational control (Leader-Member Relations Scale, Task Structure Rating Scale, and Position Power Rating Scale which form the Situational Control Scale).

Fiedler (1978) points out that these subscales do not represent the only factors that determine the leader's situational control and influence. Bass (1981) summarizes other factors that can affect the leader's control, such as situational stress, leader experience and training, and in cross-cultural studies, linguistic and cultural heterogeneity play a role in determining leader control. Bass also summarizes studies on the scales and reports "a group atmosphere scale was developed which correlated .88 with earlier methods of estimating leader-member relations" (1981, p. 349). The task structure scale contains statements that allow one to judge whether the goal was clearly stated, whether the task could be accomplished only one way, whether there was one correct answer in the task, and whether results were easy to check for correctness. The position power scale has been found to correlate .42 with social desirability. Fiedler (1978) postulates that situational favorability with its high degree of control and influence implies that the leader is certain that his or her decisions and actions will have predictable results, will achieve the desired goals, and will satisfy the leader.

In Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model, the leader's motivational structure or goals to which the leader gives the highest priority are matched with the degree to which the situation gives the leader control and influence over the outcomes of his or her decision. Leadership effectiveness

requires "a proper match of person and situation, and trying to change personality is the hard way of achieving the balance" (Fiedler, 1977b, p. 19). Changing the situation instead of the leader's personality became a part of leadership training for Fiedler.

The leader's motivation is measured by the Least Preferred Coworker Scale (LPC). The LPC is described by Fiedler (1967) as a measure of a relevant and reliable personality variable which directly affects leader behavior. However, controversy continues about what is being measured by the LPC questionnaire. On the surface, it measures what respondents report characterizes their feelings about a person with whom they can work least effectively. A relatively high score, favoring the least preferred coworker, has most generally been conceived by Fiedler as indicative of a relationship-motivated person; whereas, a low LPC score, rejecting the least preferred coworker, has been conceived to be indicative of a task-motivated person (Bass, 1981).

Strube and Garcia (1981) conducted a meta-analysis of Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness and concluded that enough evidence exists to recommend continued efforts at applying the model. They point out that a better understanding of situational control is needed as well as of leader-member dynamics and suggest further study of co-acting groups. On the other hand, Schriesheim and Kerr (1977) are

critical of LPC's content validity and concurrent validity while recognizing its internal consistency reliability.

Chemers and Rice (1974) reported experiments that made a very strong case for the validity of the contingency model. The effects of leader training and experience seem to advance the understanding of leadership. In general, the contingency approach which recognizes both situational and personal factors is necessary for an adequate theory of leader behavior or related leadership processes (Chemers & Rice, 1974). Other studies, such as one by Green and Nebeker (1977), support the finding that both leader personality and the situation are important determinants in leader behavior and that Fiedler's work is helpful in understanding their interaction.

Other contingency models are often compared to Fiedler's. In comparing Vroom and Yetton's model with Fiedler's, there are similarities and differences. Both try to deal with differences in the kind of leadership required in different situations. Both assume that no one style of leadership is appropriate to all conditions, and both claim to prescribe the nature of leadership required under each situation. Both are pragmatic rather than idealistic in their conception of the leadership process, assuming the function of leadership is to facilitate the goals of the organization. While both models are searches for effective leader behaviors, Fiedler's model describes relatively stable properties

of the situation confronted by the leader, and Vroom and Yetton's model assumes the variables are properties of the immediate problem to be solved or decision to be made (Vroom & Yetton, 1973b).

Hunt claims the Multiple Influence Model of Leadership is a "point of departure" for Fiedler's concept of Leader Match (Hunt, 1984, p. 127) because it allows top management to use training of a diagnostic nature, placement, organizational design, or a combination to formulate leadership strategy throughout the organization. The discretionary, intervening behavior of the manager is "similar to Stewart's concept of choices" (Hunt, 1984, p. 126). Osborn and Hunt's Multiple Influence Model is sophisticated and complex, compared to Fiedler's. It reflects the increasing complexity in organizational life. As models become more complex, they become "unwieldy both theoretically and empirically" (Hunt, 1984, p. 130).

A call for improvements on contingency approaches to leadership is found in Korman (1973). He stresses the need to obtain knowledge as to how basic theoretical constructs work and the mechanisms by which they operate. He suggests the redirecting of use of personality constructs as contingency variables and the utilizing of constructs that relate more specifically to work behavior. Further, the development of contingency models of leadership needs to change from a static view of the leadership process to a longitudinal view

of a changing dynamic process calling for individuals to behave differently at different times. Finally, Korman states the need for measurement in leadership theory is of prime importance.

Some researchers go beyond the call for refinements and extensions of the contingency approach to call for a paradigm shift (Tosi, 1982). Attribution theory, a current organizational leadership approach, provides a major challenge to the contingency paradigm (Hunt, 1984). Attributional approaches focus on either the leader or work-group subordinates. The central point of the proposed theory, according to Calder (1977), is that leadership is not a scientific construct, but it exists only as a perception. The process by which a manager diagnoses the work setting is studied and a basis for behavioral flexibility is provided in response to the diagnosis (Hunt, 1984). The focus is on changes in a leader's behavior, depending on how the leader interpreted the causes of a subordinate's poor performance. Subordinates evaluate the effects of a leader's actions and then make inferences about the leadership of that person. Leadership exists only as it is perceived, according to this theory.

In a 1977 study by Mitchell, Larson, and Green, subjects were led to believe that a group performed well or poorly. Then they were asked to rate the leader on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire and on Fiedler's Situational

Favorableness. The hypothesis that perceptions of good group performance would lead to higher ratings on leader behavior and situational measures than would perceptions of poor group performance was supported substantially for situational favorableness and generally, although results were mixed, for leader behavior. It appeared that nonparticipant observers may have been influenced by performance perceptions when they rated the leader's behavior, a step toward attribution or defining a person as leader because others say so.

McElroy (1982) mapped out the domain of attribution theory of leadership. This leadership paradigm has its foundation in psychology and is based on the assumption that, following the occurrence of an event, individuals will attempt to explain why it occurred. Leadership is an attribution people make about others, not a set of traits or behaviors. Research has demonstrated how descriptions of leader behavior are affected by such factors as knowledge of group performance or how leaders infer the cause of subordinate performance based on evidence of performance. In addition, although superior-subordinate relations are important, the relationship between the leader and others who are in a position to observe the leader is crucial to the success of the leader. Thus, research falls into categories of actor or observer, each using different information to form inferences about an actor and each processing the same information

differently. A study may focus on content or process and be either descriptive or prescriptive. Most research in attribution theory is descriptive with a lack of prescriptive-process research being conducted.

In their review of the literature regarding leader and member attributional responses, Martinko and Gardner (1987) propose an interactive attributional model. The authors primarily concentrate on attributions for poor performance, but the general model proposed also depicts a broader range of leader and member attributions and behaviors. The authors conclude that more work needs to be done to specify the relationships between attributions and behavior, that the exchange of attributions and behavior associated with success needs to be articulated, and that practical prescriptions for leader/member interaction are desirable (Martinko & Gardner, 1987).

Attribution theory reinforces interest in charismatic leadership (Hunt, 1984), a leadership which inspires followers to accomplish outstanding feats. House (1977) reviewed the sociological and political science literature on charisma and restated major assertions as propositions to be tested in later research. Literature in social psychology was also reviewed. The outcome was a "speculative theoretical explanation of charisma from a psychological perspective rather than from a sociological or political science perspective" (House, 1977, p. 190). House found that leaders

who have charismatic effects were differentiated by some combination of dominance, self-confidence, need for influence, and a strong conviction in the moral righteousness of his or her beliefs. Specific behaviors (goal articulation, role modeling, personal image-building, demonstration of confidence and high expectations for followers, and motive arousal behaviors) are used to employ these characteristics. Goal articulation and personal image-building are hypothesized to result in favorable perceptions of the leader by the followers, which, in turn, enhance followers' trust, loyalty, and obedience to the leader. Further, these favorable perceptions moderate the relationships between the remaining leader behaviors and the follower responses to the leader. These responses result in effective performance if the aroused behavior is appropriate for their task demand.

Attribution theory and charismatic leadership theory go beyond the traditional contingency paradigm and offer a challenge to the conservative approach to leadership studies. An understanding of both conservative and radical approaches to the study of leadership is desired in order to conduct a study of leadership today. A cross-pollination of thrusts is leading to diversity and plurality in leadership studies in the fast-changing research area of organizational leadership (Hunt, 1984).

Evaluation

Worthen and Sanders define evaluation as "the determination of a thing's value" (1987, p. 22), and they elaborate on this definition as follows:

In education, [evaluation] is the formal determination of the quality, effectiveness, or value of a program, product, project, process, objective, or curriculum. Evaluation uses inquiry and judgment methods, including (1) determining standards for judging quality and deciding whether those standards should be relative or absolute; (2) collecting relevant information; and (3) applying the standard to determine quality. (pp. 22-23)

Specifically, program evaluation is defined as the evaluation of a complex of people, materials, and organization which make up a particular educational program that has limited generalizability across time and geography (Worthen & Sanders, 1987). This definition purposely omits mention of goals to include within its scope goal-free evaluation, which focuses on actual outcomes rather than intended outcomes.

Types of evaluation are classified on the basis of purpose (formative/summative), origin of evaluator (internal/external), and method (qualitative/quantitative). A formative role of evaluation is one that is completed during an ongoing program for program personnel to provide information useful in improving the program. A summative role is one that provides judgments about the worth or merit of a program at the end for potential consumers (Worthen & Sanders, 1987). An internal evaluation is conducted by an employee of the program while an external evaluation is conducted by

outsiders. Qualitative evaluation employs many methods of data gathering, frequently participant-observation and interviews. It utilizes an inductive approach to data analysis, extracting from a mass of detail. On the other hand, quantitative evaluation follows the scientific paradigm, focusing on experimental design and statistical methods of analysis. Any of these various types of evaluation may be used in evaluation of academic programs on the campuses of community colleges. Whatever method of inquiry is appropriate should be used.

To judge the adequacy of the activity of evaluation, one should look for a balance in meeting the standards of (a) utility (the extent to which results are actually used); (b) accuracy (the extent to which the information reflects reality); (c) feasibility (the extent to which the evaluation is economical, politically skillful, and judicious); and (d) propriety (the extent to which the evaluation is done legally and ethically) (Nevo, 1983). For a review of evaluation literature through an analytical framework representing issues addressed by major evaluation approaches in education, the reader is referred to Nevo, 1983.

Models of evaluation are prescriptive or descriptive. Prescriptive models, the most common type, are a set of rules, prescriptions, or guiding frameworks which specify what an evaluation is and how it should be carried out. A

descriptive model is a set of generalizations which describes, predicts, or explains evaluation activities (Alkin & Ellett, 1985). Principles underlying the dominant models can be analyzed. The Tylerian approach determines whether or not a program has reached its objectives and judges it good only if it reaches those objectives. If the objectives are not achieved, however, it does not follow that the program is not good. Whether the program is good or worthwhile may depend on the degree to which achievements are caused by the program. Causal modeling has as its principle that the program is good if it causes the achievement of its objectives. The argument to this approach is that programs seldom achieve all their objectives, so the principle becomes that a program is judged better than another if it achieves all the intended objectives and others as well.

