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The Perspective and Practice of Leadership by Managers Within the Virginia Department of Corrections: An Instrumental Case Study

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**THE PERSPECTIVE AND PRACTICE OF LEADERSHIP
BY MANAGERS WITHIN THE VIRGINIA DEPARTMENT OF
CORRECTIONS: AN INSTRUMENTAL CASE STUDY**

by

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ABSTRACT

THE PERSPECTIVE AND PRACTICE OF LEADERSHIP BY MANAGERS WITHIN THE VIRGINIA DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONS: AN INSTRUMENTAL CASE STUDY

Elizabeth M. Gagnon
Old Dominion University, 2008
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This dissertation explores the extent to which the perspective and practice of leadership by managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections (DOC) reflect the Leadership Perspectives Model (LPM), and the extent to which their perspective varies by level of management. The LPM is a model of leadership that consolidates leadership study into five distinct leadership perspectives that managers use in their understanding and practice of leadership. This study builds upon research in which the a LPM was tested and validated within a sample managers from municipal government agencies (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a, 2004b).

The findings of this study reveal that the perspective and practice of leadership by managers at DOC only partially reflect the LPM. In addition, there is only minimal evidence that leadership perspective varies substantially based on level of management. The model was modified based on findings in this study and the modified model shows promise for increasing the overall strength and utility of the model.

This dissertation is dedicated to the generations of women
who have graced my life.

My mother, Betty Munley, who never doubted my ability.
Truly, there are no words to describe her beauty, courage, and love.

My sister, Loriann, who has supported me unfailingly.

You have been my best friend, always.

My daughter, Nicole, who has inspired me beyond measure.

You have filled my life with love, laughter, and joy.

My granddaughter, Elise, who is everything beautiful in life.

You are a precious gift from God.

And to the men who have been by my side.

My husband, Doug, who has shared my life for over 25 years.

You have been my solid rock, my strength, and my support.

My son, Justin, who put the music in my life.

You remind me to keep dreaming, because dreams really do come true.

And to Jesus Christ, my Lord and Savior

Who has blessed me beyond measure.

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There were many individuals at the Virginia Department of Corrections who made this dissertation possible. Steve Smith believed in the project from the start, obtained the approvals necessary to proceed, and kept the project on track all the way to the finish. Words are inadequate to express my gratitude. Bob White took the lead in scheduling the interviews and put many hours of hard work into making the interview schedule convenient for all involved. Thank you, Bob, for your untiring efforts. Patty Leigh Huffman-Chasse always considered the project a team effort, and played a large part in its success by scheduling interviews, providing office space for conducting interviews, and doing anything else that was needed. Patty Leigh, thank you for “making it happen.”

The interviews for this research were conducted at Virginia Department of Corrections' sites throughout the Commonwealth of Virginia. Without fail, I was greeted warmly and treated like "family" at every site I visited. I would like to thank each individual who took the time to make me feel welcome at their facility. And finally, but most importantly, to the 55 individuals who participated in the interviews – you know who you are – thank you from the bottom of my heart.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Ambiguous and conflicting definitions of leadership have confounded leadership scholars and practitioners for the last 100 years. Leadership is a phenomenon that has been widely debated, prolifically researched, extensively discussed in the literature, and yet, somehow, its meaning remains elusive. It has been examined in terms of the traits of leaders, the behaviors of leaders, the situations leaders face, the context in which leadership occurs, and a number of other ways (Yukl, 2006, p. 4). Attempts to define leadership seem to be contingent upon the context and intent of the individual providing the definition (Pfeffer, 1977). In fact, it has been observed that there are as many definitions of leadership as there are people trying to define it (Bass, 1990).

In many organizations the terms management and leadership are used interchangeably, suggesting that leadership falls under the purview of management. Some distinguish between the two by asserting that leadership is “good” management (Bennis, 1989; DePree, 1987). Sometimes the two are differentiated by defining management as dealing with tasks, and leadership as dealing with people (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). The question of whether management and leadership overlap, and where the overlap occurs, continues to be sharply debated in the literature (Rost, 1993; Yukl, 2006; Zaleznik, 1977). In practice, however, managers are being called upon to function as leaders, and the overlap between the two is often unclear. The focus of this dissertation is to gain an understanding of how managers understand leadership.

Gilbert Fairholm (1998) introduced five distinct perspectives of leadership that he believes individuals use to understand and practice leadership. Fairholm’s work was

influenced by Barker's (1992) application of paradigms to organizational behavior. Applying Barker's principals to his leadership model, Fairholm, proposes that the perspective of leadership one holds will influence leadership behavior. Thus, a change in leadership behavior requires a change in leadership perspective. Fairholm's perspectives are depicted as a hierarchy, and he proposes that leaders move up the hierarchy as their leadership perspective enlarges. The perspectives, listed from the lowest order perspective to the highest order perspective, are: leadership as scientific management, leadership as excellence management, values leadership, trust culture leadership, and spiritual (whole-soul) leadership.

In a study by Matthew Fairholm (2004a) the perspectival approach to leadership introduced by Gilbert Fairholm (1998) was operationalized into the Leadership Perspectives Model (LPM). Fairholm's LPM was tested among managers within municipal government organizations, and evidence of all five perspectives was found. He also found anecdotal evidence that as level of management increased, leadership perspective also increased. Fairholm recommended further study to validate his findings that all five perspectives exist and that individuals can and do move through the perspectives.

This research explores the perspective and practice of leadership by managers within the Virginia Department of Corrections (DOC). This chapter provides an overview of the research problem and research questions, a statement of the study's purpose, a review of the research setting, a statement of the contribution of the research, a discussion of the limitations of the study, and information about the organization of subsequent chapters.

Problem Statement

According to Matthew Fairholm (2004a, 2004b), in the absence of agreement about what leadership is and who a leader is understood to be, those who practice leadership do so from very different mindsets. These mindsets reflect different perceptions of leadership, and these perceptions influence one's leadership behavior. For managers who are also expected to act in the capacity of a leader, these different mindsets create confusion about the leadership role. As a result of this confusion, managers who believe they are acting in a leadership capacity may be doing completely different things.

For example, one manager may practice leadership by focusing on the budgeting and allocation of resources, while another may focus on conceiving a vision for the organization, and rallying employees around the vision. Each of these individuals is behaving as a leader, based on his or her perception of leadership; one is focusing on the tasks necessary to get the job done, while the other is focusing on building relationships with the people performing the tasks.

Although the distinction between management and leadership is often made clear in the literature, it is not clear in practice (Rost, 1993). The terms are often used interchangeably, and in most organizations managers are called upon to be leaders (Mintzberg, 1973). If these managers do not see a distinction between management and leadership, or don't understand the distinction, there is ambiguity in the leadership role among managers. The ambiguity can create a scenario where leadership means something different to each manager; while everyone is "doing" leadership, no two are "doing" the same thing. The LPM has the potential to ameliorate this problem by identifying and categorizing the different perceptions managers may hold of leadership.

This research is important in validating the model as operationalized and gaining insight into how perceptions may vary with level of management. If research can verify that managers have different perceptions of leadership and these perceptions can be categorized and defined, then leadership development training can be focused on helping individuals to enlarge their perception of leadership, and provide training on the tools, behaviors, and approaches to followers that are inherent in each perception.

Purpose of the Study

The Leadership Perspectives Model (LPM) was originally conceived by Gilbert Fairholm (1998) as the virtual leadership realities theory, and later more fully developed and tested by Matthew Fairholm (2004a, 2004b). It has been introduced as a model of leadership that supports five separate perspectives of leadership that are held by public managers. These perspectives are considered to be paradigmatic in scope and, as such, shape the manager's practice of leadership in terms of how leadership is defined, the tools and behaviors used on the job and the approaches taken toward followers.

Matthew Fairholm (2004a) conducted a qualitative study to determine if the five perspectives of leadership proposed in the model existed among public managers from local government agencies. He performed a content analysis of 103 essays written by middle and upper level public managers from the District of Columbia government. He also interviewed an additional 30 lower, middle, and upper level public managers from local governments in Arlington, Virginia, the District of Columbia, and Prince Georges County, Maryland. The essays used in his study were written as part of the application process for entrance into the Program in Excellence in Municipal Management (PEMM) at The George Washington University. The interviews were conducted with 10 managers

from District of Columbia municipal government agencies who were graduates of PEMM and 20 public managers who were not involved in the program. In his findings, Fairholm found support for the LPM, with evidence of all five perspectives found in both the content analysis of the essays and the interviews. His research was designed to determine if the model could be supported, and he was able to convincingly support the model. However, in order to further test the reliability of the model, the study needs to be replicated and several limitations need to be addressed (Patton, 2002).

Replication duplicates previous work in an effort to increase generalizability of research findings. Replication is done using the same methods on the same population. Replication with extension means that the study is extended to another population, level of analysis, time frame, or geographical location to determine the extent to which findings may be generalizable (Hubbard, Vetter, & Little, 1998). Such research is critical to knowledge development and considered to be “the route to determining whether research results are useful and can be applied to practical problems” (Hubbard et al., 1998).

The purpose of this replication with extension is to determine the extent to which the perspective and practice of leadership by managers in the DOC reflects the LPM, and to discover the extent to which their perspective varies by level of management. Two research questions are derived from the purpose. The two questions are:

1. *To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections reflect the Leadership Perspectives Model?*

2. *To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections vary by level of management?*

Research Setting

The Virginia Department of Corrections (DOC) is a large public safety organization in the Commonwealth of Virginia that provides for the “administration and operation of correctional institutions and community facilities to ensure the control and supervision of offenders to include the management and coordination of programs and services for offenders once they are released out into the community” (“Agency Strategic Plan,” 2008, p. 9). According to their strategic plan, DOC has experienced a substantially increased workload in the past 10 years. As of May, 2007, the number of inmates was 35,884 inmates, an increase of 32.7 percent over 1997; and the number of offenders under community supervision was 53,261, an increase of 48 percent over 1997. DOC employs approximately 13,000 individuals to staff 43 probation and parole districts, 32 major institutions, 16 work centers, 4 detention centers, 5 diversion centers, 3 regional offices and an academy of staff development. The mission of DOC is to “enhance public safety by controlling and supervising sentenced offenders in a humane, cost-efficient manner, consistent with sound correctional standards” (“Department of Corrections Brief History,” 2008, p. 6). Thus, their stakeholders include the citizens of the Commonwealth of Virginia, victims of crime, and federal, state and local public safety organizations.

The Department is functionally divided into five divisions: Operations Division focuses on management of correctional institutions; Community Corrections Division focuses on probation and parole; Administration Division focuses on general support of

the agency to include procurement, privatization projects, and architectural and engineering services; the Inspector General Division focuses on internal auditing and special investigations; and the Human Resources Division focuses on employment, benefits, and staff development. The organization is geographically divided into West, Central, and East Regions, with a variety of institutions, community corrections, and support services throughout each region ("Functional Structure," 2008).

Leadership training to fill both present and future managerial positions is a major undertaking of DOC. According to the Agency Strategic Plan (2008), DOC created a leadership council in 2004 to develop a program "to enhance the knowledge and skills of selected middle managers to prepare them for the next level of management" (p. 4). As of May, 2007, approximately 100 managers have attended the leadership training. The DOC also provides training for "senior managers to assist them not only in providing leadership and management that they need in their current positions but also to prepare them to step into the broader and higher Executive Team role as positions become available" (p. 4).

The DOC was chosen for this research because it is a large enough organization to provide a sample that has enough managers at each managerial level to contain the study within one organization. Containing the research within a single organization removes the difficulty of coordinating level of management across organizations with precision. Since one of the research questions in this study relates to how perceptions change with level of management, it is important that level of management is precisely and consistently defined.

Contributions of the Study

This study makes three contributions to the body of knowledge. First, the study will determine if the LPM can be supported in a different population and a different geographical region, and to examine model reliability. If the LPM is supported through this study, the findings of the original study will be strengthened, and the results of both studies can be used to continue research efforts on the model.

A second contribution of the study is in the area of leadership development. The study makes a significant contribution to leadership development and training by identifying the importance of perspective in leadership development and providing empirical research to inform leadership development and training. For example, current leadership development training focuses largely on the tools managers use and their approach to followers, without attending to the perspective of leadership the manager holds. The LPM infers that leadership development cannot occur until one's perspective is enlarged. Thus, leadership training should first address the manager's perspective of leadership and facilitate enlargement of the leadership perspective before focusing on leadership tools and approaches.

Finally, the study determines the extent to which one's perspective of leadership varies with level of management. If managers are expected to exhibit more leadership as they move into positions of greater authority, then it is vital to understand if leadership is enlarged with promotion, and, if so, how and when enlargement occurs.

Limitations of the Study

Although using a case study method strengthens the overall design of this study, it also creates a limitation. The limitation present in this research is that the findings could

be attributable to something within the culture of DOC; rather than true differences in perceptions of leadership among the sample.

A second limitation of the study is that it does not lend itself to triangulation. Triangulation provides strength to a study design by combining methods (Patton, 2002). According to Patton, there are four types of triangulation: data triangulation, which uses multiple sources of data; investigator triangulation, which uses multiple investigators; theory triangulation which uses multiple theories; and, methodological triangulation, which uses multiple methods. For this study, data triangulation is not feasible because the only source of information available to determine leadership perspective is the individual. Triangulation through multiple investigators is not feasible because the study is being conducted by a single investigator with a lack of resources to hire additional investigators. Theory triangulation is not feasible because the study is designed to test a specific theory. Therefore, the study focuses specifically on the LPM and is designed to test its constructs. Methodological triangulation is not feasible because there is no instrument currently available to collect quantitative data.

Although triangulation is constrained, the study is tightly designed to mitigate this limitation. Tight designs have a strong theoretical framework, clear research questions, and a precise method for data collection (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Since this research design is highly structured, there is less opportunity for bias and misinterpretation of findings.

Conclusion and Subsequent Chapters

Chapter One has provided an overview of the study, introduced the research problem, research questions, purpose of the study, the research setting, the contributions of the study, and the limitations of the study.

Chapter Two is a literature review that explores the definition of leadership, the differences between leadership and management, the significant eras of leadership theory, and the connection of the literature to the model being tested in the study.

Chapter Three details the instrumental case study approach as a strategy of inquiry and discusses the qualitative interview process, selection of the sample, and the procedures used to analyze the data.

Chapter Four presents the demographic data and the results of data collection using content analysis of the interviews.

Chapter Five provides a discussion of the study findings and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER II

Review of Selected Literature

Introduction

This literature review provides an overview of the many facets of leadership by discussing the main eras of leadership theory and research, and exploring the dominant themes of each era. The eras of leadership theory are trait theory, which began in the early 1900s; behavior theory, which began in the early 1950s; situational theory, which began in the early 1960s; and values leadership theory, which began in the early 1970s. Each of these eras was born out of research from the previous one that pointed out to new ways of understanding leadership. While the historical review of leadership theory allows for pinpointing discrete beginnings of each era, it does not allow for an end point. This is because the era only indicates the dominate research agenda at the time, and not the end of one era and the beginning of another. Throughout the last 100 years, none of the leadership theories have completely fallen off the research agenda. For example, trait theory research was prevalent from the early 1900s through the early 1950s, when researchers began to examine leadership behavior. Still, research on leadership traits exists today and is used to gain a more integrated understanding of leadership.

Although leadership theory does not fit into a neat time sequence with one era ending where another begins, the main facets of each era can be extracted to provide a heuristic overview (Van Wart, 2003). Such an overview is necessary to fully appreciate the complexity of leadership research, and to recognize that depending on the aspect of

the literature one focuses on, leadership can be perceived very differently by different individuals.

Thousands of leadership studies have been performed in the last 100 years. In *Bass and Stodgill's Handbook of Leadership*, (Bass, 1990) many of these studies are examined in depth and their implication for leadership studies discussed (see also Goethals, Sorensen, & Burns, 2004; Yukl, 2006). This literature review provides a broad overview of leadership research and findings for the purpose of highlighting the dominant themes that continue to bear upon the definition and practice of leadership.

Trait Theory

The trait theory of leadership was born out of common misconception in the late 1800s and early 1900s that leaders were born, not made. In this “great man” theory, leaders were assumed to be great men, usually of high social status, who were born with enduring leadership qualities and were, therefore, successful in leadership positions (women of this era were rarely found in leadership positions). Since most of those who had the opportunity to rise as leaders were from the upper class, leadership was thought to be inbred through superior lineage. This point is well made in written material dating back to 1931 when Wiggam (as cited in Bass, 1990) proposed that intermarriage among the elite in society produces a class of people who are biologically superior to the masses, and thus, more capable of leadership. In the same vein, Dowd's 1936 writing (as cited in Bass, 1990) asserts that while every society is made up of individuals with various levels of intelligence and ability, all are led by the superior members of society – the upper class.

In the early 1900's the great man theory gave way to trait theory. Since leaders were thought to be great men with superior abilities that differentiated them from the rest of society, researchers embarked on an effort to identify the traits that these great men possessed (Bass, 1990). Trait theory was different from great man theory in that there were no preconceived notions of whether or not traits were inherited. A leader was thought to be an individual who possessed some combination of traits that made him exceptional and set him apart from others. As a result, much of the early research on leadership focused on identifying the traits or the combination of traits that made one a leader (Yukl, 2006).

Myriad studies were undertaken, each one yielding a different set of traits that were "the" traits that would make a leader successful. These studies evaluated a wide variety of traits including age, height, weight, physique, energy, health, appearance, fluency of speech, intelligence, scholarship, knowledge, judgment, insight, originality, adaptability, introversion-extroversion, dominance, initiative, persistence, ambition, responsibility, integrity, self confidence, mood control, emotional control, social and economic status, social activity, bio-social activity, social skills, popularity, prestige, and cooperation. In an effort to codify these findings, Stodgill (1948) conducted an analysis of 124 trait studies that included the above traits. While Stodgill found that certain traits were relevant in helping a leader to move a group toward goal attainment, he also found that there was no trait or combination of traits that predicted effective leadership. The usefulness of the traits depended on situation. Thus, he concluded "A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the

characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers (Stodgill, 1948, p. 76). In a second meta-analysis of trait research, Mann echoed Stodgill's findings when he stated that "...an individual's leadership status in groups is a joint function of his personality [traits] and the particular group setting [situation]" (Mann, 1959, p.247).

After Stodgill's 1948 analysis, trait studies began to attend more to how managers were selected and the traits and skills necessary for those in formal leadership. This was a departure from older studies that evaluated leadership in many different settings such as children playing on the playground, emergence of informal leaders in social settings, familial leadership, military leadership, public leadership, and business leadership. By focusing only on formal leadership in organizations, the trait studies moved from the study of leadership in general, to the study of leadership in organizations.