The dispute about whether an evaluation should provide a causal explanation of how the program produces or achieves outcomes can be summarized. If the objectives are trivial or worthless, it seems unimportant that the program can achieve its objectives. In this case, the principle is that one program is better than another if its objectives are better. Some evaluators say that the evaluator should judge the intrinsic value of program objectives while others say each side needs its own advocate similar to judicial proceedings. Still others say the decision-maker in charge of the evaluation should judge the worth of program objectives. Some say

the various evaluation audiences should judge (Alkin & Ellett, 1985).

Goal-free evaluations look at unintended outcomes as well as stated objectives. In some situations, financial considerations must be weighed against the value of achieving certain educational outcomes. In some cases, the worth of a program is evaluated over another of a different type, and concern about choices faced by potential users and audiences results in the principle that the evaluation should judge programs based upon information needs of particular audiences. Thus, program evaluations serve many purposes and audiences.

Ball and Halwachi (1987) have suggested that, in order to rank the performance of institutions of higher education in a system, one could attach weight to each goal by a subjective process and obtain an overall score for each institution. Each institution would have its own niche in the market. Further, performance indicators should be presented with a clear statement of goals, the relative importance of each goal, and a statement of how each indicator measures the goal. Different institutions would pursue different goals.

At the national level, persons working in community colleges have not developed a method of ranking institutions based on performance. The literature documents the need for systematic program evaluation to assess institutional effectiveness. Hammons (1987) advocates development of performance appraisal plans that identify needed improvements and

that reward positive contributions. The cost of a management information system and a permanent institutional research staff would be negligible compared to the benefits. Community colleges are being expected to be "more precise and more systematic both in describing the desired outcomes of students' educational experiences and in documenting student achievement" (McClenney & McClenney, 1988, p. 53). In fact, one of the traits of an effective community college is that its leaders use outcomes or competencies to indicate effectiveness.

The Commission on the Future of Community Colleges (1988) has made the following three assessment recommendations at the national level:

- 1) Classroom evaluation should be the central assessment activity of the community college.
- 2) Every community college should develop a campus-wide assessment of institutional effectiveness. Faculty and administrators should define in explicit terms the educational outcomes.
- 3) College-wide assessment processes should be designed to measure the extent to which desired outcomes are achieved in students' literacy skills, general education, and area of specialization, including periodic interviews or surveys of current students, graduates, and employers of graduates.

At the state level, the Commission on the Future of the North Carolina Community College System (1989) has set goals and made recommendations. One of the goals is strategic goal-setting and assessment, defined as the need "to set and measure attainment of student and institutional goals and account for the use of public resources" (p. 5). The goal is stated as follows:

Plans should address critical activities including outreach, professional development, and service to business and industry and should set measurable goals for key indicators such as the rate of student retention, placement, and transfer. Procedures for evaluating existing programs for expansion, revision, or deletion are also vital. (p. 22)

Recommendations call for greater accountability for the use of system resources, including a comprehensive biennial planning process at each college, involving administration, faculty, staff, and students as well as representatives from the business community in setting measurable goals and reporting progress toward stated goals with a data collection system to support planning and accounting efforts.

According to Englert (1986), these calls for accountability are attempts to influence control of higher education. Those who allocate resources possess power. Attempts to make institutions of higher education more responsive imply that institutions are to be more responsive to someone. Regardless of who that someone is--the student, the government, the profession, or the public at large--power is the

issue (Englert, 1986). The political purpose of increasing legislative control over higher education is served; however, institutions have reacted by trying to prevent evaluation or by attacking its legitimacy, claiming that they are already accountable to accrediting boards, legal and fiscal restraints, and student choice. The critical political issue is how evaluation affects the distribution of life chances, prestige, status, resources, and education.

The literature indicates an effort on the part of leaders in community colleges to integrate issues of evaluation of academic programs and leadership. MacTavish (1984) warns that in the absence of leadership in a community college comes organizational decay. Presidents can utilize contribution theory which postulates that "leadership is a positive force needed to obtain maximum output from staff and trustees in discretionary activities essential for high levels of organizational performance" (MacTavish, 1984, p. 85). By creating an environment that maximizes individual contributions, presidents can assist faculty, staff, and trustees who wish to make a personal commitment that contributes to the institution and is recognized by peers, superiors, and subordinates. For instance, when long range plans for the institution are made, professionals need to be involved to know what is expected. In addition, the nature of the linkages between units, especially in dependent relationships, should be made clear. Further, communication,

both formal and informal, needs to be kept open. Finally, by avoiding ego traps or a discrepancy between the president's words and actions, the college can move toward a contributor environment. Finding a leader of this caliber is left to the trustees.

Eaton (1984) suggests that a focus on women may provide some answers and insights into barriers that emerging forces in leadership must surmount in a male-dominated enterprise. These barriers include unfamiliar work relationships, lack of familiarity with executive style, and academic traditions that preclude rapid progression in careers. The need for visionary leadership in community colleges gives women an opportunity to gain in acceptance, influence, and power.

Another community college leader, Spencer (1979), focuses on institutional renewal through state-of-the-art data base products and training of people to support the process. A planning, management, evaluation system can help achieve educational objectives in a creative, economically sound manner and support decision-making. Substantive objective-based institutional planning allows community college leaders to face the future knowing what they want to be as well as how to become it. In order to provide the proper framework, data from institutional research needs to be an integral part of the process of renewal, linked to planning.

In summarizing what tomorrow's leaders in community colleges will be like, Alfred (1984) writes as follows:

[Tomorrow's leaders will be those] who can integrate diverse components of development--education, experience, and relationships with peers and role models--into a meaningful whole. They will be able to build a management infrastructure that can effectively interpret the mission and role of the institution within the regional educational delivery system, maintain balance and perspective in setting institutional priorities and managing scarce resources, and encourage vision beyond immediate social and economic conditions toward the goal of excellence in programs and services. (p. 19)

In summary, leaders must be responsive to environmental changes.

The president of Miami-Dade Community College, Robert McCabe (1984), echoes the theme of adaptation to the changing needs of society rather than holding on to concepts and programs that have worked in the past. For example, the open access to an institution with the open-flow educational model of years past does not adequately prepare students in the information age for skills of defining, reading, analyzing, interpreting, applying and communicating information in industry and business. Miami-Dade Community College uses computerized information to advise students on an ongoing basis while they are enrolled and earning credits. To accomplish goals, the leader must learn to delegate but never relinquish the role of educational visionary in times of constant change.

Community college administrators face many challenges today. Achieving managerial sophistication to avoid

unacceptable costs such as a loss of organizational morale and managerial credibility is one of those challenges (Richardson, 1984). As community college leaders struggle with the development of organizational form and approaches to leadership, a balance between the strengths of professional bureaucracy, which could improve quality and reengage faculty and staff, and the advantages of adhocracy for innovation and quick response must be found. Changes in leadership behavior and organizational form can be made when a community college has identified its preferred outcomes and determined the extent to which they are being achieved. Improvements can be identified, according to Richardson (1984), only when evidence has been accumulated, such as empirical data and constituent perceptions, that certain practices in leadership and improvements in organizational form have made a difference in the effectiveness of an organization.

In conclusion, evaluation, especially that of academic programs, is an essential step in the process of providing evidence for decisions that affect leadership behavior in community colleges.

Summary

The complexities of leadership present themselves in a review of the literature on leadership theory. Beginning with the Ohio State Leader Behavior Studies, efforts to identify various aspects of leader behavior have been made.

Two factors were identified--the leader's consideration of followers' welfare and the leader's initiation of structure of the task or what is expected of the followers. Tannenbaum and Schmidt's research elaborated on these two dimensions, forming a range of choices of leader behavior on a continuum from traditional authoritarian patterns to democratic leadership. The House-Mitchell Path-Goal model, influenced by both the Ohio State leadership studies and the expectancy model of motivation, specifies some of the situational moderators on which the effects of specific leader behaviors are contingent. Further, the House-Mitchell theory postulates that motivation and satisfaction result from the leader's enhancement of the subordinates' psychological states and that the situation in which the leader operates will determine the leader's behavior. The Vroom-Yetton Contingency Model places behavior of the leader as the central variable, determined by attributes of the leader himself or herself and the attributes of the situation he or she encounters. Hersey and Blanchard's Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness model utilizes concepts similar to Consideration and Initiating Structure of the Ohio State studies and adds an effectiveness dimension. This model does not suggest a single ideal leader behavior style as being appropriate at all times, but four basic styles are appropriate only in certain situations. Stewart has contributed to an understanding of important organizational contingencies. Tosi has

expanded the contingency paradigm by diverting attention toward a more complete set of dimensions which affect performance and predictability of patterns of behavior including factors rarely integrated into leadership theory.

Contingency approaches to leadership find roots in the first of such models, Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model. Fiedler theorizes that the effectiveness of a pattern of leader behavior is contingent upon the demands of a situation in which the three factors of major importance are (a) the leader's position power, (b) the structure of the task, and (c) the interpersonal relationship between leader and members. While some studies support Fiedler's theory, others do not. Enough questioning of contingency theory has surfaced to lead some researchers toward a paradigm shift to attribution theory, which advocates that leadership exists only as a perception of the subordinates, and to charismatic leadership, which theorizes followers are inspired to accomplish outstanding feats.

Evaluation is the determination of a thing's value, and program evaluation is the determination of the value of what makes up the particular educational program. While there are various types of evaluation and purposes for evaluation, each evaluation results in some form of judgment on the part of the evaluator, a decision-maker, or other audiences.

Institutions of higher education are finding ways to rate their performance based on their own goals. Even though community college leaders have not developed a nationwide method of ranking institutions, the need for program evaluation is increasing as community colleges are expected to use competencies or outcomes to demonstrate effectiveness in recent calls for greater accountability. The calls for accountability represent attempts to influence control of higher education by the students, the government, the profession, or the public. Some leaders have reacted by trying to prevent evaluation while others have welcomed evaluation and have led their institutions into the previously uncharted territory of program evaluation. These individuals have integrated program evaluation into their leadership skills and have served as role models for others.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to compare the leadership behavior of selected presidents of North Carolina community colleges as relevant to the implementing of academic program evaluation. A further purpose was to examine the group situation of president, vice-president, and faculty in relation to academic program evaluation in those community colleges.

Subjects

The subjects for the study were selected from the 58 presidents of the North Carolina community colleges. The North Carolina Department of Community Colleges provided a list of presidents, including the number of years each has served as president at the institution. The sample consisted of only those presidents who served as president in their current institutions 3 years or longer, a length of time which enabled subordinates to describe presidential leadership behaviors on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). Also, this length of time enabled any president to have established program evaluation prior to the 1989 policy statement of the state board recommending that community colleges evaluate programs regularly.

Instruments

Leadership

The 1957 edition of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was used to provide a measure of leadership behaviors. The LBDQ was developed in a 1945 study of leadership at Ohio State University in an attempt to identify various dimensions of leader behavior (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). The 1957 printing of the LBDQ consists of 40 items and is intended to be used by members of a work group to describe their leader's behavior on two dimensions--initiation of structure and consideration. Fifteen of the 40 items contribute to a consideration score, or "'behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in relationships between the leader and members of the group'" (Dipboye, 1978, p. 1174). Another 15 items reflect initiating structure score or the extent to which the leader organizes and defines the "'relationship between himself and the members of the group,'" defines the role expected of each group member, endeavors "'to establish well-defined patterns of organization,'" and communicates "'ways of getting the job done'" (Dipboye, 1978, p. 1174). The remaining 10 items are used as buffer items, but the two factors of consideration and initiation of structure are the focus of the questionnaire.

According to the Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Halpin, 1957), "the estimated reliability by the split-half method is .83 for the Initiating Structure

scores, and .92 for the Consideration scores, when corrected for attenuation" (p. 1). Although a newer version of the LBDQ, known as the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire--Form XII (1962), is available, its length, 100 items as opposed to 40 items in the LBDQ (1957), precluded its use in this study. The greater length of the 1962 version is the result of the inclusion of several dimensions of leadership beyond the two dimensions of Initiation of Structure and Consideration examined in this study. The inclusion of those additional dimensions represents an attempt in the 1962 version to counter the view that much of a leader's behavior is missed by emphasizing two factors "to account for all the common variance among items describing a leader's behavior" (Bass, 1981, p. 360). Reliability estimates of the 12 subscores of Form XII ranged from .54 to .91 as determined by a modified Kuder-Richardson formula (Stogdill, 1963). In addition, its test-retest coefficients for 1-, 2-, and 3-month intervals were between .57 and .72 for Initiating Structure and between .71 and .79 for Consideration (Dipboye, 1978, p. 1175). Since the reliability of the LBDQ (1957) compares favorably with the LBDQ-XII (1962), which is high for personality measures, the shorter length of the LBDQ (1957) made it the preferred instrument for this study.

The subordinates' (the vice-president and selected deans and department heads) responses on the LBDQ provided a description of their presidents' leadership behaviors. The

responses to the subscales, Initiation of Structure and Consideration as indicators of task or relationship orientation, were divided into four groups: (a) high on both Initiation of Structure and Consideration; (b) high on Initiation of Structure and low on Consideration; (c) low on Initiation of Structure and high on Consideration; and (d) low on both Initiation of Structure and Consideration. The hypotheses were formulated on the basis of these four groups. Given the reliability of the LBDQ and the emphasis in Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model on leader-member relations and task structure, the LBDQ appeared adequate for use in measuring this study's leaders' behaviors.

Situational Characteristics

Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model (1967) describes effectiveness of leader behavior as contingent upon favorableness of the situation or situational control. This favorableness of the situation to the leader is measured by the Leader-Member Relations scale, the Task Structure scale, and the Position Power scale (Fiedler, 1977b). Bass (1981) has summarized studies on the scales and reported a correlation of .88 for the Leader-Member Relations scale with a group atmosphere scale. The Position Power scale has been found to correlate .42 with social desirability, but no correlational studies on the Task Structure scale are reported, according to Bass (1981). However, continued work at applying the

model, which includes use of these scales, is recommended by Strube and Garcia (1981) after having completed a meta-analysis of the model. No data are available for the Position Power scale.

In order to utilize the Leader-Member Relations scale, the Task Structure scale, and the Position Power scale as a measure of situational control or favorableness, the wording of the questions was altered by the researcher to reflect the language of community college presidents. Originally designed for use in military or industrial settings, the language does not connote an educational setting. For example, the first question on the Leader-Member Relations scale reads, "The people I supervise have trouble getting along with each other." Possible responses are "strongly agree," "agree," "neither agree nor disagree," "disagree," and "strongly disagree." The revision made by the researcher reads, "The people I lead have trouble getting along with each other." The responses are the same as in the original version. On April 8, 1991, the publisher of the situational control scales, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., granted permission (Appendix A) to make the necessary changes in the wording of the questions. (For a comparison of the revised version of the scales with the original see Appendixes B and C.)

Evaluation

To assure that the criterion (dependent variable) was in place, an inventory was developed by the researcher with

assistance from the statistical consultants at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro (Appendix D). The content of the inventory was based on guidelines from Standards for Evaluation of Educational Programs, Projects, and Materials (1981) by the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation. The questions on the survey were designed to elicit responses that would indicate the utility, feasibility, propriety, and accuracy of the program evaluation at each community college. These areas, as explicated by the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation, reflected the quality of program evaluation being conducted at each community college identified in the study.

The instrument entitled Program Evaluation Inventory was developed by the researcher and first pilot tested during December 1990 and January 1991. The first version consisting of eight pages was sent to individuals in a local community college not included in the study for comments and reactions. These individuals were as follows: a full-time teaching faculty member, a department head who also teaches a course, the Learning Center instructor, the dean of student development, and a staff member who was assistant to the vice president for instruction (later president) as well as director of auxiliary services. Three of these five persons returned the inventory with comments. An analysis of the pilot test results was used to revise the survey.

The second version consisting of six pages was sent back to the three who returned the first version: the department head, the Learning Center instructor, and the dean of student development. Detailed comments were offered by two of these three persons: the Learning Center instructor and the dean of student development. These comments, along with suggestions from Bert Goldman, Professor, Educational Administration, Higher Education, and Research at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, resulted in major cuts to shorten the instrument to 3½ pages, following an analysis of this set of pilot test results.

Finally, a third version of the inventory was sent to three individuals at another community college also not included in the study: the dean of the college, the associate dean of the college, and the assistant to the dean of the college. Each made extensive, helpful comments, leading to a fourth version, following an analysis of the pilot test results. After two community college professionals, a vice president and an assistant to a president examined this version, no further changes were suggested in either the directions to the respondents or in the content of the inventory. This version was sent in the package, containing 10 copies of the LBDQ, 1 copy of Fiedler's Situational Control Scales, and 1 copy of the Program Evaluation Inventory with a cover letter, to each community college in the study.

The individual who was asked to respond to the survey was that person charged with the responsibility of program evaluation in each community college included in the study. If such a person had not been formally identified within the college, the president was asked to assign the inventory to the appropriate person.

Before the package was mailed, the researcher assigned points to each answer on the instrument in order to indicate the relative value of each question. The points assigned to the response options are included on the questionnaire in Appendix D. These points yielded a total "score" for each returned survey, with the median score being used to determine relative "highness" or "lowness" of the "score." Those surveys with a score greater than the median were classified as "high," and those surveys with a score equal to or lower than the median were classified as "low." As the dependent variable, quality of evaluation of academic programs in community colleges was the basis for grouping community colleges into classes: those of high quality evaluation and those of low quality evaluation.

Design Procedure

The study included 40 presidents from the 58 North Carolina community colleges with 3 or more years in their present position.

In response to the research question of whether community college presidents who are task-oriented in their

leadership behavior are more likely to implement high quality academic program evaluation than those who are not task-oriented, the leadership behaviors of presidents were inventoried using the LBDQ. This questionnaire was administered to six or seven respondents per leader as recommended in the Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Halpin, 1957). A minimum of four respondents per leader is desirable, but stability of the index scores is not increased significantly beyond 10 respondents (Halpin, p. 2). These respondents were faculty, such as department chairs, who had been involved in evaluation issues on campus. The two subscales, Consideration and Initiating Structure, consisting of 10 items each, provided leadership behavior data. In each of the research questions, the determination of high quality academic program evaluation was based upon responses to the Program Evaluation Inventory. The responses yielded a "score" which placed each community college in either the high or low quality evaluation group.

Access to the respondents in the setting of the community college was obtained by means of a cover letter to the president (Appendix E) which explained the contents of the package and directions for distributing the three instruments. The respondents to the LBDQ were identified by the president within guidelines. The guidelines indicated that one copy of the LBDQ was to be given to each of the following:

- 1) The chief academic officer;
- 2) The chief of planning and evaluation;
- 3) Three academic deans from areas such as occupational education, arts and sciences, allied health, or technical areas; and
- 4) Five department heads as follows:
 - a) one from technical education area;
 - b) one from an occupational education area;
 - c) one from arts and sciences; and
 - d) two other department heads of the president's choosing.

The cover letter sent to the respondents (Appendix F) explained that each had been identified by the president to respond to the attached questionnaire (the LBDQ). Instructions in the cover letter asked each respondent to describe the leadership behavior of the president concerning the evaluation of academic programs at the respondent's community college. The respondent was also asked not to judge whether that behavior was desirable or undesirable; instead, each item described a specific behavior. Directions for the LBDQ were printed on the instrument (Appendix G).

In response to the research question of whether community college presidents who are relationship-oriented in their leadership behavior are more likely to implement high quality academic program evaluation than those who are not relationship-oriented, leader behavior data from the LBDQ were used.

In response to the research question of how the incidence of implementation of high quality academic program

evaluation compares among community college presidents in relation to their degree of situational control, scales developed by Fiedler (1977b) to measure situational control were used. These scales were the Leader-Member Relations scale, the Task Structure scale, and the Position Power scale; they were used to yield a score known as situational control or favorableness. These scores were grouped to classify amount of control into high, moderate, and low. According to Fiedler's theory, leader behavior will more likely lead to goal achievement if, in very favorable or very unfavorable situations, the leader is more task-oriented and if, in moderately favorable situations, the leader is more relationship-oriented.

Access to the president as respondent on the Situational Control Scales was obtained by means of a cover letter from the special assistant to the president of the North Carolina Department of Community Colleges. This letter (Appendix H) explained the purpose of the research, encouraged each president to participate, and stated that privacy and anonymity would be protected. In addition, attached to the Situational Control Scales was a cover letter from the researcher, explaining the contents of the entire package and asking the president to complete the Situational Control Scales, referred to in the cover letter as "Leader Member Relations Scales and others" (Appendix E). Instructions were printed on the scales (Appendix B).

In response to the research question of what combinations of leadership behavior of community college presidents and their degree of situational control tend to result in high quality academic program evaluation, responses from the LBDQ and from the scales developed by Fiedler to yield the score on situational control were used. The researcher compared community college presidents based on their task orientation or relationship orientation as well as on their degree of situational control to determine which combination produced the greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation.

Data Analysis

The methodology of this study involved three major tasks: (a) assigning each community college identified for the study into a high or low category on the basis of scores on an original instrument developed by the researcher to indicate quality of academic program evaluation at each institution; (b) assigning each community college president identified for the study into a high, moderate, or low category on the basis of scores on the Situational Control Scales developed by Fiedler; and (c) assigning each president to a category of leader behavior of task-oriented or relationship-oriented on the basis of mean scores on the LBDQ as responded to by subordinates of each president participating in the study. Hypotheses predicted the quality of academic program

evaluation depending on the situational control of the president and the task or relationship orientation of the president to the group he led.

In each hypothesis, the data for the various categories were used to form contingency tables to indicate the proportion of high or low quality academic program evaluation for a category of leader behavior or situational control or combination of the two. The method of inference for testing the hypotheses in the study involved proportions in different categories. Measurement of the variables was at the nominal level with the scores grouped into classes so that all those in a class are nearly equivalent with respect to some attribute measured by the scores. Normality was not assumed. The assumption of independence required by a test such as the chi square, for example, would have been violated by the use of data gathered on one of the instruments, the Program Evaluation Survey. The categories of high or low resulting from the Survey responses were determined by the scores gathered in the study itself; therefore, the binomial test was used to determine significance. The tests were one-tailed given that all hypotheses were directional.