Another important difference in the later trait studies was that more statistical tools were available to researchers. This allowed for more in depth data analysis, yielding more robust information. With a more targeted focus on leadership in organizations, and the availability of more robust statistical techniques Stodgill performed another analysis of trait studies in 1974. In this analysis, he included 163 studies that were performed between 1949 and 1970. The results of his analysis, as presented in *Bass and Stodgill's Handbook of Leadership* (Bass, 1990), indicate that, while there are no specific traits or combination of traits that predict the emergence of leadership, there are several traits that may contribute to the success of the leader. However, the traits that contribute to success are not necessarily the same in all situations, or for all leaders. Thus, an individual may emerge as a leader in one situation and not another, or be successful in one leadership situation and not another. Likewise,

several leaders who have different combinations of traits could all be successful in similar situations (Yukl, 2006). Stodgill's second study caused many to abandon trait research in favor of research aimed at identifying the situational relevance of particular traits and skills.

While leader emergence and success can not be predicted solely on leader traits, there have been later studies that have shown trait research to be useful in exploring various aspects of leadership such as charismatic leadership (House & Howell, 1992), narcissistic leadership (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006), and destructive leadership (Schaubroeck, Walumbwa, Ganster, & Kepes, 2007). These studies evaluate specific types of leadership, and examine the traits that appear to correlate with them. Trait research has also been found helpful in determining how followers perceive their leaders using implicit leadership theory.

Implicit leadership theory assumes that the perception of leadership on the part of followers is influenced by the traits of the leader (Lord, DeVader, & Alliger, 1986). In essence, the follower maintains implicit theories about the attributes of a successful leader. When the traits of a leader align with the implicit theories held by followers, the leader will be embraced. Lord, DeVader & Alliger found some correlation between leadership traits that were most often found to be present in leaders in the trait studies, and the traits found to be important to followers in implicit leadership theory. Thus, they found that when leaders possessed the traits found important in implicit leadership theory, followers perceived them to be effective leaders.

The notion that trait theory can have parallel usefulness in examining other aspects of leadership has been found in other studies as well. There is growing evidence

that some traits create a precondition for successful leadership. While traits alone, do not predict leadership success, certain traits may make a leader more successful in leadership behaviors such as visioning, goal setting and role modeling (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). Traits that have been identified as increasing a leader's potential for successful leadership are drive, motivation, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, emotional stability, cognitive ability, charisma, creativity, and flexibility. If a leader possesses most or many of the traits listed above, he or she may have the "right stuff" for leadership. While Kirkpatrick and Locke's research and conclusions don't vary greatly from the conclusions of Stodgill (1948) and Mann (1959), Kirkpatrick and Locke emphasize that many of the traits can be learned. This assertion moves leadership theory from the notion that inbred traits dictate leadership potential to the notion that leadership can be learned.

While trait studies continued to be prevalent on the research agenda until Stodgill's meta analysis in 1974, studies on leadership behavior began to emerge in the late 1930s (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939). These studies became plentiful in 1950 after Stodgill's initial analysis of trait studies. Between 1950 and 1970 research was conducted in both trait theory and behavior theory.

Behavior Theory

Most of the behavior studies undertaken from the 1950s through the mid-1980s followed the general pattern of the classic Ohio State and University of Michigan leadership studies and focused, to a large extent, on two categories of behavior (Yukl, 2006). At the outset, the Ohio State studies set out to identify relevant leadership behaviors and to determine how frequently leaders use such behaviors. Starting with a list of 1800 behaviors and paring it down to 150 behaviors, researchers developed a

preliminary questionnaire to measure leader behaviors. These questionnaires were given to large samples of military (Halpin & Winer, 1957) and civilian (Fleishman, 1953) personnel to determine which behaviors were used by their leaders. When factor analysis was performed on the questionnaire responses, the reported behaviors were reduced to the two broad categories of “consideration” and “initiating structure.”

The consideration category included behaviors that indicated a concern for others and interpersonal relationships. The initiating structure category included behaviors that indicated a concern for initiating a structure of procedures to complete tasks (Yukl, 2006). Subsequently, the measures of consideration and initiating structure behaviors were pared to 40 questions, and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was developed to measure how often each behavior was used by leaders (Fleishman, 1953).

In hundreds of studies by many researchers, the questionnaires were used to determine the levels of consideration and initiating structure that would yield the most effective leadership. The only finding that was consistent among the studies was that leaders who use high levels of consideration engender high levels of subordinate satisfaction. However, there was no evidence that subordinate satisfaction increased leader effectiveness in any way. The findings regarding leader effectiveness were largely inconclusive, indicating that there is no standard of behavior that consistently predicts leader effectiveness (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2006).

Parallel studies at the University of Michigan used the LBDQ in addition to interviews to isolate effective leadership behaviors. Similar to the Ohio State studies, these studies found task-oriented and relations-oriented behaviors to correlate with

effective leadership. Task oriented behaviors in the Michigan studies were similar to initiating structure behaviors in the Ohio State studies, while relations-oriented behaviors were similar to consideration behaviors. Researchers in the Michigan studies also found evidence of a third construct, participative leadership. This construct measured the extent to which the leader involved subordinates in decision making and other leadership activities. However, there was little additional study on the construct of participative leadership, and it never garnered strong support. As with the Ohio State studies, the Michigan studies found that relations-oriented behavior was related to subordinate satisfaction, while the pattern of results regarding leadership effectiveness was inconclusive (Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Yukl, 2006).

The research on relations-oriented and task-oriented behavior propelled consideration of the managerial grid model. This model, developed by Blake and Mouton (1964/1971), was based on the assumption that managers who had a high concern for people and a high concern for task would be the most effective managers. After a large number of studies were conducted using the managerial grid model, an analysis of the findings indicated that the results were largely inconclusive (Yukl, 2006). The lack of consistency with the managerial grid model, as acknowledged by Blake and Mouton (1982), is due to the fact that leaders need to be adaptive in their behavior so that they can accommodate their specific situation. Thus, the usefulness of behaviors other than high concern for people and high concern for task is acknowledged, but the model does not make any assumptions about when to use other behaviors, or the possible outcomes of such behaviors (Blake & Mouton, 1982; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Yukl, 2006).

A final aspect of behavior theory that is worthy of mention is that much of the research on leadership behavior has recently turned to exploring the relationship between a specific behavior or set of behaviors and a specific organizational variable. These studies include such variables as organizational culture (Tsui, Zhang, Wang, Xin, & Wu, 2006), organizational performance (Chung & Lo, 2007), follower interaction (Dasborough, 2006), and team behavior and performance (Burke et al., 2006). While there is much more to be done before specific conclusions can be drawn about behavior theory, current studies are moving beyond the mere focus of identifying behaviors of effective leaders to studying situational variables in which the leaders must function.

Overall, the research on behavior theory has suffered from the same problems found with trait theory research. Yukl summed it up best when he stated that the research reflected "...a tendency to look for simple answers to complex questions" (Yukl, 2006, p. 75). It is doubtful that research will uncover a single trait or a single behavior that will predict leadership success. Research on both trait theory and behavior theory have pointed towards shifting the focus from single traits or behaviors to exploring the ways in which the patterns of traits and/or behaviors interact with the environment, followers, and other situational variables. It is these complex relationships that have become the focus of leadership theory after the mid-1980s (Yukl, 2006).

Situational Theory

Research on both trait and behavior theory led to the belief that situational factors are important determinants of successful leadership. The situational approach to leadership theory examines how the traits and behaviors necessary for effective leadership must change in response to the situation. Thus, effective leader behavior is

contingent upon the situation. This assumes that the leader is able to properly diagnose the situation, and choose the appropriate leadership behavior. Furthermore, this ability to properly diagnose and choose is assumed to be a learned behavior rather than an inbred trait or instinctual behavior.

The earliest situational theory was Fiedler's (1967, 1972) Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) contingency model. In this model, leaders received an LPC score based on responses to a questionnaire that measured how they perceive their least preferred coworker. Leaders who perceived them positively were given a high LPC score, while those who perceived of them negatively were given a low score. Leaders with a high LPC score were thought to have close interpersonal relationship, while those with a low score were thought to be predominately concerned with task. Fiedler went on to develop a matrix that identified various situations and the type of LPC leader that would be successful in each. In doing so, he related the appropriate leadership behavior to specific situations.

In a meta-analysis of the LPC model, it was concluded that the LPC scores support a value-attitude interpretation; meaning that high LPC leaders value relationship while low LPC leaders value task (Rice, 1978). Whether the model has any utility for leaders to assess the situation and respond with a certain behavior is unclear. Perhaps the most significant contribution of the LPC contingency model is to garner interest in situational theories and provide a springboard for new theory development (Yukl, 2006).

The second situational model, the path-goal theory of leadership, is rooted in expectancy theory. The underlying premise of expectancy theory is that a person's attitude or behavior can be predicted by the degree to which the behavior is perceived as

leading to certain outcomes (expectancy) and the value the individual places on these outcomes (valence). According to the theory, individuals will be happy with their job and work hard when it leads to an outcome that has high valence.

In path-goal theory, the behavior of the leader is modified by the situation in an effort to maximize the expectancy and valence of subordinates. The contingencies, or situation modifiers, are the characteristics of the subordinate and the environmental demands. Thus, the leader reacts to the contingencies with the type of behavior that will create the greatest effort on the part of the subordinates (House & Mitchell, 1974). The model provides propositions about various types of situations that the leader may encounter, and the appropriate leader behavior for each situation.

A review of 120 studies on path-goal theory, yielded mixed results about its utility. According to Wofford & Liska, many of the studies found deficiencies in the theory. The most critical deficiency reported is that its foundation in expectancy theory makes it difficult to assess the leader's influence on employee motivation. This critique is not intended to disparage expectancy theory as a motivational theory; rather it questions the utility of expectancy theory as the foundation of path-goal theory. In the absence of another theory that provides a useful foundation for path-goal theory, other contingency theories have been developed to explain leadership effectiveness in terms of situational variables (Yukl, 2006). However, according to Yukl, path-goal theory has made a valuable contribution to the study of leadership by establishing a framework to guide further research regarding leadership behavior and situational variables.

Situational leadership theory is another model that establishes the use of different behaviors depending upon the situation. In this theory, the situational variable is the

maturity of the subordinate, and the behavior of the leader is adapted accordingly (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). The appropriate mixture of task and relationship behavior on the part of the leader is contingent upon the maturity of the subordinate. Low maturity subordinates are assumed to require high levels of task behavior and low levels of relationship behavior. As the subordinate increases in maturity level and ability, the mixture of task and relationship on the part of the leader is adjusted accordingly. Overall, the theory lacks strong support because the constructs of leader behavior and follower maturity are loosely defined. However, it has made a strong contribution in establishing the dyadic relationship necessary for leadership, and furthering the proposition that subordinates should be treated differently depending upon their ability, their experience, and other variables (Yukl, 2006).

Leadership substitutes theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978) states that situational variables act as moderators that either substitute for or neutralize leadership behavior. Substitutes are defined as characteristics within the subordinate, task, or environment that reduces the need for leadership. For example, subordinates who are experienced and proficient in their job will require less leadership than those who are not. In such a situation, subordinate experience and proficiency are assumed to be leader substitutes. Neutralizers are defined as conditions that prevent the leader from rewarding subordinate performance. For example, if a leader has no authority or power over rewards that the subordinate deems valuable, it will be difficult for the leader to motivate the subordinate to higher levels of productivity.

The underlying assumption of the theory is that subordinates who are highly motivated and satisfied with their work will require less leader interaction. Subordinates

who perceive that their leader is unable to follow through with rewards will be less likely to work hard for the leader, even if the leader uses high task and relationship oriented behavior. After much research aimed at identifying substitutes and neutralizers, a meta-analysis showed that there are few substitutes and/or neutralizers that moderate leader behavior and no consistent moderating effect across studies (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). An ongoing appeal of the leader substitutes theory is that it recognizes that leadership does not necessarily have to take a formal form. With appropriate organizational design, task clarity, reward structure and motivated employees, organizations can function in teams with informal leadership.

Other situational models have been developed, but lack the research necessary to draw meaningful conclusions about their utility. Yukl's (2006) multiple-linkage model seeks to explain the effects of leader behavior on group process and outcomes. Although the model is rather complex and difficult to test in a single study, increasing research on team leadership may bring it to the forefront.

Cognitive resource theory (Fiedler, 1986; Fiedler & Garcia, 1987) hypothesizes that the cognitive resources of the leader such as intelligence are moderated by variables such as environmental or interpersonal stress to impact group performance. In a critique of the theory, Vecchio (1990) noted its similarities to Kerr and Jermiers's (1978) situational leadership. However, cognitive resource theory goes a bit further than situational leadership theory in that it examines the characteristics of the leader as well as the follower.

Vroom and Yetton's contingency model of decision making was developed to help leaders to determine which leadership behaviors would be effective in specific

situations (Vroom, 1973). The model has been critiqued for its complexity and lack of parsimony (Field, 1979), but has also been found to be prescriptively valid (Field & House, 1990). The most important critique of the model in the study of leadership theory is that it only addresses the decision making aspect of leadership behavior (Yukl, 2006).

Situational leadership theories have supported previous findings that suggest that leadership is more than a single trait or behavior, or a set of traits and behaviors that lead to effective outcomes. However, situational leadership theories have also complicated the study of leadership. Many of the constructs used in situational theories are difficult to break down into testable propositions because of the ambiguity present in human behavior and dynamic organizational environments. As a result, each theory seems to add a layer of complexity to an already complex field of inquiry.

Transition of Leadership Research

Until the mid-1980s, approaches to leadership research and theory focused on questions about whether leaders are born or made, traits that would predict successful leadership, behavior that would predict successful leadership, and questions about how the situation affects leadership outcome. Each era of leadership theory has been instructive in building an understanding of the phenomenon of leadership, but each has also yielded conflicting and/or inconclusive findings. Frequently, even when findings were statistically significant, the associations were moderate or weak. For example, Bass (1985a) reports that studies on task versus relationship behaviors have consistently shown that leadership behavior is statistically relevant to subordinate satisfaction and leader effectiveness. However, according to Bass, the correlation is weak, usually found at approximately at .40. While a correlation of .40 may be significant, it accounts for only

16 percent of the variance. This means that while 16 percent of the leadership behavior that promotes employee satisfaction and leader effectiveness can be explained, 84 percent is still left unexplained. The issue of weak to moderate associations found in leadership studies has led some to look deeper at the ways in which leadership has been defined and researched, and to delve into new ways of conceiving and studying leadership (Bass, 1985a; Burns, 1978; DePree, 1987; G. W. Fairholm, 1998; M. R. Fairholm, 2004a; Greenleaf, 1977).

Fairholm (2004a) characterizes the next era of leadership theory as moving the focus beyond the study of “leaders” to the study of “leadership.” Leadership theories reviewed thus far have actually focused on the study of leaders – their traits, behaviors and the situations in which they operate. The “leaders” studied have been primarily those individuals in an organizational hierarchy who have supervisory or management authority over others. Thus, the study of leadership has been defined by leaders in managerial positions (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a). While the contribution of this work has been vital to our understanding of leadership, it has left many aspects of the leadership phenomenon untouched. This is most likely the reason that the research of each era yielded inconsistent and inconclusive findings. It is not that the research is incorrect or that the theories are incorrect; they simply do not tell the whole story.

The story of leadership cannot be told by simply looking at what leaders do. Newer approaches to leadership view it as much more than the compilation of traits, behaviors and situational aspects of managers within organizations. Leadership is conceived as an interaction between two or more individuals that is based on trust, compassion, love, and other emotive responses that raise both the leader and the follower

to higher levels of satisfaction and success. Thus, “leaders do not define leadership; rather, leadership defines what a leader is, what a leader does, and how a person can be one” (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a, p. 44).

The newer approach to leadership is more philosophical in nature. It demands that we move beyond structure, behavior, and traits, and focus on the relationship between people. The elements of this focus deal with “...values, morals, culture, inspiration, motivation, needs, wants, aspirations, hopes, desires, influence, power, and the like” (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a, p. 45). This approach recognizes that leadership is not tied to formal structure, and it distinguishes leaders from managers. It is emotional; propelled by passion, love, and a conviction that together we are more than we can ever be alone, and together we raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality (Bass, 1985a; Burns, 1978). It is leadership based on values. The values of the leader, the values of the followers, and the values that are shared by individuals within the organization, are all aspects of values-based leadership.

Values-Based Leadership

In the 1980s, leadership theory and research moved from the trait, behavior, and situational approaches to a values-based approach that could transform individuals and organizations to higher levels of effectiveness. The study of leadership is described as a philosophy of values and follower development, rather than a theory that describes leadership action. Such leadership promotes “...change and transformation of self, others, and the organizational system” (G. W. Fairholm, 1991, p. 67). The values based transformational approach does not devalue the necessity of satisfactory organizational outcomes. Instead, it proposes that individual outcomes are as important as

organizational outcomes, and that both can be accomplished through values-based transformational leadership. The shift toward values based transformational leadership has created an expanded research agenda, particularly for those scholars and researchers who want to explore leadership, rather than the activities of a leader (Bass, 1985a, 1985b; Bennis, 1982; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978; DePree, 1987; G. W. Fairholm, 1991; M. R. Fairholm, 2004a; Greenleaf, 1977; Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Tichy & Devanna, 1986).

One of the first theories in the shift to a values laden approach to leadership was the notion of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977). The servant leader is a servant first and a leader second. As a servant, the needs of the people are given first priority. Are they "...healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants" (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 15)? The answer to this question indicates whether or not one is a servant leader. Under the guidance of a leader, followers should grow and become more capable, willing, happy, and confident. As this growth takes place, both the leader and followers move the organization toward success. Depree (1987) asserts that even if one perceives leadership as headship, then the mark of a good leader is the condition of the rest of the body. "Are the followers reaching their potential? Are they learning? Serving? Do they achieve the required result? Do they change with grace? Manage Conflict?" (DePree, 1987). If the answer to those questions is "no" then the organization has a leadership problem; not a followership problem.

The concept of moving the followers to higher levels of maturity was echoed by Burns (1978) in his classic book, *Leadership*. For Burns, leadership is about a relationship that takes place between the leader and follower which results in increasing

the maturity level of the followers. At the most basic level, Burns proposes that leadership is a simple transactional relationship where the leader is able to motivate the follower by exchanging rewards for service. At a higher level, the relationship is more transforming. Transforming leadership is based on Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs, and assumes that the leader can elevate the followers from one level of needs to another. Rather than a simple cost-benefit transaction where the follower is not engaged, the transforming leader is able to fully engage the follower by arousing and satisfying higher order needs (Bass, 1985a; Burns, 1978; Zaleznik, 1977).