Hypothesis 1 stated, "There will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents who score high on measures of task orientation than implemented by community college presidents who score low on measures of task

orientation." Hypothesis 1 required the collection of scores on the LBDQ and utilized the Initiation Structure subscore for each president in the study. The scores were totalled with most items being scored A=5 (Always), B=4 (Often), C=3 (Occasionally), D=2 (Seldom), E=1 (Never). Certain items were scored A=1, B=2, C=3, D=4, E=5. The computer program was written to read the data correctly. The test of significance was the binomial test.

Hypothesis 2 predicted, "There will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents who score low on measures of relationship orientation than implemented by community college presidents who score high on measures of relationship orientation." Hypothesis 2 required the collection of scores on the LBDQ and utilized the Consideration subscore for each president in the study. The binomial test was used to determine if there was a significant difference in the incidence of high quality program evaluation for low or high measures on relationship orientation.

Hypothesis 3 said, "There will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents who score high on task orientation measures and who score low on relationship orientation measures than implemented by those who score low on task orientation measures and high on relationship measures." Hypothesis 3 required the grouping of presidents

according to scores on the LBDQ and utilized both Initiating Structure and Consideration subscores to form two groups. The binomial test was used as the test of significance.

Hypothesis 4 stated, "There will be significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents with high situational control than implemented by community college presidents with moderate situational control." Hypothesis 5 said, "There will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents with low situational control than implemented by community college presidents with moderate situational control." These two hypotheses required collection of data using Fiedler's Scales for Leader-Member Relations, Task Structure Rating, and Position Power Rating. Total scores on these scales yield ranges for low control (10-30), moderate control (31-50), and high control (51-70). The situational control score was used to group presidents of community colleges into low, moderate, or high groups. In Hypothesis 4, the incidence of high quality evaluation by those presidents with high situational control scores was compared to the incidence of high quality evaluation by those with moderate scores, using the binomial test of significance. In Hypothesis 5, the incidence of high quality evaluation by those presidents with low situational control scores was compared to the incidence of high quality evaluation by those

with moderate situational control scores, using the binomial test. In each hypothesis, quality of evaluation of academic programs in community colleges was the basis for grouping the data into classes: those of high quality evaluation and those of low quality evaluation.

Hypothesis 6 stated, "There will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by task-oriented community college presidents with high situational control than implemented by relationship-oriented community college presidents with moderate situational control." Hypothesis 7 stated, "There will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by task-oriented community college presidents with low situational control than implemented by relationship-oriented community college presidents with moderate situational control." These two hypotheses required that presidents be grouped on the basis of both the LBDQ scores and on the situational control scores. In Hypothesis 6, high task orientation and high situational control scores were compared with high relationship orientation scores and moderate situational control scores. In both Hypotheses 6 and 7, the binomial test was used as the test of significance.

The level of significance of all tests was $p \leq .05$.

Administration of the Instruments

A package containing 10 copies of the LBDQ, 1 copy of Fiedler's Situational Control Scales (Leader-Member Relations, Task Structure, and Position Power), and 1 copy of the Program Evaluation Inventory was mailed to each of the 40 presidents of the participating community colleges with a cover letter from the researcher concerning the contents of the package and the method for administering the contents (Appendix E). The upper right corner of each survey instrument identified the community college by a letter or letters and the type of questionnaire by number. The codes and their referents were maintained by the researcher. A second cover letter was attached to each instrument used in the survey to indicate the purpose of the survey and to explain that anonymity would be assured (Appendix F). The package containing the instruments and stamped, self-addressed, return envelopes was mailed on April 20, 1991, in manila envelopes accompanied by a third cover letter. This cover letter was from the special assistant to the president of the North Carolina Department of Community Colleges in Raleigh, North Carolina, who endorsed the research and encouraged each president to participate (Appendix H). When each instrument was returned to the researcher, the code on the instrument was checked against the master list of codes to indicate who had returned the instrument. Four weeks later follow-up telephone calls were placed to those presidents who had not

returned one or more of the instruments. From May 23, 1991, to June 13, 1991, the researcher placed 17 telephone calls.

Encoding and Analysis of Data

All returned survey instruments were completed and their data were entered on a floppy disk by the researcher. The instrument answered by the presidents (Situational Control Scales) was encoded with a number value for each response, according to the values for scoring determined by Fiedler (Fiedler, Chemers, & Mahar, 1976, p. 91). The instrument answered by faculty and others (LBDQ) was encoded with a number value for each response, according to the values for scoring contained in the Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Halpin, 1957). The Program Evaluation Inventory, the instrument designed by the researcher with assistance from the statistical consultants at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, was encoded with a number value, although somewhat arbitrary, based on the relative importance of each item to give an indication of high or low quality of program evaluation at that community college.

After all responses were encoded, the researcher, assisted by the statistical consultants, wrote a computer program to read the data and yield scores for each instrument. The data were analyzed at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro Academic Computer Center using the SAS system.

Summary

To investigate the relationship between leadership behavior of presidents of North Carolina community colleges and the development and implementation of high quality academic program evaluation, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was used to provide a measure of leadership behavior. Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model provided a basis for describing effectiveness of leader behavior as contingent upon favorableness of the situation or situational control as indicated through leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. Results from the LBDQ and from Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model formed the independent variables. The incidence of high quality academic program evaluation in community colleges, the dependent variable, was determined by means of a survey to the individual in each community college in the study charged with the responsibility of program evaluation. The design procedure was based upon four research questions with predictions stated in seven hypotheses.

CHAPTER IV
ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This study compared the incidence of high and low quality academic program evaluation in North Carolina's community colleges based on leadership behavior of the presidents of the community colleges and favorableness of the situation or situational control. The data obtained from the research instruments were summarized, organized, and analyzed. Outcomes of the analysis reveal which hypotheses were supported and which were not.

In this study, each of seven hypotheses, formulated on the basis of Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model, concerned the leader behavior of community college presidents in the situation of academic program evaluation at institutions where the president had held the position 3 years or more. In each hypothesis, the dependent variable was the incidence of high quality academic program evaluation as measured by the Program Evaluation Survey. Independent variables were measures from the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and Fiedler's Situational Control Scales.

Returns

A package containing 10 copies of the LBDQ, 1 copy of Fiedler's Situational Control Scales (Leader-Member Relations,

Task Structure, and Position Power), and 1 copy of the Program Evaluation Inventory was mailed to each of the 40 presidents of the participating community colleges with a cover letter from the researcher concerning the contents of the package and the method for administering the contents. Separate cover letters were attached to each instrument used in the survey to explain the purpose of the survey and to indicate that anonymity would be assured. Self-addressed, stamped envelopes were included along with a letter of endorsement from the special assistant to the president of the North Carolina Department of Community Colleges in Raleigh, North Carolina.

Of the 40 survey instruments to be answered by the presidents, 36 were returned for a 90% response rate. Of the 40 program evaluation inventories to be answered by those individuals charged with the responsibility of evaluation, 34 were returned for an 85% response rate. Of the 10 LBDQ's to be answered by a group of followers of each of the presidents, 36 of the 40 community colleges returned 5 or more, the minimum suggested in the Manual for the LBDQ, for a 90% institutional response rate.

Only one of the four community college presidents who did not response to the instruments offered a reason and returned the package. In the returned package was a letter from the director of planning and research, who was evidently responding for the president. That institution was, according

to the director of planning and research, too large, so large that the president was not even viewed as being directly related to academic program evaluation. On follow-up telephone calls, one of the presidents was not available, and two of the presidents' regular secretaries were out for several days' vacation, and no available alternative contact person could be reached. The follow-up calls to 11 other community college presidents yielded positive responses with missing information sent at a later time. One community college president, who initially had sent in nothing, later returned all instruments with complete information after the researcher explained the study on the telephone. The follow-up calls increased the return rate, from 65% to 90%.

Program Evaluation and Task Orientation

The data were arranged in a two-dimensional format and a nonparametric approach was used to test the first hypothesis based on Fiedler's Contingency Model. To determine whether there was a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents who scored high on measures of task orientation than implemented by community college presidents who scored low on measures of task orientation, the number of presidents who scored high on the LBDQ subscore of Initiating Structure was used as one dimension and the score on the Program Evaluation Survey was used as the other dimension.

The Manual for the LBDQ (Halpin, p. 8) gave the mean from a sample of 64 educational administrators as 37.9. Scores greater than this mean were classified as "high," and scores less than or equal to the mean were classified as "low." Two Initiating Structure scores in the study were at the mean, but no Consideration scores in the study were at the mean. The difference between the mean and the next highest score in the data was greater than the difference between the mean and the next lowest score; therefore, the better choice seemed to be to place the scores equal to the mean in the "low" classification. In each community college, 5 to 10 faculty and/or administrators (other than the president) answered the LBDQ. The scores from each community college were averaged to give a mean for each college.

To separate scores on the Program Evaluation Survey into high or low, the median, 81, was used and those colleges with a score greater than the median were classified as "high," and those equal to or lower than the median were classified as "low." The highest possible score on the Program Evaluation Survey was 431; the lowest possible score was 0. The actual scores ranged from 30 to 336. One score on the Program Evaluation Survey was deleted as an "outlier" because this college's response indicated that 80 administrators and department heads were formally assigned program evaluation as part of a full-time job, producing a score of 336 which far exceeded that of any other college in the

study. The next closest score was 148. An internal consistency estimate of reliability, Cronbach's alpha, for the Program Evaluation Survey was 0.52.

Table 1 displays the dimensions of the two categories: Initiating Structure subscore and Program Evaluation Survey score.

Table 1

Contingency Table for Program Evaluation Survey
and Initiating Structure

		<u>Initiating Structure</u>		
		High	Low	Total
Program Evaluation Survey	High	13	6	19
	Low	12	4	16
	Total	25	10	35

Hypothesis 1 predicted that there would be more high scores on the Program Evaluation Survey if the LBDQ subscore of Initiating Structure were high than if it were low. Using the binomial tables for $n=9$, $p=.5$, the probability was .08, which is not significant. Thus, the hypothesis that there is a significant difference between groups is not supported by the data. A larger sample may have provided a level of significance sufficient to support this hypothesis. Although 36 presidents returned the LBDQs in quantities of between 5 and 10 per college, one Program Evaluation Inventory from one community college was not returned with the other survey instruments.

Program Evaluation and Relationship Orientation

A two-dimensional table was used in the process of determining whether there would be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents who scored low on the measure of relationship orientation than implemented by community college presidents who scored high on the measure of relationship orientation. The LBDQ subscore of Consideration was used as a measure of relationship orientation, and all Consideration subscores on the LBDQ responses from each community college were averaged to give each college only one score, i.e., the average of all LBDQ responses. The number of presidents who scored high was based on the mean (44.7) from the same sample of 64 educational administrators used in the Initiating Structure subscore (Halpin, p. 8). Scores greater than the mean of this sample were classified as "high," and scores equal to or less than the mean were classified as "low." To determine high or low on the Program Evaluation Inventory, the median of the sample in the study (81) was used. Those scores greater than 81 were labeled "high," and those 81 or less were labeled "low." Table 2 reflects the count for each category. Hypothesis 2 predicted that there would be more high scores on the Program Evaluation Inventory if the LBDQ subscore of Consideration were low than if it were high. Using the binomial tables for $n=19$, $p=.5$, the probability was .03, which is significant at the

Table 2

Contingency Table for Program Evaluation Survey
and Consideration

		<u>Consideration</u>		
		High	Low	Total
Program Evaluation Survey	High	5	14	19
	Low	3	13	16
	Total	8	27	35

.05 level. Therefore, the data support the hypothesis that there would be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents who scored low on the measure of relationship orientation than implemented by community college presidents who scored high on the measure of relationship orientation.

Program Evaluation, Task Orientation, and
Relationship Orientation

When a combination of task orientation measures and consideration measures was examined in relation to quality of academic program evaluation, the three variables were combined to produce a two-dimensional table. Hypothesis 3 was that there would be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents who scored high on task orientation measures and low on relationship orientation measures

than implemented by those who scored low on task orientation measures and high on relationship orientation measures. Testing this hypothesis led to creating a group of community college presidents that was high on the LBDQ subscore of Initiating Structure and low on the subscore of Consideration. The divisions into high and low of each group were based on the 64 educational administrators' means for Initiating Structure and Consideration in the Manual (Halpin, p. 8). Those groups had already been identified for the data analysis in the two previous hypotheses. The second dimension was the subscore on the Program Evaluation Survey, also grouped previously into high and low based on the median of 81 for the research study.

Table 3 depicts these two dimensions.

Table 3

Contingency Table for Program Evaluation Survey
and Initiating Structure and Consideration

<u>Initiating Structure and Consideration</u>				
		High-Low	Low-High	Total
Program	High	9	1	10
Evaluation	Low	10	1	11
Survey	Total	19	2	21

Using the binomial tables for $n=10$, $p=.5$, the probability was .01 which is significant beyond the .05 level. Thus, the hypothesis that there would be a significantly greater

incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents who scored high on task orientation measures and low on relationship orientation measures than implemented by those who scored low on task orientation measures is supported.

Program Evaluation and Situational Control

Data were gathered from the community college presidents to rate the situational control of the president. The situational control score was computed by totaling scores from three scales: Leader Member Relations scale, Task Structure scale, and Position Power scale. The Task Structure scale included an adjustment for training and experience with the task of academic program evaluation. Using the guidelines set by Fiedler who developed these scales, a total score was calculated for each president responding to the survey. Thirty-six of the 40 presidents responded for a response rate of 90%. The scores were grouped into high, moderate, and low, using Fiedler's divisions of 51-70 as high, 31-50 as moderate, and 10-30 as low.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that there would be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents with high situational control than implemented by community college presidents with moderate situational control. Thus, the values of the program Evaluation Survey served as one

dimension of the grouping while the results of the Situational Control Scales of Fiedler provided the other dimension.

Table 4 reveals the results in this study.

Table 4

Contingency Table for Program Evaluation Survey
and Situational Control

		<u>Situational Control</u>		
		High	Moderate	Total
Program Evaluation Survey	High	15	4	19
	Low	11	3	14
	Total	26	7	33

Using the binomial tables from $n=19$, $p=.5$, the probability was .01 which is significant beyond the .05 level. A significant difference was found between the two groups in the study. Therefore, the hypothesis that there would be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents with high situational control than implemented by community college presidents with moderate situational control is supported.

Similarly, the prediction was made that there will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents with low situational control than implemented by community college presidents with moderate situational

control. The data gathered from the Situational Control Scales and from the Program Evaluation Survey form the two dimensions of Hypothesis 5. Table 5 depicts the data from this study.

Table 5

Contingency Table for Program Evaluation Survey
and Situational Control

		<u>Situational Control</u>		
		Moderate	Low	Total
Program Evaluation Survey	High	4	0	4
	Low	3	1	4
	Total	7	1	8

Using the binomial tables for $n=4$, $p=.5$, the probability was 1.0, which is not significant at the .05 level. The hypothesis that there would be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents with low situational control than implemented by community college presidents with moderate situational control is not supported.

Program Evaluation, Situational Control, and Task
or Relationship Orientation

The data gathered on the three instruments were used to test Hypothesis 6 which states that there would be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents high

on measures of task orientation and high on measures of situational control than implemented by community college presidents high on measures of consideration and moderate on measures of situational control. The findings from this combination of the data are displayed in Table 6.

Table 6

Contingency Table for Program Evaluation Survey
and Initiating Structure, Consideration,
and Situational Control

		<u>Initiating Structure, Consideration, and</u> <u>Situational Control</u>							
		LLH	LHH	HLL	HLM	HLH	HHM	HHH	Total
Program Evaluation Survey	High	5	1	0	4	5	0	4	19
	Low	2	1	1	2	7	1	1	15
	Total	7	2	1	6	12	1	5	34

Note. L=Low; H=High; M=Moderate. The abbreviations reflect the scores on Initiating Structure, Consideration, and Situational Control, respectively.

Table 7 focuses on the two groups identified in the hypothesis. The first group consisted of those high on the Program Evaluation Survey, Initiating Structure subscore, and Situational Control score. The second group was also high on the Program Evaluation Survey and moderate on the Situational Control score, but it was high on the Consideration subscore. Using the binomial tables for $n=9$, $p=.5$, the probability was .00 which is significant beyond the .05 level. Therefore, the hypothesis that there would be a significantly greater

Table 7

Contingency Table for High Program Evaluation and
Selected Combinations of Initiating Structure,
Consideration, and Situational Control

		<u>Initiating Structure, Consideration, and Situational Control</u>	
		HLH and HHH	HHM
Program Evaluation Survey	High	9	0

Note. H=High; L=Low; M=Moderate. The abbreviations reflect the scores on Initiating Structure, Consideration, and Situational Control, respectively.

incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents high on measures of task orientation and high on measures of situation control than implemented by community college presidents high on measures of consideration and moderate on measures of situational control is supported.

Using data gathered from these three instruments, the final hypothesis was tested. Hypothesis 7 predicted that there would be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by presidents who were high on measures of task orientation and low on measures of situational control than implemented by presidents who were high on measures of relationship orientation and moderate on measures of situational control. Table 8 focuses on the two groups identified in this hypothesis.

Table 8

Contingency Table for High Program Evaluation and Other
Selected Combinations of Initiating Structure,
Consideration, and Situational Control

		<u>Initiating Structure, Consideration, and Situational Control</u>	
		HLL	HHM
Program Evaluation Survey	High	0	0

Note. H=High; L=Low; M=Moderate. The abbreviations reflect the scores on Initiating Structure, Consideration, and Situational Control, respectively.

The first group consisted of those presidents high on the Program Evaluation Survey, high on the Initiating Structure subscore, and low on the Situational Control Scales. The second group consisted also of those presidents high on the Program Evaluation Survey, but these presidents were moderate on the Situational Control Score and high on the Consideration subscore. No observations were made in either of these two groups in this study; therefore, no statement of significance can be made based on this sample.

Summary

Results from the data gathered were analyzed and, of the seven hypotheses in the study, four (Hypotheses 2, 3, 4, and 6) were supported by significant findings, and two (Hypotheses 1 and 5) were not supported on the basis of

non-significant findings. Data for Hypothesis 7 yielded no observations and did not support a statement of significance.

Measures on the LBDQ's subscales of Consideration and Initiating Structure and on the Situational Control Scales that were found to be significant in predicting in the direction of high academic program evaluation in community colleges were as follows: (a) low scores on Consideration rather than high on Consideration; (b) high scores on Initiating Structure and low scores on Consideration rather than low on Initiating Structure and high on Consideration; (c) high scores on Situational Control rather than moderate on Situational Control; and (d) high scores on Initiating Structure and high scores on Situational Control rather than high on Consideration and moderate on Situational Control.

Measures on the LBDQ's subscales of Consideration and Initiating Structure and on the Situational Control Scales that were not found to be significant in predicting in the direction of high evaluation of academic programs in community colleges were as follows: (a) high scores on Initiating Structure rather than low on Initiating Structure, and (b) low scores on Situational Control rather than moderate on Situational Control.

Measures on the LBDQ's subscales of Consideration and Initiating Structure and on the Situational Control Scales that yielded no observations and, therefore, no statement of significance in predicting in the direction of high evaluation

of academic programs in community colleges, were high scores on Initiating Structure and low scores on Situational Control rather than high score on Consideration and moderate scores on Situational Control.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

This study was designed to benefit leaders such as community college presidents with an increased understanding of the complexity of the leadership situation of academic program evaluation and to identify some factors that can, in certain situations, influence the effectiveness of the leader in implementation of academic program evaluation. To report the meaning and import of the findings of this study, general conclusions are summarized and then the results are discussed on a hypothesis-by-hypothesis basis.

General Conclusions

Seven directional hypotheses were tested and the results yielded data on the three main components of the leadership process: the leader or president of the community college, the followers or faculty and/or administrators who work closely with the president, and the situation, in this case, the complex environment in an institution of higher education where the evaluation of academic programs occurs (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Based on the situational theory of leadership of Fiedler's Contingency Theory, effectiveness of leader behavior is contingent upon the demands of the situation in which favorableness to the leader is of

major importance. Measures of favorableness or situational control and measures of leadership style (Consideration and Initiating Structure subscores on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire) as independent variables have predicted relative highness of quality of evaluation of academic programs at community colleges.

Theoretical Implications

Measures of task orientation allowed the researcher to obtain a description of the leadership behavior of the presidents in the study, specifically their leadership behavior concerning the evaluation. Initiating Structure, the dimension on the measure used in Hypotheses 1, 3, 6, and 7, includes orientation toward the products, directiveness, goal facilitation, and task-related communication (Chemers, 1984). Fielder (1977b) found that no one leadership style fits in all situations; rather, style needs to vary according to the degree of control the situation demands. Although support for Hypothesis 1 is not as strong as it would be if it had been found to be significant, one can argue that enough support exists from the findings in Hypotheses 3 and 6 to say that presidents with task-oriented leadership styles may find themselves effective in developing and implementing relatively high quality academic program evaluation.

Support for implications of task-orientation as a desired leadership style in achieving effective academic

program evaluation is partially drawn from Hall and Alfred's (1985) Contingency Model for Leadership Effectiveness. Hall and Alfred's model for analysis of presidential leadership style is built on the underlying concept of Fiedler's theory that leaders are more effective if the "match" between leadership style and the situation presented by the group being led is right for the task or goal. Hall and Alfred suggest that rather than attempting to alter a leadership style which is a relatively fixed personal characteristic, altering the situation of the group through its characteristics (leader-member relations, task structure, or position power of the president) offers a viable option for presidents. In the case of academic program evaluation, presidents, especially relationship-oriented presidents, may consider the implications for greater effectiveness in program evaluation in altering the situation, not one's leadership style. Although the findings in Hypothesis 1 do not support Fiedler's Contingency Theory and Hall and Alfred's Contingency Model for Leadership Effectiveness, Hypotheses 3 and 6 do support Fiedler's Contingency Theory and Hall and Alfred's Contingency Model.