Bass (1985a) expanded on Burns' work considerably with his theory of transformational leadership. In an age where the realities of globalization and technological advances create the need for organizations to initiate and sustain change, previous leadership theories were found lacking. Bass considers change to be the most important function of a leader, and his conception of transformational leadership is all about how leaders navigate change (Bass, 1985a).

A distinction is made about the type of change needed within the organization and the leadership style needed to address the change. First order change is a change of degree. According to Bass (1985a, 1985b), first order changes are modifications in the roles and tasks necessary to meet every day goals and expectations. Such changes can be handled efficiently in a transactional process whereby the leader sets the goals and objectives and the employee works accordingly. However, it is the second order of change that is of concern in values-based transformational leadership. This higher order change requires a dramatic shift in the attitudes, values and needs of individuals and the organization as a whole.

Second order changes are transformational in nature, and require a leader who can transform the organization from a focus on outcomes to a focus on values (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The focus on values does not mean that outcomes are unimportant. However, the outcomes required by today's organizations are not simple, and they cannot be attained with simple transactional techniques. They require leaders with the transactional ability to deal with the first order of change, and the transformational ability to deal with the second, higher order of change. Like Burns' (1978) notion of transforming leadership, transformational leadership moves the followers to higher levels of need. It is this elevation of needs that constitutes the foundation of transformational leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

A transformational leader is able to transform followers in three ways: (1 raising their level of awareness of the importance of designated outcomes, (2 getting them to transcend their self-interest for the interest of the organization, and (3 arousing their higher order needs (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985a). A large number of research studies have been performed to test transformational leadership theory, with the consistent finding that transformational leadership is significantly related to leader effectiveness (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1997; Yukl, 2006).

Although the values based approach to leadership has laid the foundation for the practice of leadership in organizations, there are still many questions about leaders and leadership. After examining the accumulation of research, it is clear that leadership is a complex phenomenon, and that research has not yet yielded an overarching theory that explains it. While the research examined in this literature review has been vital to understanding leadership as a discipline, the ambiguous findings have made the concept

of leadership somewhat confusing to managers who are expected to act as leaders. With a constant flow of articles calling for more leadership and better leadership in organizations (Burns, 1996; Denhardt & Campbell, 2006; Gardner, 1995; Van Wart, 2003) it is useful to examine how managers understand leadership in an effort to determine if their perspective can be changed to help them to become more effective leaders. The perspectival approach to leadership addresses the question of how leadership is perceived by managers.

Perspectival Theory

Perspectival leadership theory acknowledges that individuals often have different understandings of leadership and will practice leadership based on these understandings. Gilbert Fairholm (1998) developed perspectival leadership theory using Barker's (1992) concept of using paradigms to understand organizational realities. Paradigms are the realities an individual uses to explain a phenomenon. Whether the paradigm is "right" is of no consequence. As long as the paradigm is useful in explaining the phenomenon, the individual will hold on to it. When the paradigm no longer works because the individual realizes that it can no longer explain the phenomenon, the individual will shift to another paradigm (Kuhn, 1996). Fairholm contends that individuals hold leadership paradigms that influence the "values, beliefs, traditional practices, methods, tools, attitudes and behaviors... [as well as] ...leadership practice, laws, theories, applications and work relationships in a corporation or team" that individuals possess (1998, p. xvi-xvii). Thus, the way one defines and practices leadership is shaped by his or her paradigm.

Gilbert Fairholm (1998) identified five paradigms of leadership that individuals hold and developed them into the virtual leadership realities model. The perspectives

identified by Fairholm are: leadership as scientific management; leadership as excellence management, values leadership, trust cultural leadership, and spiritual (whole-soul) leadership. According to Fairholm, the full picture of leadership only emerges when one embraces all five perspectives. Until this happens, the individual is locked into one of the lower level perspectives. Each paradigm holds truth about the nature of leadership, and each correlates with a specific type of leadership action and behavior. However, it is only the five perspectives together that provide a complete understanding of leadership. The following section provides an overview of each of the five leadership perspectives as defined by Fairholm (1991, 1994, 1998, 2000).

Leadership as Scientific Management

The evolution of management dates back to the early 1900s and the conception of scientific management (Taylor, 1912, 1919). Taylor recognized the propensity to look for a “great man” to head an organization and then leave the details of running the organization to him. The success of the organization is then dependent upon the ability of the man at the helm, placing a great deal of power in the hands of that individual. According to Taylor, this is an inefficient way to run an organization. While acknowledging that “great men” are needed, he also introduced the proposition that the system itself must be structured and managed in a way that creates efficiency. To this end, Taylor introduced the principles of Scientific Management with three objectives: 1) to point out the great inefficiency in organizations; 2) to proffer that the remedy for such inefficiency lies in systematic management; and 3) to prove that the best management techniques lie in the foundations of science.

The tenets of Scientific Management sparked a series of studies to determine the one best way to complete organizational tasks for optimal efficiency. These studies are steeped theoretically in the rational model of science which deems that everything can be measured and quantified. Observation and measurement of production processes results in standardization of these processes for maximum efficiency. The manager is tasked with ensuring that the staffing and incentive systems are in place to motivate workers to perform the standardized processes. The term POSDCORB: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting; was developed as a mnemonic to summarize the tasks of management (Gulick & Urwick, 1937). In the early studies, workers are considered a part of the process that needed to be managed for efficiency.

The widely known Hawthorne experiments conducted between 1924 and 1932 served as the basis for the study of human relations in the work environment (Franke & Kaul, 1978). In these studies, researchers began to recognize that there are flaws in assuming that humans can be treated like machines in development of efficient work processes. As a result, studies of management began to include the social structure of the organization in addition to its technical structure. The human component in these studies is viewed primarily as the need to understand how to properly motivate humans to achieve the objectives of the organization (Bennis & Schein, 1966; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959).

Mintzberg (1973) was critical of the POSDCORB approach to management, and concurred with the necessity to take workers into consideration. He identified ten roles in which the manager must be proficient and categorized these into three areas. The interpersonal roles include acting as a figurehead, leader and liaison; the informational

roles include acting as an internal and external monitor, disseminator of information, and spokesman; the decisional roles include acting as an entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator and negotiator. In his description of each of these roles, Mintzberg recognized that it is in the leadership role that the manager has an opportunity put his mark on the organization.

Drucker (1954) defined management by virtue of its function within the organization. The primary function of management, according to Drucker, is economic performance, and the tasks of economic performance are: 1) managing the business; 2) managing the managers; and 3) managing the workers and the work. Furthermore, Drucker asserts that management can be learned through "... the systematic study of principles, the acquisition of organized knowledge and the systematic analysis of his own performance in all areas of his work and job and on all levels of management" (Drucker, 1954, p. 9).

McGregor (in Bennis & Schein, 1966) agrees that the primary objective of a manager is to achieve the organizational objectives and he agrees that the tasks of a manager can be learned. However, McGregor asserts that managers must learn proper motivation techniques if they are to incent their workers to achieve the highest possible level of production. For McGregor, management is setting the organizational structure, objectives, tasks, and processes; while leadership is the relations based behavior that is necessary to achieve the objectives. The leader interfaces with employees in a complex relationship to achieve the objectives of the organization. Thus, while Drucker makes no distinction between management and leadership, McGregor makes a clear distinction between the two.

The confusion regarding leadership and management became even more apparent after Burns (1978) identified leadership as separate from management, causing scholars to search for new approaches to understanding leadership. Still, the “leadership as management syndrome” (Rost, 1993, p. 132) continues today, despite many efforts to distinguish between the two (see also Barker, 1992; Fiedler & Chemers, 1974; Follet, 1949; Zaleznik, 1977). As a result of the confusion in the literature, and among scholars and practitioners, the perspective many individuals hold of leadership is that it is management in some capacity. Even if leadership is seen as a role of management, the two go hand-in-hand for individuals with the scientific management perspective. Thus, the focus of managers and/or leaders is on the POSDCORB functions as well as worker motivation, incentive and control. At this level of understanding, the concepts of leadership and management are used interchangeably.

Leadership as Excellence Management

A more evolved perception of leadership is that it defines good management. In this perspective, the focus is on excellence within the organization, and “excellent” management is considered leadership (G. W. Fairholm, 1998). Although the origins of some of the ideas behind organizational excellence can be traced to Barnard (1964) who defined good management as shaping the values of individuals within organizations, the excellence movement itself was ignited by Peters and Waterman (1982). In their book, *In Search of Excellence*, Peters and Watermen outlined eight attributes that characterize excellent organizations: 1) a bias for action; 2) staying close to the customer; 3) fostering autonomy and entrepreneurship; 4) creating productivity through people; 5) being hands-on and values driven; 6) staying reasonably close to the business you know;

7) maintaining a simple structure with lean staffing; and 8) maintaining a loose-tight structure by pushing decisions downward, but holding tightly to organizational values. Leaders in the excellence tradition are focused on the ability and creativity of employees throughout the organization as a mechanism for producing excellent products and services.

The book, *A Passion for Excellence* (Peters & Austin, 1985), created a model of management that regarded leadership as the core of a framework that included customer care, innovation of products and services, and concern for employees. Leadership is defined by Peters and Austin as "...vision, cheerleading, enthusiasm, love, trust, verve, passion, obsession, consistency, the use of symbols, paying attention as illustrated by the content of one's calendar, out-and-out drama (and the management thereof), creating heroes at all levels, coaching, effectively wandering around, and numerous other things" (Peters & Austin, 1985, p. 6).

The total quality management (TQM) movement of the 1980s was closely related to excellence management. With the aim of "...transforming the style of American management" Deming (1988, p. ix) introduced the tenets of quality management to United States businesses. Although "management by walking around" (MBWA) was a foundation of the excellence movement (Peters & Austin, 1985; Peters & Waterman, 1982), Deming found it to be lacking as a form of leadership. Walking around is not enough, the leader must know when to pause, when to ask questions, what questions to ask. Deming proffered the following 14 points that encapsulate his notion of excellence:

- 1) Create constancy of purpose to improve products and services;
- 2) Adopt a new philosophy;
- 3) Eliminate the need for inspection by building a quality product;
- 4) Build

long term relationships with suppliers; 5) Establish continuous improvement; 6) Provide on the job training; 7) Institute leadership rather than supervision and management; 8) Drive out fear; 9) Break down departmental barriers; 10) Eliminate slogans in the work area that workers do not have the power to influence; 11) Eliminate work standards and provide leadership instead; 12) Remove barriers that prevent workers from attaining pride in workmanship; 13) Institute a program of education and training of workers; and 14) Allow everyone in the organization to take part in the transformation. An important component of Deming's approach is that it requires leadership, rather than mere management. The aim of leadership, according to Deming, is to improve performance and quality, to increase production and to instill pride of workmanship among employees. In this capacity leaders do not find and correct errors, they help people to do their job well.

In an analysis of scientific management versus excellent management, the two are sometimes considered to be at opposite ends of the same continuum, with Deming's work capitalizing on and extending Taylor's work (Washbush, 2002). Washbush contends that Taylor's work in scientific management made great strides in helping managers to efficiently structure organizational systems, while Deming taught them how to improve those systems. Perhaps Deming saw scientific management as pure management, and found that pure management was not enough to keep organizations strong in an intensely competitive market. The work of leadership, according to Deming (1988), is the work that creates excellence within an organization. Excellence is about change – change within the leader, the followers and the organization itself. The values that are necessary for such change are the foundation of the next perspective, values leadership.

Values Leadership

In the 1980s and 1990s leadership research began focusing on the relationship that leaders are engaged in and the values inherent in those relationships. This values-based focus differs from previous approaches in that the focal point of the leader is not on production and efficiency. Values leadership focuses on the people themselves. While acknowledging that organizations have an underlying purpose that requires productivity, the values-based approaches differ dramatically in the ways in which productivity is pursued (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985a, 1985b; Burns, 1978, 2003; DePree, 1987; G. W. Fairholm, 1998; Greenleaf, 1977). The theories inherent in values leadership acknowledge the transactional nature of leadership (Burns, 1978), and the transformational nature of leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985a, 1985b). These theories view the leader as a servant (Frick & Spears, 1996; Greenleaf, 1977) who focuses on the needs of followers as a mechanism to raise the leader, the follower and the organization itself to higher levels of performance. In the values approach, a clear distinction is made between management and leadership (DePree, 1987; Rost, 1993). Although principles of management are acknowledged as important and necessary, leadership is viewed as the vital factor that will move organizations to meet the challenges of a global economy, rapid technological changes, and an increasingly educated and demanding workforce (Rost, 1993).

According to Gilbert Fairholm, values-based leadership is uncomplicated. “It is leader action to create a culture supportive of values that leads to mutual growth and enhanced self-determination” (1998. p. 61). In values-based leadership, workers are valued for who they are, rather than their place in the production process. Leaders spend

time with their followers, teaching and coaching them, so that they can learn the principles of success that empower them to do their job to the best of their ability. This creates an environment where workers can grow and engage in self-leadership. In doing so, the leader creates an organizational culture that supports a set of values that lead to the growth of the leader, the followers, and the organization.

Fairholm (1991, 1998) identifies the five values of life, liberty, justice, unity, and happiness, as established by the American forefathers, to be the basis for corporate values. According to Fairholm, these values are intrinsically held by most individuals, and they will devote time and attention to attainment of them. When these values are also the core of corporate values, then followers will feel that they are valued in and of themselves, rather than as a simple extension of the production process.

Fairholm (1991, 1998) developed the following six principles that the leader must adhere to in order to create and sustain values-based leadership: 1) development of stakeholders; 2) creation of vision; 3) creation of a culture that supports core values; 4) development of a personal relationship with followers; 5) willingness to be a teacher of followers; and 6) production of high-performance and self-led followers. Within the perspectival approach to leadership, Matthew Fairholm (2004a) views values leadership as a bridge between the lower level perspectives of scientific management and excellence management, and the higher order perspectives of trust leadership and whole-soul leadership.

Trust Cultural Leadership

Schein (1993) defines the creation of culture as the most important thing that a leader must do. The leader creates culture by defining and inculcating shared values and

beliefs within the organization. According to Schein, values define what is right and wrong; while beliefs define what people expect to happen as a result of their actions. The shared values and beliefs held by the individuals within the organization become the culture of the organization. Each organization has a culture; and the responsibility for defining and shaping it lies with the leader.

In the trust culture perspective of leadership, the leader shares the creation and maintenance of culture with the followers. It is the first perspective that recognizes that the follower has an integral role in the leadership process. In this perspective, the focus is on the interaction between the leaders and the followers; with the followers influencing both the leader-follower relationship and the culture of the organization (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a).

The role of the follower in the relationship is of utmost importance. A growing body of literature recognizes that the traits and behavior that are recognized as good leadership are the same as those that are recognized as good followership (Bennis, 2006; Chaleff, 1997; Nolan & Harty, 1984; Potter & Rosenbach, 2006). Leadership and followership are inseparable, particularly in hierarchical organizations where an individual is a leader in one relationship and a follower in another (Nolan & Harty, 1984). In the trust culture perspective, followers are viewed as capable individuals who are eager and able to engage with the leader in a relationship that promotes the success of both the organization and the individuals within the organization. The hallmark of the relationship is that the follower is not compelled through management mechanisms to participate in the relationship. Instead the follower voluntarily participates because of the trust he or she has in the leader and in the organization itself.

The voluntary nature of the relationship makes this perspective substantially different from the perspectives that come before it. Followers choose to follow because they trust that the leader will lead with integrity and honesty. In this environment of trust, there is less need for the control mechanisms used in management to motivate followers to do their job. Followers do their job because they want to, and they are confident that their contribution is important to the success of the organization, the success of their coworkers, and to their own, individual success. According to Gilbert Fairholm (1998), trust is the single-most important factor that separates leadership from management. In the absence of the trust culture, the only avenue left is management. Thus, without trust, leadership is impossible.

According to Fairholm (G. W. Fairholm, 1998; M. R. Fairholm, 2004b) the leader in a trust culture has two specific responsibilities. First, the leader creates a common culture where all members trust one another to do their part. Second, the trust culture provides the opportunity for each member to attain their own personal goals. These responsibilities illustrate the nature of the trust culture. Although the trust relationship develops between the leader and the led, the trust relationship also develops among peers and coworkers. As a result, the creation and maintenance of trust is vital throughout the organization.

Research on trust has shown that it occurs only through collaborative interaction between leaders and followers (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007). This means that a leader cannot create a trust culture alone. However, the leader can create an environment in which a trust culture can develop. Such an environment is created through fair, ethical and predictable behavior, communicative and supportive behavior toward followers, and

congruence between espoused and enacted values (Joseph & Winston, 2005). Thus the trust culture perspective builds upon the values leadership perspective, but adds the important new dimension of followership. It recognizes the critical importance of trust within the organizational culture, and acknowledges that trust cannot be commanded by a manager; it can only be willingly given to a leader.

Spiritual (Whole Soul) Leadership

The term “spiritual leadership” is in some ways an unfortunate name for the final perspective because it creates the immediate emotional response that comes with a religious connotation. Spiritual leadership, however, is not necessarily religious. Spirituality, as defined by Gilbert Fairholm (1998, 2000), refers to the whole being – the essence of who we are. Thus, spiritual leaders are leaders who are concerned with the whole person. Fairholm suggests that individuals do not compartmentalize their being into professional and personal selves. When an individual comes to work, their whole being comes to work. The spiritual part of this being contains morality, values, integrity, creativity, and intelligence. While the work of management has been to create conformity and uniformity in the workplace; spiritual leadership seeks to remove conformity and uniformity and to celebrate the whole person.

In research regarding the definition of spirituality, Gilbert Fairholm found that managers conceive of spirituality in the following ways: an inner certainty; the essence of self; the basis of comfort, strength, and happiness; the source of meaning, values, and life purpose; a personal belief system; an emotional level, a feeling; and the experience of the transcendent in life (see G. W. Fairholm, 2000). These different conceptualizations of spirituality all point to the spiritual self as something deeper and more meaningful than

the material self. Spiritual leadership acknowledges the depth and complexity of humans, and provides a holistic environment where the whole person can excel.