Hypothesis 2 which predicted that there will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents who score low on measures of relationship orientation than implemented by community college presidents who score high on

measures of relationship orientation was found to be significant. Consideration, the dimension on the measure used in Hypothesis 2, includes factors of interpersonal warmth, concern for feelings, and two-way communication (Chemers, 1984). Such traits as the ones associated with measures of Consideration would probably assist any president in achieving any goal, but in this study presidents with relatively high quality academic program evaluation were not as frequently described as high on these traits as they were described as low. Baker (1984), in discussing the decision to evaluate that the president makes, asserts that contingency theory calls for a task-motivated, leader-controlled consultive process in order to gain acceptance by those who are expected to deliver academic quality and student learning. In community colleges where evaluation has been affected by the external environment and mandated by either the state legislature, as was the case in North Carolina in this study, or by an accrediting agency, the president may not be as concerned about acceptance by those who deliver academic quality as in a situation where evaluation is voluntary; presidents who are leading under a mandate to evaluate may be primarily concerned with accomplishing the task, and because of that concern, they may have selected leadership behaviors that are goal-oriented, directive, goal-facilitating, with communication being primarily task-related. Their followers, therefore, respond to measures with descriptors that are low on

Consideration and high on Initiating Structure. Hypothesis 2 concides with the theoretical base provided by Fiedler's model and with assertions made by Baker (1984).

The meaning and import of the findings in Hypothesis 3, which was found to be significant, support Fiedler's Contingency Theory and Hall and Alfred's Contingency Model. Hypothesis 3 predicted a greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents who scored high on task orientation measures and who scored low on relationship orientation measures than implemented by those who scored low on task orientation measures and high on relationship measures. In this study presidents with high quality academic program evaluation were observed by their followers as being oriented toward the achievement of the goal, directive, facilitating the goal, and using task-related communication (Initiating Structure) and at the same time their measures of interpersonal warmth, concern for feelings, and two-way communication (Consideration) were observed to be low more often than low on Initiating Structure while high on Consideration. The implication for Hypothesis 3 is that presidents who possess a leadership style that is task-oriented but who do not at the same time possess a strong measure of relationship-oriented behaviors may likely be successful at developing and implementing high quality academic program evaluation. This finding seems especially likely in North Carolina where evaluation has been

mandated by the legislature as a demand for accountability, a force from the environment external to the daily operation of the community college. However, in other situations concern about acceptance of the leader's goal of high quality academic program evaluation by the followers might change the situation to include a need for a leadership style with high measures of Consideration from the followers. The findings in Hypothesis 3 are consistent with the framework provided to the study by Fiedler's contingency theory and Hall and Alfred's Contingency Model for Leadership Effectiveness.

In an effort to gain insight into how presidents can implement high quality academic program evaluation in the presence of the currently deteriorating economy, dwindling enrollments, bureaucratic red tape, and declining student skills, the researcher considered the complexity of the situation in today's community colleges. The "situation," defined as the group formed by the president, vice-president for academic affairs, and faculty, can be very complex. The characteristics of the situation in this study are defined by Fiedler's Contingency Theory as (a) the leader's position power; (b) the structure of the task; and (c) the interpersonal relationship between leader and follower (Fiedler, 1967). Thus, one of the research questions to be answered in this study was How does the incidence of implementation of high quality academic program evaluation compare among

community college presidents in relation to their degree (high, moderate, low) of situational control?

Hypothesis 4 predicted that there will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents with high situational control than implemented by community college presidents with moderate situational control, and it was found to be significant. The degree to which the situation provides the leader with control and influence determines "situational favorableness" (Fiedler, 1977b). Included as part of this definition is the leader's feeling that the leader can determine the outcomes of the group interaction. In the situation of high control, the leader is given more control and influence, if the members of the group support the leader, if the leader knows exactly what to do and how to do it, and if the organization gives the leader the means to reward or punish the followers. According to Fiedler's Contingency Theory, the effectiveness of the leader is contingent upon the demands of the situation.

In this study, there were more presidents with high quality academic program evaluation who were high on situation control than who were moderate on situational control. The responses to the measure of situational control were from the presidents who perceived themselves as high on the three situational factors (leader/member relations, task structure, and position power) when they were also high on quality of

academic program evaluation. The implication is that community college presidents in this study are leading with a high degree of control in situations that are favorable to the leader. The reasons for this high situational control may be the results of the demands of the task of evaluation of programs, the nature of the position of the president in the context of the North Carolina Community College system, and the relationship between the president and the members of the group or followers.

Since part of Fiedler's Contingency Theory is that the leadership style of the leader (task-oriented or relationship-oriented) determines the leader's effectiveness in relation to the degree of control and influence, Hypothesis 5 predicted there will be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by community college presidents with low situational control than implemented by community college presidents with moderate situational control. However, the findings in this study were not significant. The implication of the lack of significance is that in this study community college presidents with high quality academic program evaluation are not rating themselves low on situational control as often as they are rating themselves moderate. In fact, one can generalize from Hypotheses 4 and 5 that in this study most presidents rated themselves high or moderate on situational control. To relate the degree of situational control directly to

leadership style, which is what Fiedler's Contingency Theory does, Hypotheses 6 and 7 were formulated.

Hypothesis 6 predicted that there would be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by task-oriented community college presidents with high situational control than implemented by relationship-oriented community college presidents with moderate situational control. This hypothesis was found to be significant and to support Fiedler's Contingency Theory which has generalized that leaders who possess a task-oriented leadership style are more likely to be effective in situations which are either highly favorable or highly unfavorable to the leader. High situational control measures are interpreted as "highly favorable" to the leader. On the other hand, relationship-oriented leaders tend to perform best in situations in which their control and influence are moderate (Fiedler, 1977b). In this study there was not as great an incidence of high quality academic program evaluation implemented by presidents with moderate situational control who were also high on measures of relationship orientation as those with high situational control who were also high on measures of task orientation.

These findings support Hypotheses 4 and 5 which found higher measures on situational control related to high quality academic program evaluation. These findings also lend support to the possibility that the climate in the

community colleges of this study is favorable to high situational control which is effective for task-oriented leadership to develop and implement high quality academic program evaluation. In other words, the match between leadership style and the situation presented by the group being led was right for goal achievement.

Altering leadership style, a relatively fixed personal characteristic, is not regarded as an implication of the study (Hall & Alfred, 1985). A more viable option to consider is attempting to alter the group through its characteristics of leader-member relations, task structure, and position power of the leader. In community colleges where academic program evaluation is an elected or voluntary process, the leader will need to be concerned with acceptance by the members of the group. If academic program evaluation is mandated, concern can center more on task accomplishment. Using Fiedler's model as a conceptual base, the researcher predicted and found support for the idea that, depending upon the demands of three situational factors (leader-member relations, task structure, and position power), community college presidents who have implemented high quality academic program evaluation are more likely to display task-oriented leadership behavior than those who have not implemented high quality academic program evaluation.

Hypothesis 7 predicted that there would be a significantly greater incidence of high quality academic program

evaluation implemented by task-oriented community college presidents with low situational control than implemented by relationship-oriented community college presidents with moderate situational control; however, in this study there were no presidents who had implemented high quality academic program evaluation that were task-oriented with low situational control, nor were there any who were relationship-oriented with moderate situational control. The sample may not have been large enough to test this hypothesis adequately.

Practical Implications

When faced with the task of developing and implementing academic program evaluation, leaders of community colleges may wish to consider carefully several points:

1. Whether the academic program evaluation is required by an outside group, such as a state legislature or an accrediting agency; and
2. What degree of control is required by the situation by asking the following:
 - a. What is the relationship between the leader and the members of the group?
 - b. Has the task of academic program evaluation been well-structured by a leader who knows and understands the task?
 - c. Does the leader have the cooperation of the members of the group and the power to reward or punish their actions?

In general, the practical implication is that leaders need to be aware of the demands of a situation, realizing that the effectiveness of the leader is contingent upon those demands. After analyzing the situation and the leadership style of the leader, ideally the right match could be made; however, if the style of the leader does not match the demands of the situation, attempts at altering the group through its characteristics of leader-member relations, task structure, and position power of the leader is a more viable option than attempts at altering a leadership style.

Suggestions for Further Research

Further research needs to be done to identify the demands of the situation of academic program evaluation, especially in structuring the task. Leaders need to have available a model of program evaluation to study or a detailed description of a finished program evaluation. Leaders who have had little or no training in program evaluation need to study the step-by-step procedures which indicate at least a general process to be followed. Most of all, the demands of the situation of academic program evaluation that exceed Fiedler's leader-member relations, task structure, and position power of the leader need to be identified.

In addition, method of altering the situation to fit the leadership style of the president need further research. In situations where academic program evaluation is voluntary

rather than mandated, further research is needed to determine if the best leadership style is one that is high on both Consideration and Initiating Structure and, if so, to determine how a leader can combine the best of both task orientation and relationship orientation or to simplify the situation in some manner.

Finally, Hypotheses 1 and 7 seem to need further testing using a larger sample size. Hypothesis 7 needs further testing because there were no presidents whose measures of leader behavior were both high on Initiating Structure and low on situational control or high on Consideration and moderate on situational control. This hypothesis represented a key portion of Fiedler's Contingency Theory, i.e., that task-oriented leaders perform more effectively if situational control is either high or low (low in the case of Hypothesis 7) and relationship oriented leaders perform more effectively if situational control is moderate. A larger sample size might yield sufficient data to test this hypothesis.

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Gentlemen:

I am writing to follow-up two previous letters dated February 19, 1991, and March 11, 1991. The first letter was to request changes in the Leader Match Scales in the following book:

Fiedler, F.E., Chemers, M.M., and Mahar, L. (1976).
Improving leadership effectiveness: the leader match
concept. New York: Wiley.

The second letter contained a copy of the suggested changes. This letter contains an amended version of those changes that resulted from suggestions by the chairman of my dissertation committee. I am using these scales as part of my research.

I apologize for this complication in the request process. Your every consideration is appreciated.

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APPENDIX B
SITUATIONAL CONTROL SCALE

LEADER-MEMBER RELATIONS SCALE

Circle the number which best represents your response to each item.

1. The people I supervise have trouble getting along with each other.
2. My subordinates are reliable and trustworthy.
3. There seems to be a friendly atmosphere among the people I supervise.
4. My subordinates always cooperate with me in getting the job done.
5. There is friction between my subordinates and myself.
6. My subordinates give me a good deal of help and support in getting the job done.
7. The people I supervise work well together in getting the job done.
8. I have good relations with the people I supervise.

strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1
1	2	3	4	5
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1

Total Score

TASK STRUCTURE RATING SCALE — PART I

<i>Circle the number in the appropriate column.</i>	Usually True	Sometimes True	Seldom True
Is the Goal Clearly Stated or Known?			
1. Is there a blueprint, picture, model or detailed description available of the finished product or service?	2	1	0
2. Is there a person available to advise and give a description of the finished product or service, or how the job should be done?	2	1	0
Is There Only One Way to Accomplish the Task?			
3. Is there a step-by-step procedure, or a standard operating procedure which indicates in detail the process which is to be followed?	2	1	0
4. Is there a specific way to subdivide the task into separate parts or steps?	2	1	0
5. Are there some ways which are clearly recognized as better than others for performing this task?	2	1	0
Is There Only One Correct Answer or Solution?			
6. Is it obvious when the task is finished and the correct solution has been found?	2	1	0
7. Is there a book, manual, or job description which indicates the best solution or the best outcome for the task?	2	1	0
Is It Easy to Check Whether the Job Was Done Right?			
8. Is there a generally agreed understanding about the standards the particular product or service has to meet to be considered acceptable?	2	1	0
9. Is the evaluation of this task generally made on some quantitative basis?	2	1	0
10. Can the leader and the group find out how well the task has been accomplished in enough time to improve future performance?	2	1	0

SUBTOTAL

TASK STRUCTURE RATING SCALE — PART 2

Training and Experience Adjustment

NOTE: Do not adjust jobs with task structure scores of 6 or below.