The foundation of spiritual leadership is servant leadership. Servant leadership was first introduced by Greenleaf (1977) in response to his reading of Hesse's *Journey to the East* (1956). In this story, the great servant, Leo, turns out to be a great and noble leader. Greenleaf suggests that the leader as a servant is one who will "make sure that other people's highest priority needs are being served" (1977, p. 15). According to Fairholm, "this model values the education, inspiration and development of others. To function in this way, leaders need a change of heart - of spirit - not just technique. The model of spiritual leadership asks leaders to put those they serve first and let everything else take care of itself" (G. W. Fairholm, 1998, p. 118). The servant leader views leadership not as position or status, but as an opportunity to help others to reach their full potential. To this end, the servant leader is willing to allow others to be the focal point in the organization, rather than the leader himself (Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004).

Fairholm's model of spiritual leadership describes the tasks of spiritual leadership to be vision setting, servanthood, and task competence. These tasks are accomplished through the processes of building community, setting high morals standards, promoting the wholeness of all individuals, and stewardship of the organization's resources. The primary goal of spiritual leadership is the continual improvement of both the individuals and the organization, so that all are transformed into higher levels of being.

Spirituality in the workplace has begun to receive a great deal of attention in the literature, although it is considered to be a theory in its infancy (Dent, Higgins, & Wharff, 2005). In an analysis of 87 scholarly articles on spiritual leadership, Dent, Higgins and

Wharff found that the most advanced theories on the topic are those developed by Fairholm (G. W. Fairholm, 2000) and Fry (2003), and they found that more confirmatory work needs to be done on each of these models.

Conclusions Regarding Perspectival Approach

Gilbert Fairholm (1998) identified five perspectives of leadership and devoted a great deal of study and research to the development of each perspective. The lower level perspectives are clearly founded in the literature regarding scientific management (Taylor, 1912, 1919), excellence management (Deming, 1988; Peters & Austin, 1985; Peters & Waterman, 1982) and values leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985a; Burns, 1978, 2003). The higher level perspectives of trust culture leadership and spiritual (whole-soul) leadership represent newer approaches that are recognized in the literature, but are less defined and understood (Burke et al., 2007; Dent et al., 2005; G. W. Fairholm, 2000; Fry, 2003; Gini, 1997; Greenleaf, 1977). Although Fairholm makes a strong argument that the perspectives exist, there has been little research to support this claim. His work defined each perspective, but did not operationalize the model in a way that could be tested. As a result, the perspectival approach to leadership described by Gilbert Fairholm, and the use of the virtual leadership realities as a model of leadership, lacked validity as a researchable theory with well defined constructs and propositions until 2004, when the model was used in a study of municipal managers.

Matthew Fairholm (2004a) explored the extent to which the leadership perspectives discussed by Gilbert Fairholm's in his virtual realities model of leadership exist within managers in local government organizations. The purpose of Fairholm's study was two fold. First, he operationalized the model so that it could be explored

through research efforts. Second, he conducted research to determine if the model as operationalized did, in fact, exist within managers. Thus, the virtual leadership realities model was operationalized and enhanced to provide a more explicit model that could be empirically tested. The resulting Leadership Perspectives Model is discussed in the following section.

Leadership Perspectives Model

The Leadership Perspectives Model (LPM) as developed by Matthew Fairholm (2004a, 2004b) put the elements of the virtual leadership realities model as conceived by Gilbert Fairholm (1998) into a new model that could be operationalized and tested. The five perspectives of leadership remained largely unchanged, but they were broken into the operational elements of implementation description, tools and behaviors, and approaches to followers. This reflects the fundamental proposition of the LPM that that the way an individual defines leadership, categorized as implementation description in the model, will affect the tools and behaviors used on the job and the approach taken toward followers. In the LPM, each operational element of each perspective is operationalized, and each element consists of variables that describe its characteristics.

The LPM maintains the hierarchical levels for each leadership perspective and considers the perspectives to be paradigmatic in scope. Fairholm (2004a) uses the operationalized elements as descriptors of the full perspective. Thus, he proposes an individual can be “typed” by perspective using the three elements collectively. He further proposes that the tools and behaviors used are the single most important indicator of one’s perspective. This becomes important in research efforts when there is ambiguity

in an individual's implementation description. According to Fairholm, such an individual can be typed using tools and behaviors as the strongest indicator of perspective.

Matthew Fairholm (2004a) makes a significant contribution to the body of knowledge by locating each perspective, its three operational elements, and its variables within the leadership literature. He also offers a parallel understanding of how each reality is influenced by both the literature and the individual's experience of leadership. Similar to the virtual leadership realities model, the five leadership perspectives of the LPM are each distinct, but they also relate in a hierarchical manner from the lowest order perspective of scientific management, to the highest order perspective of whole-soul leadership. Each reality is true in that it depicts a certain aspect of leadership, but it is the five taken together that provide the full picture of leadership. The hierarchical nature of the model is intended to convey that each perspective encompasses those below it. Thus, as a leader moves up the hierarchy, he or she takes all of the concepts, methods and behaviors of the lower order perspective.

Figure 2.1 portrays the original virtual leadership realities model as conceived by Gilbert Fairholm (1998) and depicted by Matthew Fairholm (2004a). Figures 2.2 and 2.3 depict the LPM as conceived by Matthew Fairholm. Figure 2.2 depicts the model with the five leadership perspectives categorized into implementation description, tools and behaviors used and approaches to followers. Figure 2.3 provides an overview of the model with the variables of each of the three categories defined. The constructs, operational categories and variables of each perspective are further defined in Chapter III.

Figure 2.1: Illustration of Fairholm's Virtual Leadership Realities Model

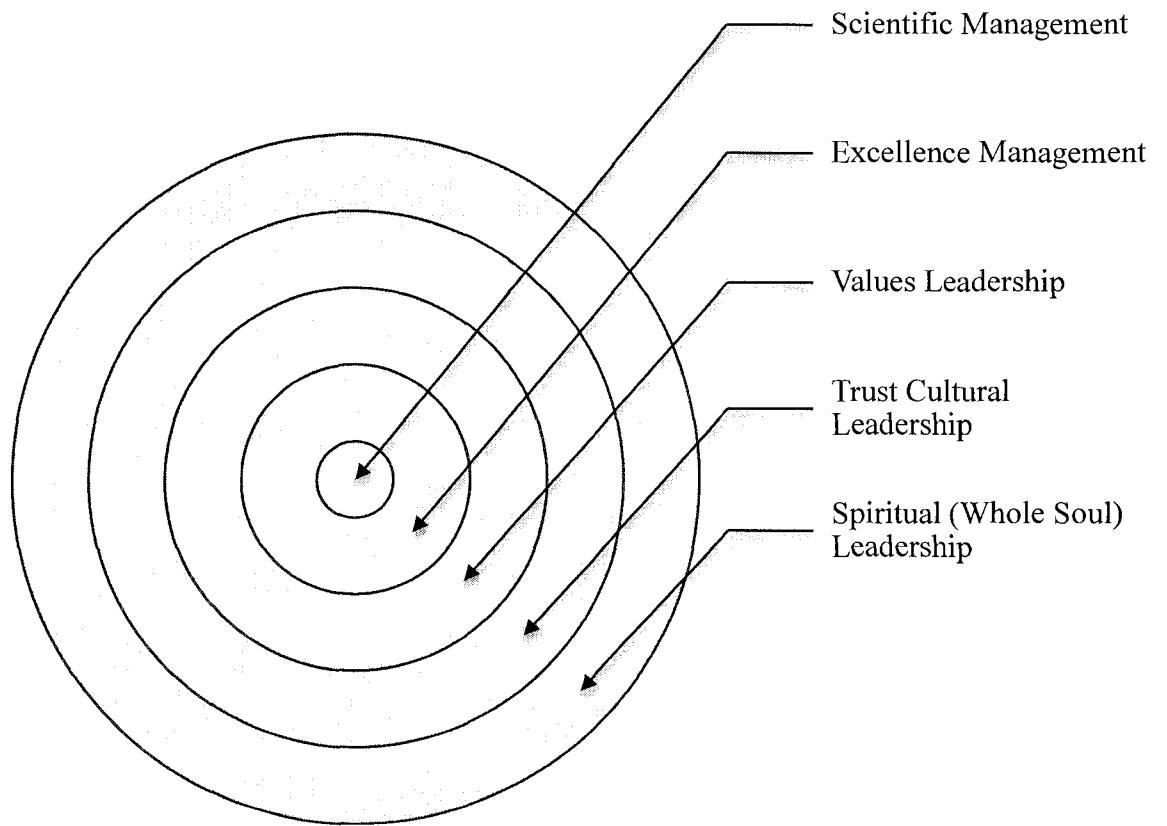


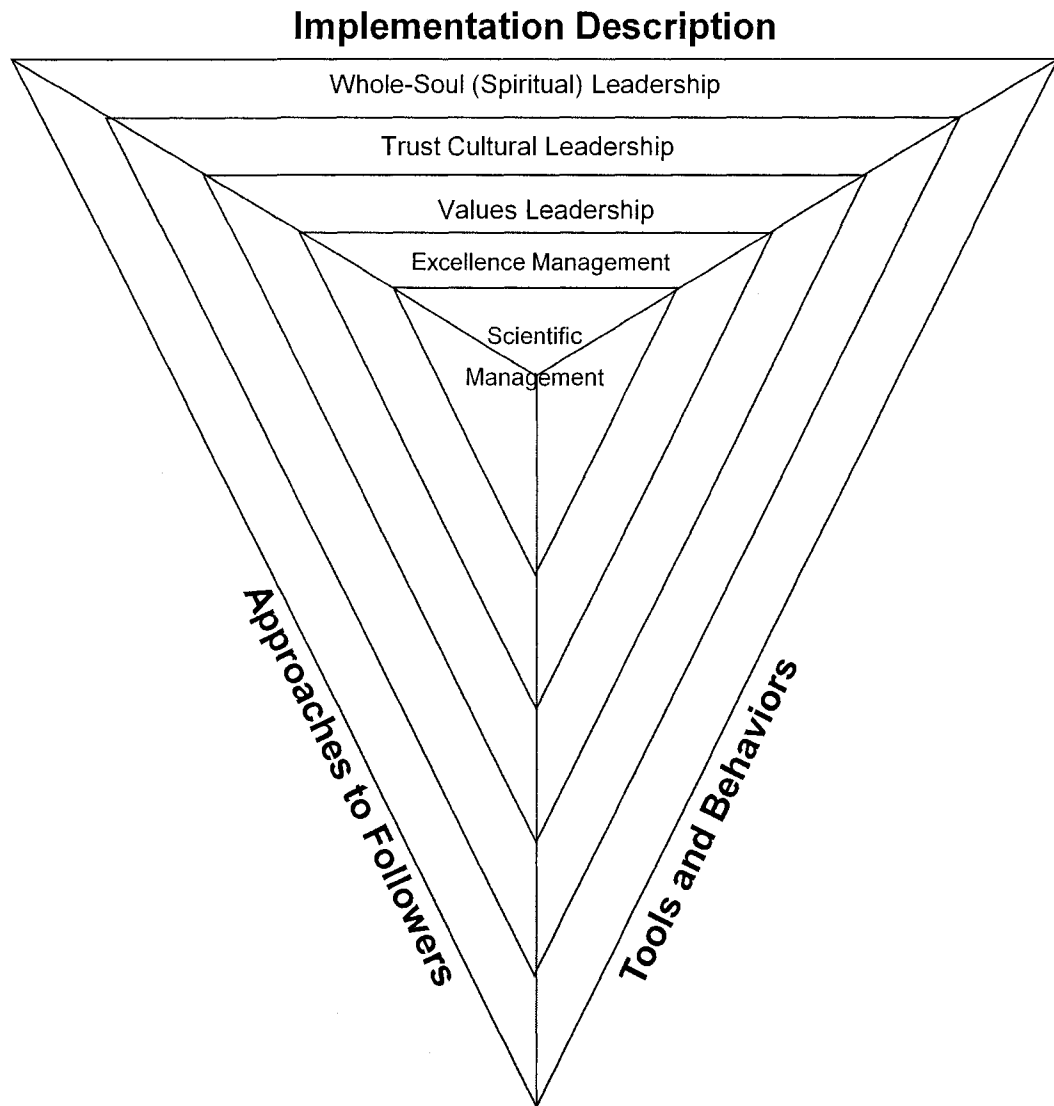
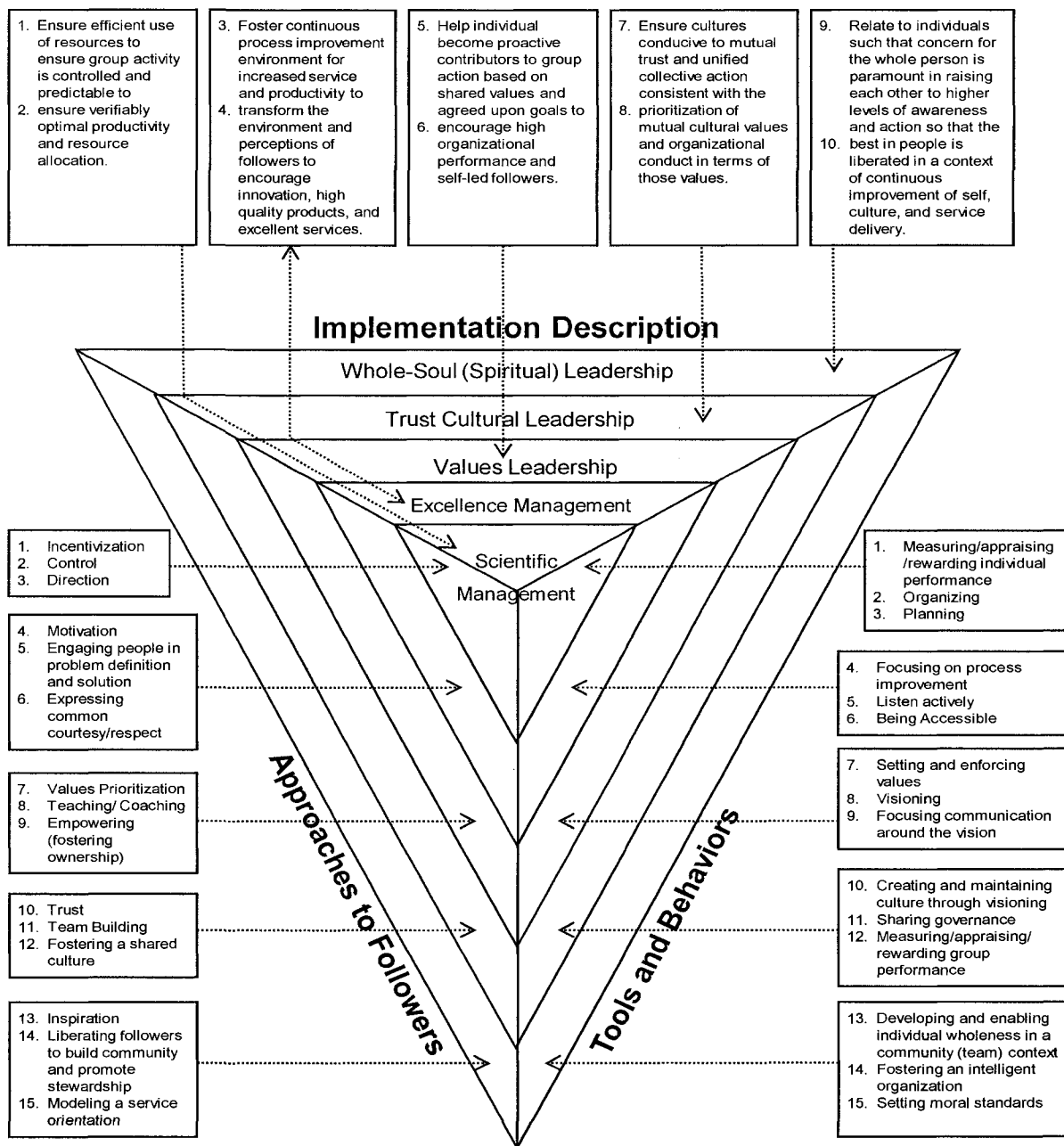
Figure 2.2: Leadership Perspectives Model

Figure 2.3: Leadership Perspectives Model with Variables



Fairholm's (2004a) study was conducted using a sample of a municipal managers from Virginia, District of Columbia, and Maryland. His results supported all five perspectives of leadership. Of the five, he found the strongest support for leadership as scientific management and values leadership, and the weakest support for excellence management and trust culture leadership. Spiritual (whole-soul) leadership was moderately supported. Fairholm's data suggests that as the level of management increases, the perspective of leadership also increases. This indicates that at the lowest levels of management, leadership is understood to be scientific management, while at the highest levels managers understand leadership in the context of spiritual leadership.

The question of how and why the perspectives are enlarged is not clear in the data. However, Fairholm (2004a) suggests that perspective enlargement may come through trial and error, increased awareness of leadership, or promotion to higher levels of management. The proposition that leadership perspective is enlarged with level of management is a compelling finding for leadership development, and one worthy of further research. This finding is important because if leadership perspective enlarges through promotion, leadership development training may be able to focus on helping the leader to enlarge his or her perspective prior to being promoted. Thus, a manager would be ready for the increased leadership responsibilities a promotion may bring.

Other anecdotal findings that Fairholm (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a) reported were that leadership perspective does not appear to be different depending on race or gender. However, his study did not specifically test for race or gender differences, nor was his sample selected to stratify by these variables. He also found some influence on leadership perspective based on the functional area of government in which the individual

was employed, suggesting that perspective may vary by function. Again, the study was not designed to distinguish managers by function, and the sample was not large enough in any one functional area to draw convincing conclusions.

Fairholm (2004a) made a significant contribution to the body of knowledge with his LPM study. In a discipline that is plagued with the inability to define itself, Fairholm provided a model to assist with understanding how leadership is defined by those practicing it. The model, according to Fairholm, is both description and prescriptive. It defines how leadership may be perceived by managers who are called upon to be leaders, and places these perceptions into an overarching framework. It also prescribes the underlying philosophy, tools, behaviors and approaches that are necessary to be effective within each perspective.

The model requires more testing to substantiate its reliability and validity. As with any research, Fairholm's study contained some limitations that should be addressed before the model can be considered reliable and valid. Replication of the study can address these some of these limitations by studying a different geographical setting, with a different level of government to determine if Fairholm's findings can be duplicated.

There were four limitations to the original study that can be addressed to strengthen the validity of the study and, in turn, strengthen the reliability of the model. The first two limitations noted represent threats to internal validity due to sampling. The sample used for the content analyses was randomly selected from a population of 300 essays written by individuals as part of the application process for PEMM. Because the population of 300 essays was written by individuals who wanted to participate in the program, the population itself could represent a self selection bias. There may be

something about these 300 individuals that is different from other municipals managers. If so, the sample was taken from a biased population and thus a random sampling strategy would not eliminate the bias.

A second limitation in the sample is that one third of those chosen for the interviews were selected from individuals who had graduated from PEMM. During the course of the program, these managers were exposed to the LPM as a theory of leadership, and to the interviewer as an instructor in the program. The responses of these participants were not separated from the participants who did not participate in PEMM. Thus, there is no way to determine if the interviewees who had been exposed to PEMM skewed the results. This created a both a selection bias in the sample and a historical threat to validity, because one third of the interviewees were exposed to a historical event (PEMM training), that the others were not.

Although the focus of Fairholm's study was to determine the extent to which the constructs of the LPM were evident in his sample, he found anecdotal evidence that suggests a positive correlation between level of management and level of leadership perception on the LPM. Since this was a finding that Fairholm did not plan for in his research methodology, the correlation could be affected by the third and fourth limitations of the study.

The third limitation is that managers who participated in the interviews were categorized into lower, middle, and upper level management; and these categorizations had to be coordinated across organizations. Pay scale levels were used to distinguish each individual's level of management. With municipalities from Virginia, Maryland and Washington DC, it is possible that management designations varied, and the criteria for

low, middle and upper management was different across organizations. Therefore, although the sample was stratified by level of management, it is possible that the differences found in level of management may in reality reflect differences in designation of managerial level across organizations.

The fourth limitation was that managers who participated in the interviews were selected from the following four functional areas: government direction, support and finance; economic development regulation and public works; public safety and justice; and human services and public education. The sample was stratified by government function, but it is possible that this stratification clouded the results. With a sample of 30 individuals to interview, and an attempt to stratify by three managerial levels and four broadly defined managerial functions, it is difficult to convincingly determine if findings can be attributed to function, level of management, or some other variable.

As a result of the limitations discussed above, more research is needed to determine if the LPM can be validated in a population that has not been influenced by the PEMM. In addition, the proposition that perspective of leadership is positively correlated with level of management needs to be tested using a methodology that clearly distinguishes level of management. The most useful strategy of inquiry for such a study is to research a single organization where level of management is clearly and consistently established. The sample must be narrow in managerial function to eliminate function as a potential variant. Such a study requires replication of the interview portion of Fairholm's study, with careful consideration given to the sampling strategy, to determine if his findings can be replicated in another study with a different population and sample frame.

Conclusion

This literature review provides discussion the leadership literature by exploring the dominate themes of trait theory, behavior theory, situational theory and values-based leadership theory. It also provides an overview of the perspectival approach to leadership theory and describes the creation of the virtual leadership realities model as a paradigmatic approach to leadership theory. Finally, the chapter discusses the evolution of the leadership realities model into the leadership perspective model, and concludes with an overview of research performed using the model.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this research is to determine the extent to which the perspective and practice of leadership by managers within the Virginia Department of Corrections (VDOC) reflects the Leadership Perspectives Model (LPM), and to discover the extent to which their perspective varies by level of management. The study is, in part, a replication of an earlier study by Matthew Fairholm (2004a, 2004b) that found support for the model as an emerging leadership theory.

Research Design

An instrumental case study strategy of inquiry is used for this research. In case study research, the case is considered to be a unified bounded system and the system itself, or an activity within the system, is explored in-depth (Creswell, 2003). The case study approach is usually used to gain an in depth understanding of the case under review, rather than to generalize findings beyond the scope of the case. However, the instrumental case study approach is appropriate when the case itself is examined as a means of providing "...insight into a specific issue or to redraw a generalization" (Stake, 2000, p. 445). According to Stake, when using an instrumental case study approach, the case is not the primary interest of the researcher. The researcher's interest is something other than the case itself; however, the case facilitates understanding of the item of interest.

This study lends itself to an instrumental case study design because the item of interest is the perspective of leadership held by public managers, rather than the case

itself. A second reason that the instrumental case study approach is effective for this study is because it ameliorates the limitations of the original study. As detailed in Chapter Two, a limitation of the original study (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a) was that the sample was comprised of 30 managers from various local government agencies, across three states, and stratified by both level of management and job function. This created a sample that was not homogeneous, with few managers in each category. The case study approach corrects for this limitation because only one agency is used, levels of management are consistent, and the job function within the sample is closely related.

While the instrumental case study approach does not greatly increase the generalizability of findings, it does take steps towards generalization (Stake, 2000). This means that the instrumental case can strengthen generalizability when used in conjunction with other research. Although not intended be generalized beyond the findings, this study adds to the cumulative body of knowledge about leadership perspectives, and a foundation has been made to build upon this study with future research that meets the criteria for generalizability.

The case being researched is the Virginia Department of Corrections (DOC), and the variable of interest is the perspective of leadership held by managers within DOC. Thus, the unit of analysis is the individual managers who are participating in the study. The fact that the case is instrumental in design does not lessen the importance of the study to the host organization. DOC places a high emphasis on training and development of its employees. Employees are able to attend the Academy of Staff Development for training in a variety of areas. Leadership is one of the primary foci of the Academy, and they provide leadership development training to supervisors, managers and

administrators. The findings of this study will assist them with determining the leadership training needs of their managerial employees. One of the contributions of this study is to inform leadership and development training, and this contribution is immediately available to DOC.

A qualitative method of data collection is used for this study. Qualitative research includes several methods of inquiry that promote understanding and meaning of a social phenomenon. Qualitative research is predicated upon the assumption that "...reality is constructed by individuals interacting with their social environment (Merriam, 1998, p. 6). According to Merriam, the primary concern of the qualitative researcher is to understand the perspective of the participant, without biasing the information through the researcher's perspective. This is usually accomplished through human interaction. The researcher is considered to be the instrument for data collection, rather than using a paper or electronic device to collect data. This becomes an important difference because a human investigator can be responsive and adaptable to the context of the environment and sensitive to the body language and other nonverbal aspects of the interaction (Patton, 2002).

Qualitative methods are appropriate for this study because the primary concern in data collection is to gain understanding of the phenomenon of leadership from the perspective of managers. The study requires that the investigator probe leadership perceptions in an effort to determine if the perceptions fit within the LPM. This is most effectively done through a semi structured interviewing technique whereby the investigator can ask specific questions that map directly to the model constructs, and

follow up with probing questions, if necessary, to fully understand the perspective of the participant.

Qualitative interviewing assumes that the perspective of others is "...meaningful, knowable, and able to be made explicit" (Patton, 2002). As in the original study, a semi-structured interview format is used because it allows for deep exploration of individual perspectives using the constructs of the model in addition to testing the model's efficacy (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a). In a semi-structured interview format, the wording and sequence of questions is pre-determined and the questions are worded in an open-ended format.

Data Collection

Data collection for this study took place over the four month period of February through May, 2008. Questions from the original study (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a) were used in the interviews, with the addition of a question designed to determine if managers think their perspective has changed over time. The added question was designed to yield depth and insight into both research questions by providing information on how the manager understands changes in his or her leadership perspective (see Appendix A: Semi-Structured Interview Questions).

Semi-structured open ended interviews took place in a DOC conference room or office for a period of 45-60 minutes. Prior to the interview, an overview of the study, the list of questions to be asked, and the informed consent form were sent to each participant. This gave the participant an opportunity to understand fully the context of the research, and to prepare for the questions, if they desired to do so. The interviews were recorded using a digital voice recorder. This allowed for minimal note taking during the interview

so that the investigator was able to be fully engaged with the subject to ensure detailed responses and to formulate probing follow up questions. The recorded interviews were later transcribed for analysis.

Unit of Analysis

Fairholm (2004a, 2004b) targeted local government agencies in his study, with participation from several agencies within Virginia, the District of Columbia, and Maryland. The use of three different local governments in three different states creates a limitation in coordinating level of management across governments. This limitation is a threat to the internal validity of Fairholm's study. To address that threat, this study is designed as a case study of one government agency that has clearly delineated levels of management, and enough employees at each level to provide a sufficient number of participants. To meet these criteria, VDOC, with over 13,000 employees, has been chosen as the case to be investigated.

The unit of analysis refers to the entity whose characteristics are of interest in the study (O'Sullivan, Rassel, & Berner, 2003). Since the purpose of this study is to determine the perspective and practice of leadership by managers, the unit of analysis is the individual managers within the VDOC. Thus, the case is defined at the organizational level, and unit of analysis is defined at the individual level.

Definition of Variables

In Matthew Fairholm's (2004a) study, he utilizes five leadership perspectives, operationalized in three operational elements and further operationalized into variables for each element. Following is the definition of the constructs, the construct elements, and the variables of the model, as established by Fairholm.

Constructs Defined

1. *Leadership as Scientific Management* – Leadership equals management in that it focuses on getting others to do work the leader wants done, essentially separating the planning (management) from the doing (labor).
2. *Leadership as Excellence Management* – Leadership emphasizes quality and productivity process improvement rather than just product, and people over either product or process, and requires the management of values, attitudes, and organizational aims within a framework of quality improvement.
3. *Values Leadership* – Leadership is the integration of group behavior with shared values through setting values and teaching them to followers through an articulated vision that leads to excellent products and service, mutual growth and enhanced self-determination.
4. *Trust Cultural Leadership* – Leadership is a process of building trust cultures within which leader and follower (in an essentially voluntary relationship, even perhaps, from a variety of individual cultural contexts) relate to each other to accomplish mutually valued goals using agreed-upon processes.
5. *Spiritual (Whole Soul) Leadership* – Leadership is the integration of the components of work and self – of the leader and each follower – into a comprehensive system that fosters continuous growth, improvement, self awareness, and self-leadership so that leaders see each worker as a whole person with a variety of skills, knowledge and abilities that invariably go beyond the narrow confines of job needs.

Construct Elements Operationalized

Matthew Fairholm (2004a) operationalized these constructs by developing three categories that define each construct. These categories were an addition to the original model, and were used to test the model in Fairholm's study.

1. *Implementation Description* – Implementation of this model of leadership is composed of key elements arranged in ways that allow each construct (leadership perspective) to have logical and practical meaning. These elements include leadership task and goals.
2. *Tools and Behaviors* – The behaviors needed and/or tools for each leadership perspective point to the individual's capacity to “do leadership” in terms of the construct's essential characteristics.
3. *Approach to Followers* – The approach to others associated with each leadership perspective highlights the basic position one places him or herself in the leadership relationship as compared to another person in the leadership relationship.

Variables Operationalized

Within each operationalized element of each leadership perspective, variables were further defined as listed in Tables 3.1, 3.2, and 3.3 (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a).

Table 3.1: Key Variables for Implementation Description

	Implementation Description (ID)
Scientific Management (SM)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Efficiency</i> - Ensure efficient use of resources to ensure group activity is controlled and predictable. 2. <i>Productivity</i> - Ensure verifiably optimal productivity and resource allocation.
Excellence Management (EM)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. <i>Continuous Process Improvement</i> - Foster a continuous process improvement environment for increased service and productivity level. 4. <i>Transform</i> - Transform the environment and perceptions of followers to encourage innovation, high quality products, and excellent services.
Values Leadership (VL)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. <i>Proactive Contributors</i> - Help individuals become proactive contributors to group action based on shared values and agreed upon goals 6. <i>High Performance</i> - Encourage high organizational performance and self-led followers
Trust Cultural Leadership (TCL)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. <i>Mutual Trust</i> - Ensure cultures conducive to mutual trust and unified collective action. 8. <i>Cultural Values</i> - Prioritization of mutual cultural values and organizational conduct in terms of those values.
Spiritual (Whole-Soul) Leadership (WSL)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. <i>Concern for Whole Person</i> - Relate to individuals such that concern for the whole person is paramount in raising each other to higher levels of awareness and action. 10. <i>Continuous Self and Organizational Improvement</i> - Best in people is liberated in a context of continuous improvement of self, culture, and service delivery.

Table 3.2: Key Variables for Tools and Behaviors

	Tools and Behaviors (TB)
Scientific Management (SM)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Measurement of Individual</i> – Measuring, appraising, and rewarding individual performance. 2. <i>Organizing</i> – Organizing work to include such activities as budgeting and staffing 3. <i>Planning</i> – Planning work to include such activities as coordination and reporting.
Excellence Management (EM)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. <i>Process Improvement</i> – Focusing on process improvement. 5. <i>Listen</i> – Listen actively. 6. <i>Accessibility</i> – Being accessible (to include such things as management by walking around, and open door policies).
Values Leadership (VL)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. <i>Values Setting</i> – Setting and enforcing values. 8. <i>Visioning</i> – Creating an organizational vision 9. <i>Communicating Vision</i> – Focusing communications around the vision.
Trust Cultural Leadership (TCL)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 10. <i>Creating Culture</i> – Creating and maintaining culture through visioning. 11. <i>Sharing Governance</i> – Sharing governance through mutually agreed upon goals and processes. 12. <i>Measurement of Groups</i> – Measuring, appraising, and rewarding group performance.
Spiritual (Whole-Soul) Leadership (WSL)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 13. <i>Individual Wholeness</i> – Developing and enabling individual wholeness in a community (team) context. 14. <i>Intelligent Organization</i> – Fostering an intelligent organization that allows for creativity, new patterns of thinking, learning. 15. <i>Morals</i> – Setting moral standards.

Table 3.3: Key Variables for Approaches to Followers

	Approaches to Followers (AF)
Scientific Management (SM)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Incentivization</i> – Provide incentives for performance. 2. <i>Control</i> – Apply control mechanisms to insure that work is completed properly and on time. 3. <i>Direction</i> – Provide direction for task completion.
Excellence Management (EM)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. <i>Motivation</i> – Motivate employees to higher levels of performance. 5. <i>Engage People</i> – Engage employees in problem definition and solution. 6. <i>Courtesy</i> – Express common courtesy and respect.
Values Leadership (VL)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. <i>Values prioritization</i>– Prioritize values for employees. 8. <i>Teaching</i> – Provide teaching and coaching to employees. 9. <i>Empower</i> – Foster ownership by empowering employees to determine the best way to achieve their goals.
Trust Cultural Leadership (TCL)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 10. <i>Trust</i> – Develop an environment of mutual trust. 11. <i>Team Building</i> – Foster an environment where individuals work together. 12. <i>Shared Culture</i> – Create an organizational culture that all members can be part of regardless of various subcultures that may exist within the organization.
Spiritual (Whole-Soul) Leadership (WSL)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 13. <i>Inspiration</i> – Create an environment that inspires individuals to do more for the organization. 14. <i>Liberation</i> – Liberate followers to build community and promote stewardship. 15. <i>Service</i> – Model a service orientation.

Other Variables

Other variables were collected for the purpose of demographically describing the sample. These data can be used to further analyze the model in terms of other variables. Such analysis is not a part of this study, but may provide data for future studies. Table 3.4 contains the description of other variables collected, but not analyzed in this study.

Table 3.4: Description of Other Variables Collected, but Not Analyzed

Variable	Description of Variable	Variable Codes
Gender	Gender of subject	01 = Male 02 = Female
Ethnicity	Ethnicity of subject (categories from Commonwealth of Virginia job application)	01 = White (includes Arabians) 02 = Black (includes Jamaicans, Bahamians, and other Carribeans of African but not Hispanic descent) 03 = Hispanic (includes persons of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Central or South American or other Spanish origin or culture) 04 = Asian & Asian American (includes Pakistanis, Indians, and Pacific Islanders) 05 = American Indian (includes Alaskans)
Age	Age of subject in years	01 = 24 or younger 02 = 25-29 03 = 30-34 04 = 35-39 05 = 40-44 06 = 45-49 07 = 50-54 08 = 55-59 09 = 60-64 10 = 65-69 11 = 70 or older

Table 3.4 (Continued)

Variable	Description of Variable	Variable Codes
Years Experience	Total number of years of managerial experience subject possesses	01 = 0-5 02 = 6-10 03 = 11-15 04 = 16-20 05 = 20-25 06 = More than 25 years
Years in Position	Total number of years the subject has been in managerial current position	01 = 0-5 02 = 6-10 03 = 11-15 04 = 16-20 05 = 20-25 06 = More than 25 years
Current Title	Current job title of subject	Open Ended
Other Positions	Job title of other positions subject has had with the agency	Open Ended
Other Agencies	Job title of other positions subject has had within other public agencies	Open Ended
Time in position	Amount of time subject has been employed in other public agency(s)	01 = 0-5 02 = 6-10 03 = 11-15 04 = 16-20 05 = 20-25 06 = More than 25 years

Table 3.4 (Continued)

Variable	Description of Variable	Variable Codes
Other Sectors	Name of other organizations where subject has been employed that are not government agencies. Name of sector.	Open Ended – Include name of organization and sector
Educational Level	Professional preparation of subject including types and title of degrees, certifications and other professional training.	01 – Associate Degree 02 = Bachelor Degree 03 = Master Degree 04 = Doctorate Degree 05 = Professional Certification 06 = Professional Training
Leadership Training	Has subject had any leadership training	01 = Yes 02 = No
If yes, what kind of Training	If subject has had leadership training, title of training and description of where training occurred	Open Ended

Sampling Strategy

VDOC is comprised of five separate divisions that manage the daily operations of the correctional system: the Operations Division focuses on management of institutions; the Community Corrections Division focuses on probation and parole; the Administration Division focuses on general support of the agency to include procurement, privatization

projects, and architectural and engineering services; the Inspector General Division focuses on internal auditing and special investigations; and the Human Resources Division focuses on employment, benefits, and staff development.

Purposive sampling was used to determine which divisions to include in the sample. Purposive sampling is a nonprobability strategy that is dependent upon the researcher's judgment that the sample included is representative of the population (O'Sullivan et al., 2003). For this study, the Operations, Community Corrections, and Administration divisions were purposively chosen because they have the hierarchy and structure that provided a sample of managers at the lower, middle, and upper levels of management.

Within the functional areas of DOC, the Operations Division and the Community Corrections Division have a similar reporting structure, with parallel positions between both divisions. A deputy director is responsible for each division and a regional director who reports to the deputy director is responsible for each of the geographical regions. Wardens report to their respective regional director in the Operations Divisions, and Probation and Parole Chiefs report to their respective director in the Community Corrections Division. Assistant Wardens report to the Warden at each institution and one or more Deputy Probation and Parole Chiefs report to the Probation and Parole Chiefs. For the purposes of this study, Deputy Directors and Regional Directors are classified as upper management, Wardens and Probation and Parole Chiefs are classified as middle management, and Assistant Wardens and Deputy Probation and Parole Chiefs are classified as lower management.