- (a) Compared to others in this or similar positions, how much *training* has the leader had?

<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0</u>
No training at all	Very little training	A moderate amount of training	A great deal of training

- (b) Compared to others in this or similar positions, how much *experience* has the leader had?

<u>6</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0</u>
No experience at all	Very little experience	A moderate amount of experience	A great deal of experience

Add lines (a) and (b) of the training and experience adjustment, then *subtract* this from the subtotal given in Part 1.

Subtotal from Part 1.

Subtract training and experience adjustment

Total Task Structure Score

POSITION POWER RATING SCALE

Circle the number which best represents your answer.

1. Can the leader directly or by recommendation administer rewards and punishments to his subordinates?

2
Can act directly or
can recommend
with high effectiveness

1
Can recommend but
with mixed results

0
No

2. Can the leader directly or by recommendation affect the promotion, demotion, hiring or firing of his subordinates?

2
Can act directly or can
recommend with
high effectiveness

1
Can recommend but
with mixed results

0
No

3. Does the leader have the knowledge necessary to assign tasks to subordinates and instruct them in task completion?

2
Yes

1
Sometimes or in some
aspects

0
No

4. Is it the leader's job to evaluate the performance of his subordinates?

2
Yes

1
Sometimes or in some
aspects

0
No

5. Has the leader been given some official title of authority by the organization (e.g., foreman, department head, platoon leader)?

2
Yes

0
No

Total

SITUATIONAL CONTROL SCALE

Enter the total scores for the Leader-Member Relations dimension, the Task Structure scale, and the Position Power scale in the spaces below. Add the three scores together and compare your total with the ranges given in the table below to determine your overall situational control.

1. *Leader-Member Relations Total*

2. *Task Structure Total*

3. *Position Power Total*

Grand Total

Total Score	51 - 70	31 - 50	10 - 30
Amount of Situational Control	High Control	Moderate Control	Low Control

APPENDIX C
SITUATIONAL CONTROL SCALE
(AS ADAPTED)

A SET OF THREE SCALES

1. LEADER-MEMBER RELATIONS SCALE¹
(To be completed by the President)

Circle the letter which best represents your response to each item.
(SA=Strongly agree, A=Agree, N=Neither agree nor disagree, D=Disagree,
SD=Strongly disagree)

- | | | | | | | |
|----|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1. | The people I lead have trouble getting along with each other. | SA | A | N | D | SD |
| 2. | My subordinates are reliable and trustworthy. | SA | A | N | D | SD |
| 3. | There seems to be a friendly atmosphere among the people I lead. | SA | A | N | D | SD |
| 4. | My subordinates always cooperate with me in getting the job of program evaluation done. | SA | A | N | D | SD |
| 5. | There is friction between my subordinates and myself. | SA | A | N | D | SD |
| 6. | My subordinates give me a good deal of help and support in getting the job of program evaluation done. | SA | A | N | D | SD |
| 7. | The people I lead work well together in getting the job of program evaluation done. | SA | A | N | D | SD |
| 8. | I have good relations with the people I lead. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

¹From Improving leadership effectiveness: the leader match concept (Five unnumbered pages after p. 219) by F. E. Fiedler, M. M. Chemers, and L. Mahar, 1976, New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. Copyright © 1976 by John Wiley & Sons. Reprinted by permission.

2. TASK STRUCTURE RATING SCALE-PART I
(To be completed by the President)

The following questions are to be answered by circling the letter a, b, or c under the proper heading of (a) Usually True (b) Sometimes True or (c) Seldom True. Keep in mind the "task" being surveyed is that of academic program evaluation at your community college.

	Usually True	Sometimes True	Seldom True
1. Is there a model or detailed description available of a finished program evaluation?	a	b	c
2. Is there a person available to advise and give a description of the finished program evaluation, or how the job should be done?	a	b	c
3. Is there a step-by-step procedure or a standard operating procedure which indicates in detail the process which is to be followed?	a	b	c
4. Is there a specific way to subdivide the task of program evaluation into separate parts or steps?	a	b	c
5. Are there some ways which are clearly recognized as better than others for performing the task of program evaluation?	a	b	c
6. Is it obvious when program evaluation is finished that it has been completed correctly?	a	b	c
7. Is there a book, manual, or job description which indicates the best method of completing program evaluation?	a	b	c
8. Is there a generally agreed understanding about the standards program evaluation has to meet to be considered acceptable?	a	b	c
9. Is the evaluation of program evaluation generally made on some quantitative basis?	a	b	c
10. Can the president and his/her subordinates find out how well program evaluation has been conducted in enough time to improve future performance?	a	b	c

TASK STRUCTURE RATING SCALE--PART II
Training and Experience Adjustment
(To be completed by the President)

Circle the letter which best represents your answer.

1. How much training in program evaluation have you had?

 a
No training
at all

 b
Very little
training

 c
A moderate amount
of training

 d
A great deal
of training

2. How much experience in program evaluation have you had?

 a
No experience
at all

 b
Very little
experience

 c
A moderate amount
of experience

 d
A great deal
of experience

3. POSITION POWER RATING SCALE
(To be completed by the President)

Circle the letter which best represents your answer.

1. Can you (the president) directly or by recommendation administer rewards and punishments to your subordinates?

<u> a </u>	<u> b </u>	<u> c </u>
Can act directly or can recommend with high effectiveness	Can recommend but with mixed results	No

2. Can you directly or by recommendation affect the promotion, demotion, hiring, or firing of your subordinates?

<u> a </u>	<u> b </u>	<u> c </u>
Can act directly or can recommend with high effectiveness	Can recommend but with mixed results	No

3. Do you have the knowledge necessary to assign program evaluation tasks to subordinates?

<u> a </u>	<u> b </u>	<u> c </u>
Yes	Sometimes or in some aspects	No

4. Do you have the knowledge necessary to instruct subordinates in completion of program evaluation tasks?

<u> a </u>	<u> b </u>	<u> c </u>
Yes	Sometimes or in some aspects	No

5. Is it your job to evaluate the performance of your subordinates?

<u> a </u>	<u> b </u>	<u> c </u>
Yes	Sometimes or in some aspects	No

APPENDIX D
PROGRAM EVALUATION INVENTORY

PROGRAM EVALUATION INVENTORY

The following is an inventory designed to indicate the nature and extent of program evaluation at your community college for the purpose of the research described in the attached letter. Please answer each question as indicated.

For questions 1-8 please circle a letter (A=Always, O=Often, S=Seldom, N=Never, DK=Don't Know) to indicate your answer.

- | | | | | | | |
|----|---|-----|----|---|-----|----|
| 1. | Responsibilities for the program evaluation (such as method, management plan, time required, personnel needs, monitoring, contracts) are agreed to in writing. | A | O | S | N | DK |
| | | [2 | 1 | 0 | -1] | |
| 2. | Evaluation data are gathered according to a carefully thought-out plan. | A | O | S | N | DK |
| | | [4 | 3 | 1 | -4] | |
| 3. | Formal procedures exist to comply with established standards to protect the rights of individuals (e.g., right to privacy) in the group being evaluated. | A | O | S | N | DK |
| | | [4 | 3 | 1 | -4] | |
| 4. | A lay reader (e.g., student, alumnus, member of board of trustees) can easily discern the positive and the negative aspects of the program as stated in the report. | A | O | S | N | DK |
| | | [2 | 1 | 0 | -2] | |
| 5. | The process of evaluation of programs interrupts the day-to-day functioning of the college. | A | O | S | N | DK |
| | | [-3 | -2 | 2 | 3] | |
| 6. | Program evaluators provide written reports of the evaluations. | A | O | S | N | DK |
| | | [5 | 4 | 1 | -5] | |
| 7. | In the preparation of written evaluation reports, program evaluators do the following: | | | | | |
| | a. Tailor the report to fit the audience's level of understanding. | A | O | S | N | DK |
| | | [2 | 1 | 0 | -1] | |
| | b. Avoid jargon | A | O | S | N | DK |
| | | [2 | 1 | 0 | -1] | |
| | c. Use print of high quality | A | O | S | N | DK |
| | | [2 | 1 | 0 | -1] | |
| | d. Include graphics, spacing, and color appropriately | A | O | S | N | DK |
| | | [2 | 1 | 0 | -1] | |
| | e. Provide attractive cover | A | O | S | N | DK |
| | | [2 | 1 | 0 | -1] | |
| | f. Make realistic recommendations | A | O | S | N | DK |
| | | [2 | 1 | 0 | -1] | |
| 8. | There is actual cost budgeting for evaluation of programs at your community college. | A | O | S | N | DK |
| | | [4 | 3 | 1 | -4] | |

Please answer questions 9-20 as indicated.

9. Final written evaluation reports typically include the following:
(Check all that apply.)
- | | <u>Points</u> |
|--|---------------|
| a. <input type="checkbox"/> Summary (or Abstract) | 1 |
| b. <input type="checkbox"/> Summary (or Abstract) with dissenting opinions | 3 |
| c. <input type="checkbox"/> Introduction | 1 |
| d. <input type="checkbox"/> Description of evaluation activities | 1 |
| e. <input type="checkbox"/> Results with summary of data | 2 |
| f. <input type="checkbox"/> Conclusions | 1 |
| g. <input type="checkbox"/> Recommendations | 1 |
| h. <input type="checkbox"/> Dissenting opinions | 3 |
10. Program evaluation at your community college began (Check one.)
- | | |
|--|---|
| a. <input type="checkbox"/> Before October 1989 (date of adoption of policy on program review by State Board of the Department of Community Colleges). | 5 |
| b. <input type="checkbox"/> After October 1989 | 0 |
11. Please indicate the number of administrators (including department heads) in your community college who have program evaluation assigned formally in their job descriptions.
- | | |
|--|------------|
| a. # <input type="text"/> As part of a full-time job | number x 3 |
| b. # <input type="text"/> As a full-time job | number x 6 |
12. Which ONE of the following statements best typifies the view of most of the administrators in your community college of the purpose of program evaluation?
- | | |
|--|---|
| a. <input type="checkbox"/> Evaluation of programs takes place because it is required. | 1 |
| b. <input type="checkbox"/> Evaluation activities seem to be voluntarily performed with willingness. | 6 |
| c. <input type="checkbox"/> Although evaluation of programs is not particularly enjoyable, the need for it is understood, and the work is always accomplished. | 3 |
13. Which of the following roles does evaluation play in your community college? (Check all that apply.)
- | | |
|--|---|
| a. <input type="checkbox"/> To accredit | 1 |
| b. <input type="checkbox"/> To provide a basis for decision-making | 1 |
| c. <input type="checkbox"/> To monitor funds from internal sources | 1 |
| d. <input type="checkbox"/> To improve courses and programs | 1 |
| e. <input type="checkbox"/> To assess student achievement | 1 |
14. Check the percentage of programs in your community college that have been evaluated in the last year: (Check one.)
- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| a. <input type="checkbox"/> More than 90% | 5 | d. <input type="checkbox"/> 20%-40% | 2 |
| b. <input type="checkbox"/> 60%-90% | 4 | e. <input type="checkbox"/> Less than 20% | 1 |
| c. <input type="checkbox"/> 40%-60% | 3 | | |