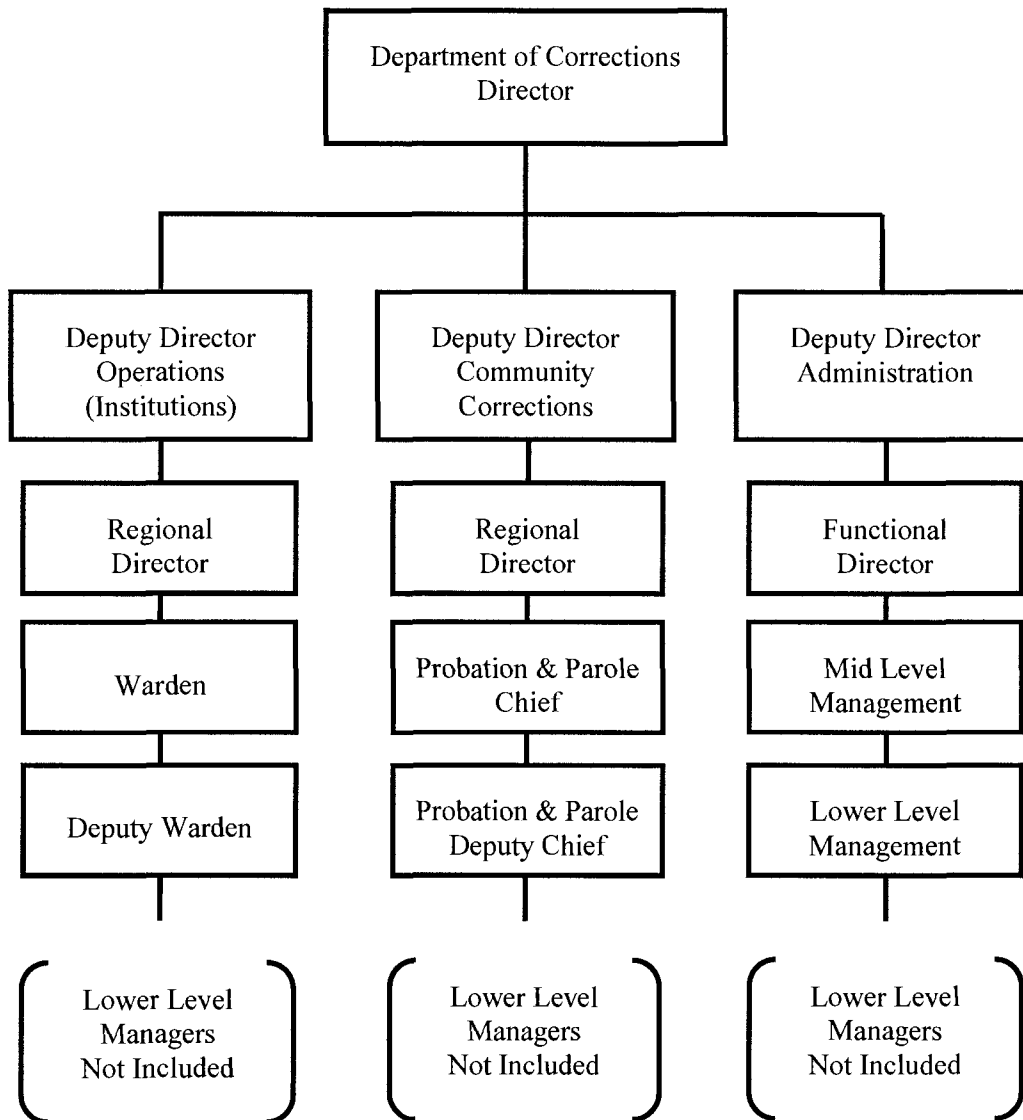
At the request of the host organization, the Administrative Division of DOC is also included in this study. Administration does not follow the exact same structure as the Operations and Community Corrections Divisions, but it employs managers at the upper, middle and lower levels with managerial responsibility similar to the other two divisions. Classification of level of management for the Administration Division was made by a representative from the DOC Human Resources Department.

A limitation with the designation of the levels of management is that, particularly in the Operations Division, there are levels of management that extend further down toward the level of line managers and supervisors. The Operations Division has a strong military-like structure, and there are several levels of management between the front line supervisor and the Assistant Warden, the lowest level of management included in the sample for this study. In the Community Corrections and Administration Divisions, the disparity between the lowest level managers interviewed and the lowest levels that exist within the organizational structure was not as great. Still, there may be levels of management below those that were considered lower level management for the purpose of this study.

A potential impact of the sampling strategy is that instead of reaching into the lowest levels of management, the sample may actually reach into the lowest levels of upper management, particularly in the portion of the sample from the Operations Division. If this is the case, the data could be skewed toward upper level management. If Fairholm's (2004a) proposition that leadership perspective increases with level of management is supported, then this would mean that a higher number of the subjects would type in the higher level perspectives, even if they are not categorized as an upper

level manager. Figure 3.1 depicts the organizational structure of the DOC managers included in the research sample.

Figure 3.1: Organizational Structure of DOC Managers Included in Research Sample



In qualitative inquiry, sample size is a trade-off between the breadth and depth of the study. Studies are often bounded by a specific amount of time and resources and how those resources are utilized can greatly influence the final product. A small sample size can yield a large amount of detailed information, while a larger sample size will be more helpful in exploring a phenomenon, and trying to explore variation (Patton, 2002). The sample size chosen for this study is 55 managers. That number was chosen because the study requires enough participation to determine variations of five perspectives of leadership across three levels of managers. Inclusion of 55 managers is deemed to be large enough to identify variations among the sample, and small enough to be undertaken within the scope of the resources available.

According to Merriam, “probabilistic sampling is not necessary or even justifiable in qualitative research...[and]...nonprobability sampling is the method of choice” (1998, p. 62). Nonprobability sampling allows the investigator to choose the sample from which the most information can be learned (Patton, 2002). In this research, the sample has been purposefully selected from managers within the Operations, Community Corrections, and Administrative Divisions. These Divisions were chosen because they offer the range of management levels needed to provide the data required to analyze the research questions. Managers within these divisions have similar job responsibilities across levels of management, and the divisions are structured in a similar hierarchy. The sample contains 18 managers from institutions, 18 managers from community corrections, and 19 managers from administration, for a total of 55 participants.

The sample is also stratified by level of management across divisions. Since the study requires participation of managers at the lower, middle and upper levels of

management, the managers chosen from each division were further stratified by the three levels of management. These levels are balanced as equally as possible, with 14 participants from upper management, 21 participants from middle management, and 20 participants from lower level management. The upper managerial level has less representation because there are fewer employees at that level. Managerial level was established with a point of contact in the human resources department of VDOC by associating each job title with a managerial level and coordinating the levels across departments.

Managers, who were purposefully selected by division and level of management, were then asked to volunteer to participate in the study. Thus, these managers self-selected by volunteering to participate in the study, creating a potential self selection bias. Table 3.5 depicts the purposeful sample stratified by division and level of management.

Table 3.5: Purposeful Sample Stratified by Division and Level of Management

	Institutions Division	Community Corrections	Administration Division	Total Participants
Upper Management	4	4	6	14
Middle Management	7	7	7	21
Lower Management	7	7	6	20
Total Participants	18	18	19	55

Pilot Test

Use of a pilot test assists in refinement of data collection procedures in terms of both the content of the data and the procedures used to collect the data (Yin, 2003). The host organization requested a pilot test to review the interview protocol and data collection prior to scheduling all of the interviews. The first five interviews conducted were used as a pilot test, and these interviews were transcribed and coded prior to any further data collection. The pilot interviews confirmed that the interviews were completed in the time frame allowed, that they yielded the information desired, and that the coding scheme for data analysis was functional. Since no adjustments were made in the interviewing protocol as a result of the pilot test, these data were included in the final data analysis, and the remaining 50 interviews were then scheduled and conducted.

Data Analysis

The data in this study were analyzed using content analysis techniques appropriate for a prestructured case study. Content analysis refers to interview data reduction and sense-making used to identify the core themes and meaning of the data collected (Patton, 2002). A prestructured case is one in which the conceptual framework is precise, the research questions are explicit, and the investigator has a clear sense of the data that needs to be collected (Miles & Huberman, 1994). According to Miles and Huberman, when those factors are in place, qualitative data collection procedures can be streamlined to reduce the amount of time and resources required for data reduction and sense-making.

This case study meets all the criteria for a prestructured case. First, the conceptual framework is precise with the constructs and variables clearly defined.

Second, the research questions are explicit, and narrow enough to be explored through targeted semi-structured interviewing techniques. Finally, the investigator has in depth knowledge of the subject matter and a clear understanding of the data that needs to be collected during each interview.

When using qualitative methods of data collection, it is possible to collect large volumes of data that must then be organized in a manner that is meaningful. In this study, the following steps were taken to analyze the data. First, the interviews were conducted in a manner that was semi structured, with a list of open-ended questions that were designed to map specifically to individual elements of the LPM. While any question could potentially yield information applicable to elements beyond the focus of the question, the thematic map helped to organize the data (see Appendix B: Thematic Mapping). Second, the interviews were recorded using a digital voice recorder, and these recordings were subsequently transcribed for coding at a later date.

The third step in the process was to content analyze the interview notes using a coding scheme. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), the determination of when to code is vitally important because coding is an ongoing form of data analysis that should drive data collection. The coding of this research followed the recommendation of Miles and Huberman to code all previous data prior to going into the field the next time. This allowed for both deductive and inductive analysis in ongoing data collection. For example, early interviews were coded deductively to align with the conceptual framework. However, the processes of coding these interviews also revealed phenomenon not anticipated. For example, the investigator noticed early in the interviewing and coding process that many interviewees used concepts to describe their

leadership that were not a part of the model being studied. These concepts were noted and coded in subsequent interview transcriptions so that the investigator could be sensitive to an emerging pattern of data that could be analyzed inductively at a later date to determine its importance to the study.

The coding scheme used to analyze the data was descriptive in nature. Descriptive coding entails minimal interpretation and is used to attribute a phenomenon to a segment of text (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The list of descriptive codes was predefined to identify both the leadership perspective and the operational element of the construct found in the segment of text. Table 3.6 provides a list of the predefined codes for the leadership perspectives and operational elements.

Table 3.6: Predefined Codes for Perspectives and Operational Elements

Perspective / Element	Code
Scientific Management	SM
Implementation Description	SMID
Tools and Behaviors	SMTB
Approach to Followers	SMAF
Excellence Management	EM
Implementation Description	EMID
Tools and Behaviors	EMTB
Approach to Followers	EMAF
Values Leadership	VL
Implementation Description	VLID
Tools and Behaviors	VLTB
Approach to Followers	VLAF
Trust Cultural Leadership	TCL
Implementation Description	TCLID
Tools and Behaviors	TCLTB
Approach to Followers	TCLAF
Whole Soul Leadership	WSL
Implementation Description	WSLID
Tools and Behaviors	WSLTB
Approach to Followers	WSLAF

The coded interview notes were then transcribed to a data analysis worksheet. The worksheet was divided into five sections, one for each of the perspectives, and further divided into the three elements of implementation description, tools and behavior, and approach to followers that comprise each perspective. The data was organized into the worksheet with “hits” for each element of each perspective (see Appendix C: Summary Data Worksheet).

A hit was defined as a phrase that describes one of the variables. For example, when a participant is asked “If you were to define leadership, what would your definition be?” responses such as “creating efficiency in the department” and “utilizing resources effectively” were coded as a hit for scientific management (coded as SM), in the implementation description category (coded as ID); thus the items were coded as SMID. The number of hits in each element was totaled, and the number of hits for each perspective was totaled. Thus, each subject was “typed” in the perspective with the highest number of hits. After the data was coded and tallied, and the individual was typed, the data were analyzed using to Fairholm’s methodology, where applicable.

Descriptive Data

The first step in the data analysis process is to report the demographic data that were collected. The demographic data do not specifically relate to the research questions, but are useful in describing the sample. These data include gender, ethnicity, age, years in current position, years employed as a manager, previous employment, leadership training, and educational level of the participants.

Research Question One

In this study, research question one asks: *To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections reflect the Leadership Perspectives Model?* Fairholm's (2004a) methodology was used extensively to answer the first research question of this study. Fairholm found support for the LPM by analyzing three specific aspects of the model: 1) the extent to which the operational elements of implementation description, tools and behavior, and approach to followers were found to differentiate leadership perspectives, 2) the extent to which the five perspectives of leadership were found, and 3) the extent to which the perspectives were found to be hierarchical in nature. Each of these aspects of the LPM is analyzed in this study.

A limitation in Fairholm's (2004a) data analysis is that support is found for each operational element if hits are found within the element. Similarly, the perspectives are found to be supported if any subject types within the perspectives. There is no cut point at which the number of hits is determined to support or fail to support the existence of the element and/or the perspective in the data. As a result, an element with only one hit can be deemed as being represented and supportive of the model, even though it is weakly represented. Since Fairholm was focused on determining the existence of both the elements and the perspectives, this was a reasonable methodology for his purposes. In accordance with Fairholm's methodology, this study deems any number of hits in a category as supportive of the model. However, for this study, cut points are established to determine the strength of support for each element and each perspective, and to provide a mechanism by which comparisons can be made.

Cut points are established for three different analyses that are used throughout the data analysis for this study: the three operational elements, the operational elements across all five perspectives; and the five perspectives. Following is the calculation of cut points for the operational elements. Since there are three elements, equal representation of each element would be 33.33 percent of the hits. Using standard rounding techniques this number is rounded down to 33 percent. Thus, strong support for an element is found if more than 33 percent of the hits are contained within that element. To determine moderate and weak support, 33 percent is divided by two and rounded. The resulting 17 percent provides the cut points for moderate and weak support. Thus, an element is found to be moderately supported with 17 to 33 percent of the hits, and weakly supported with less than 17 percent of the hits.

When looking at all three elements across all five perspectives the cut points for are established using the same logic used for the operational elements. Since there are five perspectives with three elements in each perspective, the total number of hits is divided across 15 categories. Thus, if each element were equally represented, it would contain 6.66 percent of the total hits. Rounding this number up to 7 percent provides a barometer for determining the strength of hits in each element. Elements are categorized as strong if they contain more than 7 percent of the hits, moderate if they have 4 to 7 percent of the hits, and weak if they have less than 4 percent of the hits.

When analyzing the five perspectives, the cut points are established using the same logic used for operational elements and operational elements across perspectives. There are five perspectives, and equal representation in each perspective would be 20 percent of the hits. The perspectives are considered strongly represented if they contain

more than 20 percent of the hits, moderately supported with 10 to 20 percent of the hits, and weakly supported with less than 10 percent of the hits. Data analysis for this study begins with an analysis of the operational elements.

Operational Elements

Each of the five perspectives is defined in terms of the operational elements of implementation description, tools and behavior, and approach to followers. The first step in determining if the LPM is supported in the data is to determine the extent to which the three elements are found in the data. This analysis is performed by determining the percentage of total hits that are found within each of the three elements. Each of the elements is then analyzed in terms of strong, moderate, or weak support using the cut points established for operational elements.

The second analysis of the operational elements determines if each of the three elements is found in each of the five perspectives, for a total of 15 data points. This analysis examines the data in terms of percentage of hits across each element of each perspective. Each element is then analyzed to determine if strong, moderate, or weak support for the model is found using the cut points established for operational elements across perspectives.

The next method used to analyze the operational elements determines how well the elements describe the perspective. This analysis places each element in the context of each perspective and provides an indicator for its strength as a differentiator of that perspective. This analysis is accomplished by calculating the total number of hits found within each perspective and then determining the percentage of those hits that were found

in each of the three operational elements. The cut points for this analysis are the same as those established for operational elements.

These three analyses conclude the data analysis for operational elements. After each analysis is presented in Chapter IV, each element is discussed individually in terms of the three analyses. Qualitative data from the interviews is used to illustrate the findings. The next step in data analysis focuses on the leadership perspectives.

Leadership Perspectives

After evaluating the total number of hits in terms of the operational elements, the analysis shifts to examination of each perspective to determine the extent to which each is represented in the data. This is accomplished in two ways. First, the perspectives are evaluated in terms of the percentage of total hits found in each perspective. Percentages are rated as strong, moderate, and weak using the cut points established for leadership perspectives.

The second method used to determine if each perspective is represented in the data is to determine the primary perspective of each subject. As discussed in the coding scheme, each individual is “typed” into the perspective in which he or she has the highest number of hits. To find support for the model, the expectation is that the sample is typed across all five perspectives. This analysis is different from the simple analysis of number of hits in each perspective, because it indicates the primary perspective of each subject. If all five perspectives are found as a primary perspective, then evidence is found to support the model. Strength of representation has been determined using the cut points established for leadership perspectives.

After data for the two analyses of leadership perspective are presented in Chapter IV, each perspective is discussed individually in terms of the two analyses. Qualitative data from the interviews are used to illustrate the findings. Analysis of the leadership perspectives will then focus on the more complex concepts of multiple perspectives and pure form and majority perspectives.

Multiple Perspectives

Multiple perspectives are loosely defined in Fairholm's (2004a) analysis as the presence of hits in perspectives other than the primary perspectives. According to Fairholm, the existence of multiple perspectives may suggest that subjects have complex concepts of leadership and that these concepts are evolving upward to higher level perspectives. He asserts that the presence of hits in perspectives other than the primary perspective may actually provide strength for the model. Since the perspectives are considered to be paradigmatic in scope, the expectation is that an individual will function largely within his or her perspective, or paradigm. The existence of hits in lower order perspectives may indicate that some of the elements of those perspectives are still useful to the individual, while existence of hits in a higher order perspective may indicate that his or her perspective is moving toward a higher level. Fairholm (2004a) cites the existence of pure forms, where 100 percent of the hits are contained within one perspective and majority perspectives, where the majority of hits are contained within one perspective, as evidence that all five perspectives are present within the data. Thus, the existence of multiple perspectives is not given much concern in Fairholm's analysis because, within his data, he is easily able to explain the existence of multiple perspectives.

The existence of pure forms and majority perspectives, according to Fairholm (2004a), provide support for the model, and ameliorate concerns about multiple perspectives. Thus, the next step in the data analysis is to determine if pure forms and majority perspectives exist.

Pure Forms and Majority Perspectives

Pure forms are defined as 100 percent of the hits from a single subject falling within one perspective. Fairholm (2004a) also introduces the notion of “clear majorities” in analyzing the purity of the leadership perspective. This is calculated as the percentage of leadership elements found in only one perspective, and is notated at 50 percent, 65 percent, or 75 percent clear majority. In this study, pure forms are determined in the manner established by Fairholm, with 100 percent of the hits falling within one perspective. Majorities are calculated as over 50 percent of the hits falling in one perspective and the actual percentage is notated. The existence of pure forms and majority perspectives provides validity to the model because they indicate the extent to which the perspectives are supported in the model without the existence of multiple perspectives. The final analysis for research question one focuses on the hierarchy of the perspectives.

Hierarchy of Perspectives

The issue of multiple perspectives suggests that individuals are “undergoing transition from one perspective to another and retain the vocabulary and principles of the previous perspective as they also try to internalize and express the vocabulary and principles of the perspective they are beginning to adopt” (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a, p. 166). If the presence of multiple perspectives indicates movement from the primary

perspective to the secondary perspective, then analysis of primary and secondary perspectives is necessary to validate that the model is hierarchical. This is accomplished by determining if the secondary perspective of each subject is found to be progressive in nature, meaning that it is a higher level perspective than the primary. According to Fairholm, this relationship between the primary and secondary perspectives, determines if the perspectives relate to one another in a hierarchical manner.

In this study, the primary and secondary perspectives are analyzed to determine if they are progressive in nature. In addition, the data are analyzed to determine if the relationship between the primary and secondary perspectives show movement to the next perspective, or if perspectives are skipped. This becomes important in terms of data interpretation because movement to the next perspective indicates the logical progression of the hierarchy. Movement to a perspective higher than the primary, but not the perspective next in the hierarchy, may call into question the validity of the skipped perspective.

Summary Research Question One Analysis

Research question one is answered through analysis of the data to determine 1) the extent to which the operational elements of implementation description, tools and behavior, and approach to followers were found to differentiate leadership perspectives, 2) the extent to which the five perspectives of leadership were found, and 3) the extent to which the perspectives were found to be hierarchical in nature.

Research Question Two

In this study, research question two asks: *To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections*

vary by level of management? In Fairholm's (2004a) study, he found that the higher a manager was in the organizational hierarchy, the more likely he or she was to have a higher level leadership perspective. Based on Fairholm's findings, the expectation is that lower level managers will type primarily in the scientific management perspective, with an increase in perspective as level of management increases. Fairholm considers this relationship between level of management and leadership perspective as another indicator that the perspectives are hierarchical in nature.

Analysis of how the perspectives vary by level of management includes three separate analyses: 1) analysis of level of management in terms of number of total hits within each operational element; 2) analysis of level of management in terms of total number of hits in each leadership perspective; and 3) analysis of the primary perspective of each subject categorized by level of management. These three analyses are the same as the some of the analyses used to analyze research question one, with the exception of adding the complexity of analyzing the data by the three levels of management. The first analysis under the heading of *Operational Elements* in research question one is used, as well as the two analyses described under the heading *Leadership Perspectives*. The strength indicators established for research question one are also used in the analyses for research question two. A description of each analysis is provided for review.

Operational Elements

The first analysis of the level of management is used to determine how the total number of hits for each level is distributed across the operational elements of implementation description, tools and behaviors, and approach to followers. The first step in this analysis is to calculate the total number of hits for each level of management.

The data for each level are then distributed across the three operational elements, and the cut points established for operational elements are used to compare the differences in the strength of support for each element based on level of management. By classifying the operational elements in terms of strong, moderate, and weak for each level of management, it becomes easy to identify differences in how each level of management utilizes the operational elements. The second analysis evaluates the leadership perspectives.

Leadership Perspectives

The second analysis of level of management is used to determine how the total number of hits for each level is distributed across the five leadership perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, values leadership, trust cultural leadership, and whole soul leadership. The total number of hits for each level of management has already been established in the calculation for operational elements. For the leadership perspective analysis, these hits are distributed across each of the five perspectives to determine the differences in the strength of support based on level of management. This analysis allows for comparison of support for the perspectives by level of management.

Primary Perspective

The final analysis for level of management focuses on the primary perspective of each subject categorized by level of management. The total number of managers for each level of management is categorized into the five perspectives to determine the percentage of managers at each level typed in each of the perspectives. These data are presented in Chapter IV in three separate figures, one for each level of management, and then

presented in a combined figure for comparison. A discussion of each level of management in terms of distribution across perspectives follows the figure for each level, and a discussion comparing the three levels as typed across each perspective follows the combined graph. Qualitative data is interspersed throughout to illustrate the findings.

Summary of Analysis for Research Question Two

Research question two is answered through analysis of the data to determine 1) the extent to which level of management varies in terms of number of total hits within each operational element; 2) the extent to which level of management varies in terms of total number of hits in each leadership perspective; and 3) the extent to which level of management varies in terms of the primary perspective of each subject.

Validity and Reliability

The validity and reliability of this study are important considerations for its usefulness in contributing to the body of knowledge concerning leadership. Validity determines if the research measures what it was intended to measure, while reliability refers to the extent to which the research is consistent and repeatable (Golafshani, 2003). While validity and reliability are largely considered quantitative considerations, they are used in qualitative research to judge the quality of the study (Golafshani, 2003; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Patton, 2002). Thus, a discussion of construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability is appropriate for this study.

Construct Validity

Construct validity refers to establishing measures that are operationalized for the concepts of interest (Yin, 2003). According to Yin, construct validity is often a weakness in the case study approach because in the absence of operationalized measures, the

judgment of the investigator becomes critical. Such judgment can be subjective and inconsistent, creating a threat to construct validity. In this study, the use of the Leadership Perspectives Model greatly reduces the threat to construct validity because the model has already been operationalized (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a). The five perspectives of leadership are the constructs of the model and each perspective is operationalized into three separate categories. Within each category there are operationalized variables that further define each perspective. The semi-structured interview questions (Appendix A) have been designed to map directly to the model constructs using thematic mapping (Appendix B). Thus, the investigator has already established the key words and phrases that are indicative of each variable.

Internal Validity

Internal validity is used for explanatory or causal studies to establish a causal relationship between two variables (Yin, 2003). This study is not explanatory or causal in nature. The study seeks to identify the perspectives of leadership held by managers, and to determine if perspective changes with level of management. However, the study is not designed to explain how those perspectives are developed. Thus, internal validity is not a threat to this study.

External Validity

External validity establishes the generalizability of the study's findings (Yin, 2003). According to Yin, critics of the approach question the generalizability of case studies because they compare them to survey research in which the sample often readily generalizes to the universe. Yin refutes this logic stating that "this analogy to samples and universes is incorrect when dealing with case studies" (2003, p. 37). According to

Yin, survey research relies on statistical generalization, while case study research relies on analytical generalization. Thus, case study research, as an analytical generalization, can be generalized to a broader theory. Stake (2000) distinguishes between types of case studies, establishing that intrinsic case studies are not generalizable, while instrumental case studies can be generalized to larger theory.

The generalizability of an instrumental case study is not automatic. Replication of the study needs to be performed in a second or third study to establish that the theory and framework used for the study can be repeated. When two or three replications have been established, strong support for the theory is established through replication logic. Replication logic is "...the same [logic] that underlies the use of experiments" (Yin, 2003, p. 37).

This study utilizes an instrumental case study approach, and it is a replication of previous research. The phenomenon being studied is the leadership perspectives of managers, with the Virginia Department of Corrections acting as the host organization. Because the study is a replication of a previous study, the two studies can be used together to begin to establish the broader theory of the Leadership Perspectives Model.

Reliability

Reliability of a case study refers to the extent to which a later researcher using the same procedures in the same organization would arrive at the same findings. The reason researchers need to be concerned with reliability is that it reduces error and bias in the study (Yin, 2003). According to Yin, there are two methods by which reliability in case study research can be increased: use of a case study protocol and a case study database. This study will employ the use of both procedures to reduce the threat to reliability.

A case study protocol is used to document the research procedures in sufficient detail that another researcher could duplicate the study. The primary elements of the protocol are: an overview of the case study project; field procedures; case study questions; and data analysis and reporting requirements (Yin, 2003). For this study, each of these requirements is met in detail and reported through the dissertation documentation. In addition, the appendices contain copies of documents used in the interview protocol and data analysis worksheets. These documents taken together provide enough detail for a subsequent researcher to duplicate or replicate the study, thereby providing the potential to increase the study's reliability with further research.

A case study database is used to organize the raw data that the researcher collects. Such data is sometimes found only in the final report, with information scattered throughout the investigator's files (Yin, 2003). For this study a database has been compiled in two ways. First, interviews were recorded, if the subject agreed, using a digital voice recorder that produced sound files that could be downloaded and electronically organized and stored. These files are stored on a secured computer with copies stored on an electronic media for backup purposes. Interview transcriptions for each subject were also printed and are maintained in a paper file for each subject, and these files are maintained in a secure location. The case study database, both electronic and paper increases reliability because the investigator is not reliant upon memory or cryptic notes to draw conclusions. All findings are supportable through information available in the database.

Conclusion

This chapter reviews the methodology used for this research and includes a description of the research design, data collection procedures, unit of analysis of the study, sampling strategy, description of the pilot test, data analysis plan, definition of the constructs and variables, and a discussion of the validity and reliability of the study.

CHAPTER IV

Data Analysis

Introduction

Chapter IV presents the data collected and analyzed to study the perspective and practice of leadership among managers within the Virginia Department of Corrections (DOC). Each research question is discussed in detail using the data analysis procedures defined in Chapter III.

Descriptive Data

Fifty five semi-structured interviews were conducted with managers from the Virginia Department of Corrections (DOC) during this research. Fourteen interviews were conducted with upper level managers; 21 with mid level managers; and 20 with lower level managers. These interviews were dispersed across three divisions: 18 subjects were interviewed from the Operations (institutions) Division; 18 subjects were interviewed from the Community Corrections Division; and 19 subjects were interviewed from the Administrative Division.

The sample contains 65 percent males and 35 percent females. The ethnicity of the sample is 78 percent Caucasian, 20 percent African American, and 2 percent Asian. Data that were collected at the ordinal level reveal that the median age range of the subjects to is 50 to 54 years of age. Subjects have been in their current position for a median range of 0 to 5 years, and they have been a manager for a median range of 16 to 20 years. Ninety percent of the subjects have held different management positions within DOC, while ten percent did not. Fifty-five percent of the subjects have held positions

with other government agencies prior to employment with DOC, while 45 percent did not. Thirty six percent of the subjects have held positions in private industry prior to their employment with DOC, while 64 percent did not. The median educational level of the sample is completion of a bachelor degree, and 89 percent of the subjects have had leadership training.

Research Question One

To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections reflect the Leadership Perspectives Model?

As outlined in Chapter III, this question is addressed by evaluating 1) the extent to which the operational elements of implementation description, tools and behavior, and approach to followers are found to differentiate leadership perspectives, 2) the extent to which the five perspectives of leadership are found in the data, and 3) the extent to which the perspectives are found to be hierarchical in nature.

Operational Elements

One of the fundamental aspects of the LPM is the proposition that an individual's leadership perspective is defined in terms of the operationalized elements of implementation description, tools and behaviors, and approach to followers. In essence, these elements taken together form the definition of each perspective. In determining if the data collected support the LPM, it is necessary to determine if support for each element is found in the data. This analysis helps to determine if the operational elements are an accurate descriptor of the leadership perspectives.

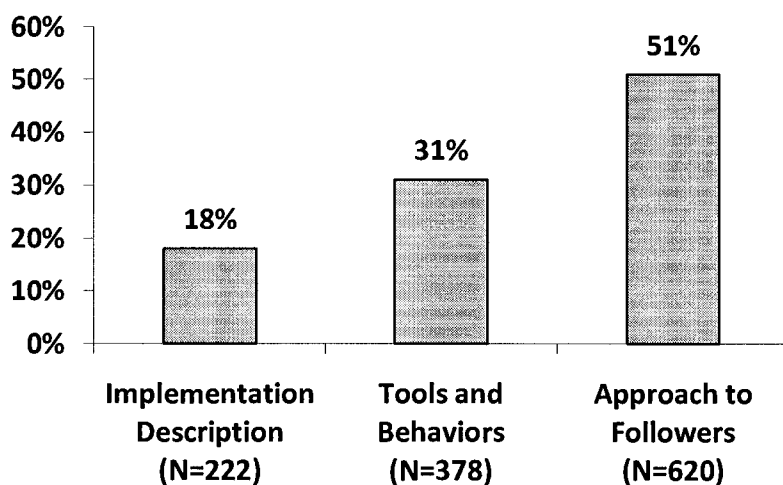
After coding the data from 55 interviews, a total of 1220 hits have been recorded and these hits are dispersed across the three elements of the five leadership perspectives in various strengths. These data have been analyzed in three different ways to determine the extent to which the elements are supported in the data. The first analysis examines the distribution of hits across the three operational elements, without further sorting the data into leadership perspectives. This analysis yields three data points, one for each operational element of implementation description, tools and behaviors, and approach to followers, with each element calculated as a percentage of the total 1220 (see Figure 4.1).

The second analysis explores how the hits are distributed across the three operational elements of each of the five perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, values leadership, trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. This analysis yields 15 data points, one for each of the three elements of each of the five perspectives (see Figure 4.2). These first two analyses provide a method of evaluating the distribution of hits across the entire model. This determines if all of the constructs of the model are represented in the data.

The third analysis evaluates the data by leadership perspective. This analysis evaluates the total number of hits in each leadership perspective, and then calculates the percentage of those hits that are found in each of the three operational elements (see Figure 4.3). This analysis also yields 15 data points, but it differs from the previous analysis because it reflects how the operational elements relate to each individual leadership perspective within the model, rather than the model as a whole. After presenting and analyzing the data for each these three analyses, an overall discussion of

each operational element follows. Figure 4.1 presents the percentage of total hits (N=1220) in each operational element.

Figure 4.1: Percentage of Total Hits in Each Operational Element



According to the parameters established in Chapter III for determining the strength of the results, strong support for an element is found when more than 33 percent of the total hits are contained within the element; moderate support is found with 17 to 33 percent of the hits; and weak supported is found when less than 17 percent of the hits are found within the element. The data in Figure 4.1 show strong support for approach to followers as an element of leadership perspectives, at 51 percent; with moderate support for both implementation description at 31 percent, and tools and behavior at 18 percent. It is worthy of note that implementation description is at the low end of moderate support, while tools and behaviors is at the high end of moderate support. With 13 percentage points separating tools and behaviors from implementation description, tools and behaviors are much more strongly represented in the data than implementation

description. Still, approach to followers dominates the percentage of hits at 51 percent; more than the other two elements combined.

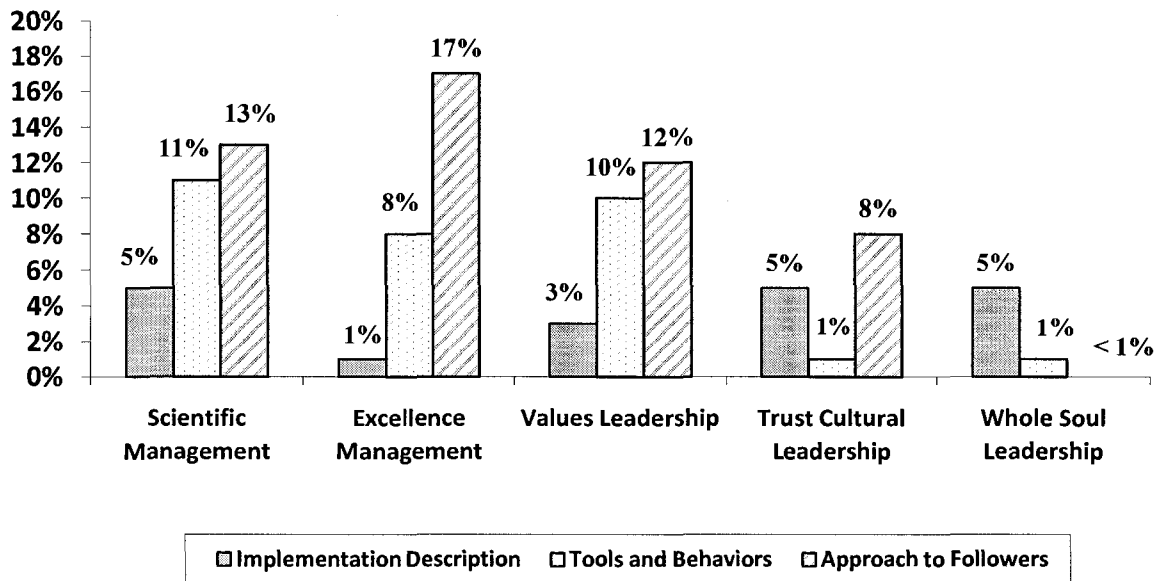
These data identify approach to followers as the strongest element of the perspectives, with tools and behaviors second, and implementation description last. This indicates that the subjects of this research define leadership largely in terms of their relationship with followers. One subject stated, “we try to make people feel like we appreciate them and they are important...a lot of little things can be done to help show that you are the leader and that you do respect and appreciate the people.” Another subject discussed the importance of followers in the leadership relationship by stating, “a lot of people can progress into leadership...I try to groom my people to be leaders.” Finally, another subject stated, “followers should be involved in the process...some of the things they come up with become a main goal and they feel good about having had the idea and participating in the process.” Each of these statements illustrates the importance of the follower in the eyes of the leader, as indicated in the data.

The second analysis evaluates the operational elements in terms of their distribution across all three elements of all five leadership perspectives. These data show the strength of the operational elements across the entire model. Table 4.1 presents the data for this analysis, showing the total number of hits and the percentage of hits found in each operational element of the LPM. Figure 4.2 presents the data graphically, showing the percentage of total hits found in each operational element of the LPM.

Table 4.1: Number of Hits and Percentage of Hits Found in Each Operational Element in the Leadership Perspectives Model

Leadership Perspective/ Operational Element	Number of Hits	Percentage of Total Hits (N=1220)
Scientific Management		
Implementation Description	56	5%
Tools and Behaviors	139	11%
Approach to Followers	163	13%
Excellence Management		
Implementation Description	8	1%
Tools and Behaviors	96	8%
Approach to Followers	206	17%
Values Leadership		
Implementation Description	32	3%
Tools and Behaviors	123	10%
Approach to Followers	149	12%
Trust Cultural Leadership		
Implementation Description	60	5%
Tools and Behaviors	6	1%
Approach to Followers	100	8%
Whole Soul Leadership		
Implementation Description	66	5%
Tools and Behaviors	14	1%
Approach to Followers	2	< 1%

Figure 4.2: Percentage of Total Hits Found in Each Operational Element of the Leadership Perspectives Model



According to the parameters established in Chapter III for determining the strength of the results, operational elements containing more than 7 percent of the hits are strongly represented; those with 4 to 7 percent are moderately represented; and those with less than 4 percent are weakly represented. Out of the 15 elements, strong support is found for seven elements; moderate support is found for three elements; and weak support is found for five elements.