15. Check the average frequency with which the least often evaluated program is evaluated at your community college: (Check one.)
- | | | | |
|---|----|--|---|
| a. <input type="checkbox"/> Never | -3 | d. <input type="checkbox"/> Every 4-5 years | 7 |
| b. <input type="checkbox"/> Every year | 10 | e. <input type="checkbox"/> Every 6-10 years | 5 |
| c. <input type="checkbox"/> Every 2-3 years | 8 | | |
16. Check the frequency with which the most often evaluated program is evaluated at your community college: (Check one.)
- | | | | |
|---|----|--|----|
| a. <input type="checkbox"/> Never | -3 | d. <input type="checkbox"/> Every 4-5 years | -1 |
| b. <input type="checkbox"/> Every year | 10 | e. <input type="checkbox"/> Every 6-10 years | -2 |
| c. <input type="checkbox"/> Every 2-3 years | 8 | | |
17. Evaluation of programs is usually conducted by (Check one.)
- | | |
|--|---|
| a. <input type="checkbox"/> Someone within your community college | 3 |
| b. <input type="checkbox"/> Someone outside your community college | 5 |
| c. <input type="checkbox"/> Both of the above | 4 |
18. Which of the following groups have direct involvement in identifying and selecting questions, criteria, and issues to be evaluated at your community college? (Check all that apply.)
- | | |
|---|---|
| a. <input type="checkbox"/> Students | 1 |
| b. <input type="checkbox"/> Faculty | 1 |
| c. <input type="checkbox"/> Professional Staff | 1 |
| d. <input type="checkbox"/> Administration (including department heads) | 1 |
| e. <input type="checkbox"/> Board of Trustees | 1 |
| f. <input type="checkbox"/> Department of Community Colleges | 1 |
| g. <input type="checkbox"/> Alumni | 1 |
| h. <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please specify group) _____ | 1 |
19. Which of the following groups usually receive copies of evaluation reports at your community college? (Check all that apply.)
- | | |
|---|---|
| a. <input type="checkbox"/> Students | 1 |
| b. <input type="checkbox"/> Faculty | 1 |
| c. <input type="checkbox"/> Professional Staff | 1 |
| d. <input type="checkbox"/> Administration (including department heads) | 1 |
| e. <input type="checkbox"/> Board of Trustees | 1 |
| f. <input type="checkbox"/> Department of Community Colleges | 1 |
| g. <input type="checkbox"/> Alumni | 1 |
| h. <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please specify group) _____ | 1 |

20. Which of the following would evaluators at your community college be likely to do before evaluation begins? (Check all that apply.)
- | | |
|---|----|
| a. <input type="checkbox"/> Estimate time for each evaluation activity. | 3 |
| b. <input type="checkbox"/> Estimate number of personnel needed. | 3 |
| c. <input type="checkbox"/> Analyze and interpret data. | -3 |
| d. <input type="checkbox"/> Estimate costs. | 3 |
| e. <input type="checkbox"/> Structure an evaluation budget. | 3 |
| f. <input type="checkbox"/> Review for ethical and legal considerations. | 3 |
| g. <input type="checkbox"/> Plan to evaluate the evaluation design. | 3 |
| h. <input type="checkbox"/> Plan to monitor adherence to the evaluation design. | 3 |
| i. <input type="checkbox"/> Plan to revise the evaluation design. | 3 |
| j. <input type="checkbox"/> Evaluate the evaluations. | -3 |

When program evaluations are done at your institution, are the following ideas or issues addressed? On questions 21-30 please circle the correct letters to indicate your answer. (SA=Strongly agree, A=Agree, D=Disagree, SD=Strongly disagree)

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| 21. Efforts are made to determine validity of the instrument(s) used to gather information (i.e., an effort is made to see if instruments measure what they purport to measure). | SA A D SD
[2 1 -1 -2] |
| 22. Efforts are made to determine reliability of the instruments used to gather information (i.e., an effort is made to see if the instrument gives similar results for similar programs). | SA A D SD
[2 1 -1 -2] |
| 23. Sources of bias (such as amount of control the employer has over the evaluator's job, distortions from background or experience of evaluator, limitations in information processing) are likely to be controlled for. | SA A D SD
[2 1 -1 -2] |
| 24. Locally developed methods of data gathering are not likely to be field tested in a preliminary pilot study. | SA A D SD
[-2 -1 1 2] |
| 25. Methods of data gathering are designed to give accurate information. | SA A D SD
[2 1 -1 -2] |
| 26. The rationale used to interpret the findings of the program evaluations is formally described. | SA A D SD
[2 1 -1 -2] |
| 27. Quantitative information (e.g., the results of standardized testing) is appropriately analyzed to ensure supportable interpretations. | SA A D SD
[2 1 -1 -2] |
| 28. Qualitative information (e.g., anecdotal records of a classroom observation) is appropriately analyzed to ensure supportable interpretations. | SA A D SD
[2 1 -1 -2] |
| 29. The college has a program evaluation plan for evaluators to follow. | SA A D SD
[2 1 -1 -2] |
| 30. There is general agreement that the program evaluation plan is the one that best suits everybody's needs. | SA A D SD
[2 1 -1 -2] |

APPENDIX E
COVER LETTER TO PARTICIPATING PRESIDENT

Guilford Technical Community College
Post Office Box 309
Jamestown, North Carolina 27282
March 15, 1991

Dear Participating President:

This package contains three survey instruments: 1) Leader Member Relations Scales and others; 2) Program Evaluation Inventory; and 3) Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire.

I'd like you, the president, to complete the first instrument, consisting of three scales. These scales are designed to yield data regarding the group situation of academic program evaluation at your community college.

The second is an inventory called Program Evaluation Inventory to be answered by the individual on your campus who has been charged with the responsibility of academic program evaluation whether on a full-time or part-time basis. This inventory will give information on the extent and nature of program evaluation at your community college. Please give this to the appropriate person on your campus.

The third instrument is the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. Included are ten (10) copies to be completed by ten people who have been able to observe you in your leadership role in academic program evaluation. This instrument is designed to indicate style of leadership, not quality. I would like you to give one questionnaire to each of the following:

- 1) The chief academic officer;
- 2) The chief of planning and evaluation;
(Note: If 1 and 2 are the same person, only one questionnaire should be completed.)
- 3) Three academic deans from areas such as occupational education, arts and sciences, allied health, or technical areas; and
- 4) Five department heads as follows:
 - a) one from a technical education area;
 - b) one from an occupational education area;
 - c) one from arts and sciences; and
 - d) two other department heads of your choosing.

Included is a cover letter with each questionnaire you are asked to distribute. Self-addressed, stamped envelopes are included for each individual to return the survey directly to me. Thank you for your time and interest in this research.

Sincerely,

Rebecca S. Mann

APPENDIX F

COVER LETTER TO QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONDENTS

Post Office Box 1022
Jamestown, North Carolina 27282
April 20, 1991

Dear Participant:

As part of the research for my doctoral dissertation in Educational Administration at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, I am seeking information about the evaluation of academic programs at several North Carolina community colleges, including yours.

Your president has assisted me in identifying you to answer the attached questionnaire entitled Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. This questionnaire contains items to describe the leadership behavior of your president concerning the evaluation of academic programs at your community college. You will not be judging whether that behavior is desirable or undesirable; instead, each item describes a specific behavior.

As you respond to the questionnaire, please think of evaluation as an inclusive process, not one related only to accreditation. Then use the questionnaire to describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your president in relation to evaluation of academic programs.

You are asked NOT to sign your name anywhere on the questionnaire to protect your privacy rights and anonymity. Please return the questionnaire directly to me in the self-addressed stamped envelope provided.

Sincerely,

Rebecca S. Mann

APPENDIX G
LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

**Developed by staff members of
The Ohio State Leadership Studies**

Name of Leader Being Described _____

Name of Group Which He/She Leads _____

Your Name _____

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the behavior of your supervisor. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. This is not a test of ability. It simply asks you to describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your supervisor.

Note: The term, "*group*," as employed in the following items, refers to a department, division, or other unit of organization which is supervised by the person being described.

The term "*members*," refers to all the people in the unit of organization which is supervised by the person being described.

Published by

**College of Administrative Science
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio 43210**

DIRECTIONS:

- a. READ each item carefully.
- b. THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.
- c. DECIDE whether he/she always, often, occasionally, seldom or never acts as described by the item.
- d. DRAW A CIRCLE around one of the five letters following the item to show the answer you have selected.

A = Always
 B = Often
 C = Occasionally
 D = Seldom
 E = Never

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Does personal favors for group members. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 2. Makes his/her attitudes clear to the group. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 3. Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 4. Tries out his/her new ideas with the group. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 5. Acts as the real leader of the group. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 6. Is easy to understand. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 7. Rules with an iron hand. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 8. Finds time to listen to group members. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 9. Criticizes poor work. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 10. Gives advance notice of changes. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 11. Speaks in a manner not to be questioned. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 12. Keeps to himself/herself. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 13. Looks out for the personal welfare of individual group members. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 14. Assigns group members to particular tasks. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 15. Is the spokesperson of the group. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 16. Schedules the work to be done. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 17. Maintains definite standards of performance. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 18. Refuses to explain his/her actions. | A | B | C | D | E |

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19. Keeps the group informed. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 20. Acts without consulting the group. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 21. Backs up the members in their actions. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 22. Emphasizes the meeting of deadlines. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 23. Treats all group members as his/her equals. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 24. Encourages the use of uniform procedures. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 25. Gets what he/she asks for from his/her superiors. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 26. Is willing to make changes. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 27. Makes sure that his/her part in the organization is understood by group members. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 28. Is friendly and approachable. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 29. Asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 30. Fails to take necessary action. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 31. Makes group members feel at ease when talking with them. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 32. Lets group members know what is expected of them. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 33. Speaks as the representative of the group. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 34. Puts suggestions made by the group into operation. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 35. Sees to it that group members are working up to capacity. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 36. Lets other people take away his/her leadership in the group. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 37. Gets his/her superiors to act for the welfare of the group members. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 38. Gets group approval in important matters before going ahead. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 39. Sees to it that the work of group members is coordinated. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 40. Keeps the group working together as a team. | A | B | C | D | E |

APPENDIX H
COVER LETTER FROM DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES

**DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES**

NORTH CAROLINA STATE BOARD OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES
200 W. JONES STREET
RALEIGH, NC 27603-1337

ROBERT W. SCOTT
System President

919-733-7051

April 19, 1991

President James R. Randolph
Wilkes C.C.
P.O. Box 120
Wilkesboro, NC 28697

Dear Jim:

I know that you receive many surveys every year, many of which are being conducted as the basis for doctoral dissertations. Most of you complete these surveys or have them completed for you, but some have begun to disregard these requests. Rebecca Mann of Guilford Technical Community College is administering a survey as part of her dissertation research. I hope that you will respond to her request for assistance. Her surveys are focused on three audiences--the president, selected administrators, and the person in charge of program evaluation at your college.

Rebecca's research explores the relationship between presidential leadership and effective program evaluation. I am writing to encourage your participation in her research because I believe that her topic directly focuses on a major theme raised by the Commission on the Future: namely, the development of effective leadership for our colleges. She will, of course, insure that your rights to privacy and anonymity are protected.

Thank you for your involvement in this project.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read "G. Fouts".

George M. Fouts
Special Assistant to the President