Approach to followers is strongly represented in the scientific management, excellence management, values leadership, and trust cultural leadership perspectives; and the element of tools and behaviors is strongly represented in the scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership perspectives. Moderate support is found for implementation description in the scientific management, trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership perspectives. Weak support is found for the elements of

implementation description in excellence management and values leadership; tools and behaviors in trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership; and approach to followers in whole soul leadership.

These data indicate that the most strongly supported element in the entire model is approach to followers in the excellence management perspective. An important variable of this element is engaging people in the process, and this variable was consistently found among interview responses, regardless of the leadership perspective the subject held. For example, a subject who typed in the values leadership perspective clearly stated the importance of engaging people in the process when commenting, “You have to give them the opportunity and let them know that as a leader I respect what you can bring to the table; that is why I brought everyone to the table.” Another subject explained that the aspect of engaging followers is an important part of the culture of DOC. This manager explained that in a culture dominated by policy and procedures, it is important to give individuals the opportunity to provide input into the procedures whenever possible. This culture may explain why this element is so much more strongly represented than any of the others.

The remaining elements that are strongly supported are found primarily in the first three perspectives of scientific management, excellence management and values leadership; with the only other element that is strongly supported found in approach to followers in the trust cultural leadership perspective. With over 75 percent of all the hits found within the first three perspectives, these data are skewed toward the first three perspectives. The skewed data does not raise any issues with the model; it may simply indicate that this sample of managers tend toward the first three perspectives. However,

when analyzing the data trend for each perspective, there is some discrepancy in the way the five perspectives are utilized.

Each of the first three leadership perspectives shows the data trend for the elements to be exactly the same, regardless of the strength indicators. Approach to followers is the most strongly represented, followed by tools and behaviors, and then implementation description. When analyzing the last two leadership perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership, the data trend changes. Implementation description is proportionally stronger in these perspectives than the first three perspectives, with tools and behaviors proportionally weaker. Similar to the first three perspectives, approach to followers has the strongest percentage in trust cultural leadership, but this element is almost non-existent in whole soul leadership, with only two hits. The remaining elements in the last two perspectives are all weakly supported. These data present the first notion that the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management and values leadership are more strongly supported and differently supported than the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. This difference in data trends suggests that the last two perspectives are different in substantial ways from the first three perspectives.

Although the data do not provide enough information to fully explain the difference in the data trend found in the last two perspectives, they suggest that something about these perspectives is incorrect in the model. This may mean that either the operational elements are incorrectly defined for these perspectives, or that the perspectives themselves are not supported as constructed in the model. This issue is

further explored later in this chapter when consideration of a modified model is introduced.

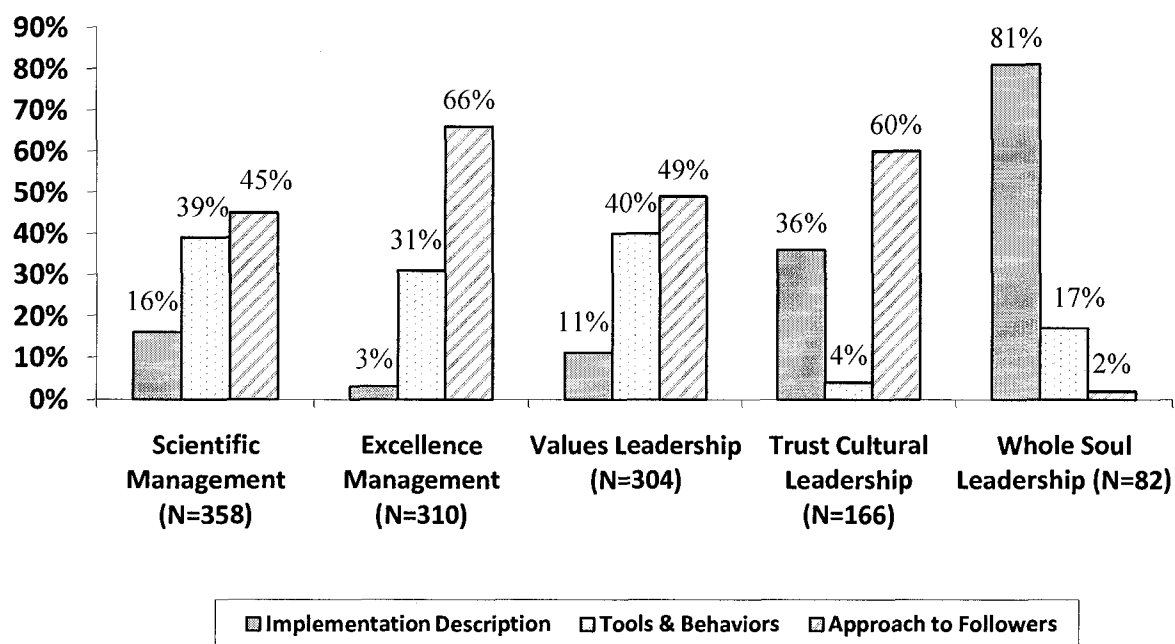
The final analysis of the operational elements is an evaluation of the elements as a percentage of the total hits within each perspective. Analysis of the operational elements as they relate within each perspective places the data in a context that allows for an analysis of the strength of the element in defining the perspective. Since the operational elements for each perspective are constructed as descriptors of the perspective, this analysis illustrates how well these descriptors define the perspective. If elements are weakly supported, this may be an indicator that the variables within that perspective are not effective in describing the perspective. It could also indicate that subjects in the sample are more comfortable using some elements than others in their leadership. The data in this research does not clarify which explanation is correct. The inability to explain the meaning of the data suggests that the constructs of the model require validation. This is further discussed in Chapter V.

Out of the 1220 total hits 358 hits were found in scientific management; 310 hits were found in excellence management; 304 hits were found in values leadership; 166 hits were found in trust cultural leadership; and 82 hits were found in whole soul leadership. For this analysis, the number of hits in each perspective is not of primary importance. The distribution of hits across the elements of the perspective is more important because it illustrates how well the elements define the perspective. Table 4.2 presents the number of hits in each leadership perspective and the percentage of the hits in each operational element within the perspective. Figure 4.3 presents the data graphically, showing the percentage of hits for each operational element within each leadership perspective.

Table 4.2: Number of Hits Found in Each Leadership Perspective and Percentage of Those Hits in Each Operational Element within the Perspective

Leadership Perspective/ Operational Element	Number of Hits in Perspective	Percentage of Hits in Perspective
Scientific Management (N=358)		
Implementation Description	56	16%
Tools and Behaviors	139	39%
Approach to Followers	163	45%
Excellence Management (N=310)		
Implementation Description	8	3%
Tools and Behaviors	96	31%
Approach to Followers	206	66%
Values Leadership (N=304)		
Implementation Description	32	11%
Tools and Behaviors	123	40%
Approach to Followers	149	49%
Trust Cultural Leadership (N=166)		
Implementation Description	60	36%
Tools and Behaviors	6	4%
Approach to Followers	100	60%
Whole Soul Leadership (N=82)		
Implementation Description	66	81%
Tools and Behaviors	14	17%
Approach to Followers	2	2%

Figure 4.3: Percentage of Hits for Each Operational Element within Each Leadership Perspective.



Using the strength indicators established in Chapter III, operational elements are strongly represented when they contain more than 33 percent of the perspective hits within the element; moderately supported with 17 to 33 percent of the hits; and weakly supported with less than 17 percent of the hits. Eight of the 15 elements provide strong indicators for their perspective. Approach to followers is strongly supported in the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, values leadership and trust cultural leadership; tools and behaviors is strongly supported in the perspectives of scientific management and values leadership; and implementation description is strongly supported in the trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership perspectives. Moderate support is found for the element of tools and behaviors in the scientific management and whole soul leadership perspectives. Weak support is found for the

element of implementation description in the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership; the element of tools and behaviors in trust cultural leadership; and the element of approach to followers in the whole soul leadership perspective.

These data indicate that implementation description is a weak descriptor of the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership. There are two explanations for this finding. First, the model itself may have a limitation in that the variables that comprise implementation description for these perspectives are not properly defined. The second explanation could be that the subjects included in the sample do not define leadership in terms of its implementations description; rather they define the more concrete elements of the tools and behaviors they use, and the way they approach followers. It is difficult to determine from the data if the problem is with the model itself, or if the subjects in the sample simply do not discuss leadership in terms of its implementation description. This issue is further explored when each of the operational elements are discussed individually.

Another issue that this analysis raises is the problem with the data trend that was noted in the previous analysis when the hits were distributed across perspectives and calculated as a percentage of total hits. The trends for the first three perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership are different than the last two perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. In each of the first three perspectives, the data trend shows approach to followers to be most strongly supported, with tools and behaviors second, and implementation description most weakly supported. For the last two perspectives, the data trend is different from the

first three and different from each other. These data indicate that implementation description is a strong descriptor of the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership, the complete opposite of the finding for the first three perspectives. Again, this is troubling because the expectation would be that the data trend would be stable, even if the strength of the support was weak.

As suggested in previous analyses, these data reveal that the last two perspectives are different from the first three. The following discussion of each of the operational elements explores the issues raised in these analyses in more depth and adds qualitative data to the discussion.

Implementation Description

In all three analyses, implementation description has moderate to weak support as an element that differentiates leadership perspective. When examined as a percentage of total hits, it is the element with the fewest hits; when every element of every perspective is evaluated, it has moderate to weak support when compared to the other elements. The only occurrence of strong support for implementation description is found when the elements are examined by perspective, with each element calculated as a percentage of the total hits for that perspective. In the hits by perspective analysis, implementation description is shown to be strongly supported in terms of the number of hits within the trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership perspectives. However, as previously discussed, the leadership perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership are more weakly supported in the data than the first three perspectives of scientific management, excellence management and values leadership. In light of this finding, it is difficult to interpret why the element of implementation description is

strongly supported in these perspectives because there are few hits in these perspectives, especially the perspective of whole soul leadership. This is an area for further research that is discussed in Chapter V.

The absence of strong support for implementation description, in the perspectives that are most used by the interviewees, indicates that the subjects in the sample are more comfortable describing leadership in terms of what they do, rather than the more abstract concept of what leadership means. This is illustrated in the responses given in the interview when asked the question, “If you were to define leadership what would your definition be?” One subject said, “I think leadership is setting the new direction or the vision.” In this response, leadership is defined in terms of visioning, a tool and behavior used in the values leadership perspective. Another subject described leadership as “...the ability to direct others to get the job done.” This response defines leadership in terms of providing direction, a scientific management approach to followers. Still another subject described leadership by stating, “A leader has to motivate people.” This response describes leadership in terms of an approach to followers in the excellence management perspective. In each of these responses, leadership is described in terms of what the leader does; either the tools and behaviors used by the leader, or the ways in which the leader approaches followers.

The high percentage of hits in implementation description for the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership indicates that individuals conceptually understand these perspectives. However, the low percentage of hits in tools and behaviors in trust cultural leadership and approach to followers in both trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership indicates that managers do not function within those

leadership perspectives. This is supported in the qualitative data. For example, one subject defined leadership from the trust culture perspective in saying, "...people need to feel safe so that when they perform their duties they feel safe to report mistakes or errors; or when they have an issue with a policy they feel safe to vocalize it." However, when asked about completing a project, this same subject said it would best be handled by "breaking it down in sections, and assigning the appropriate person for each section." Thus, the subject used the trust cultural leadership perspective to define leadership, but used a tool and behavior of the scientific management perspective to accomplish the job. This was also true of the whole soul leadership perspective. One subject illustrated this well in stating, "...people have lives outside of work and that has to be validated and recognized." This statement is an implementation description of the whole soul leadership perspective. This same manager when asked about completing a project said, "I'd ask for volunteers and if nobody volunteered then I'd volunteer one of them." This statement is an approach to followers in the scientific management perspective. These examples illustrate that even when managers describe the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership, they continue to use the tools and behaviors and approach to followers of the lower order perspectives.

Many of the subjects acknowledged that individuals have lives outside of work that a leader should consider with statements such as, "Sometimes I think leaders are guilty of seeing them [followers] simply as a tool to meet an end, as opposed to understanding that this person may also be a mom or a dad, and there is a human dimension – more than what I can get out of you." This statement falls clearly in the whole soul leadership implementation description, and was echoed by many subjects.

However, only one subject actually typed as having a whole soul leadership perspective. Thus, it would appear that articulating a description of a leadership perspective does not necessarily mean that an individual will function within the perspective, or will fully embrace the other aspects of the perspective.

Since the perspectives with the highest frequency show weak usage of implementation description as an element of the leadership perspective, and those with the lowest frequency have strong usage, implementation description appears to be a poor differentiator of leadership perspective. Further work on clarifying the descriptions of this element may help to strengthen this construct within the model. The need to validate model constructs is further discussed in Chapter V.

Tools and Behaviors

There is strong to moderate support for tools and behaviors as an operational element within the leadership perspectives. The data analysis for percentage of total hits within the elements reveals that tools and behaviors rank at the high end of the moderate range. When each element of each perspective is analyzed, the element is strongly supported in the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management and values leadership; and weakly support in the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. When the percentage of hits by perspective are analyzed, strong support for tools and behaviors is found in the perspectives of scientific management and values leadership, with moderate support found in excellence management and whole soul leadership. Even though both of these perspectives show moderate support for tools and behaviors, they are actually far apart in the data. In excellence management tools and behaviors represent 31 percent of the hits, only three percentage points away from

strong support; while tools and behaviors are 17 percent of the hits, only one percentage point away from weak support, in the perspective of whole soul leadership. Weak support is found for the element of tools and behaviors in the trust cultural leadership.

Overall, the strength of tools and behaviors as an operational element is clearly found within the interview transcripts. One individual stated that a leader must “develop a master plan” in getting a task accomplished, but must also be “available and approachable” to employees. Both of these phrases indicate the use of tools and behaviors; the first in the scientific management perspective, and the second in excellence management. This same manager also spoke of the importance of “setting the vision for the organization,” a tool and behavior in the values leadership perspective. Comments in the tools and behaviors category were not confined to any specific question in the interview; rather they were found throughout the interviews in response to several different questions. This indicates that tools and behaviors are an integral part of leadership and interview subjects use the language of tools and behaviors to describe the goals of leadership, the activities of a leader, the definition of leadership, and even the ways in which a leader interacts with followers. Overall, the data show that tools and behaviors are strongly to moderately supported as an element of the leadership perspectives, supporting the utility of this element in the model.

Approach to Followers

In all three analyses, approach to followers is shown to be a strong descriptor of leadership perspective. When examined as a percentage of total hits, approach to followers contains the majority of hits at 51 percent; more than the total hits for the elements of implementation description and tools and behaviors combined. When every

element of every perspective is evaluated, it has strong support when compared to the other elements. In fact, the only occurrence of weak support for approach to followers is found in the whole soul leadership perspective. In the hits by perspective analysis, four out the five perspectives show it to be more strongly supported than any other element within the perspective.

The strength of approach to followers as an element is also evident in the interview transcripts. When asked how leaders should relate to followers, one respondent stated, “It should be a position of trust...you must also empower the person....” This statement reflects the approach to follows in both the trust cultural leadership and values leadership perspectives respectively. Approach to followers was evident in response to other questions as well. When asked about how the leader would go about accomplishing a task with his or her followers, it was not uncommon to hear statements such as, “I would pull the people together and get their input,” or “You let them know that this is our goal and this is how we will meet it.” These comments represent the excellence management and scientific management perspectives respectively. Overall, the data show that approach to followers is a strong element of leadership perspective, supporting the utility of this element in the model.

Summary of Elements

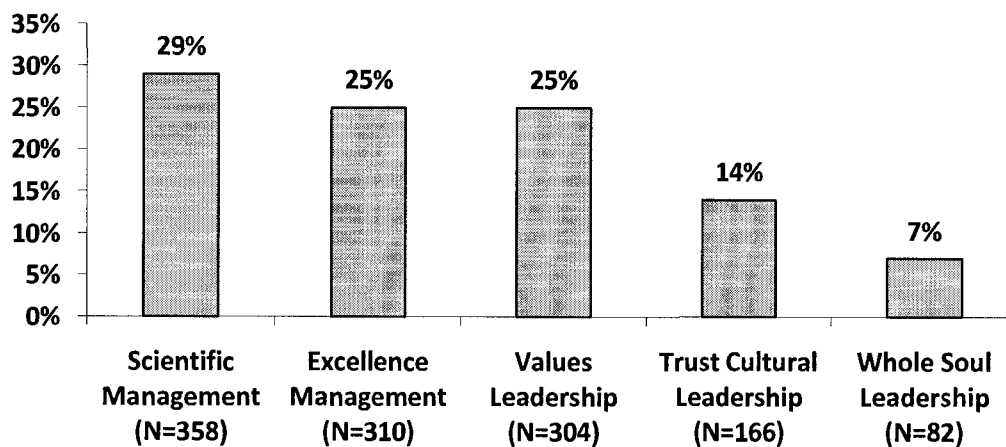
When analyzing the operational elements of implementation description, tools and behaviors, and approach to followers, there is evidence in the data of the existence of each element. However, the strength of each element in describing the leadership perspective varies. Approach to followers stands out as the strongest indicator of leadership perspective, with tools and behaviors also convincingly found within the data.

There is evidence that implementation description is found in the data, but support for this element is weak and calls into question its utility in the model. Since the three elements of implementation description, tools and behaviors, and approach to followers collectively form the description of the perspectives, examination of the variables used to describe implementation description may be necessary to strengthen this element as a descriptor of the leadership perspectives, especially within the leadership perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership. The data in this analysis gives no indicator of the reason that implementation description is weakly supported in these perspectives, but they do indicate that further research is required to validate this element.

Leadership Perspectives

A second approach to analyzing research question one is to analyze the extent to which the five leadership perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, values leadership, trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership are found within the data. The analysis of leadership perspectives is twofold. First, the data were analyzed to determine the distribution of hits across each perspective. This analysis provided an overall description of how well each perspective is represented. The second analysis evaluated the primary perspective of each subject, calculated as the perspective with the highest number of hits. After presenting the data for each of these analyses, a detailed discussion of each perspective will follow. As previously discussed, a total of 1220 hits have been recorded from 55 interviews. Figure 4.4 illustrates the percentage of total hits in each leadership perspective.

Figure 4.4: Percentage of Total Hits in Each Leadership Perspective

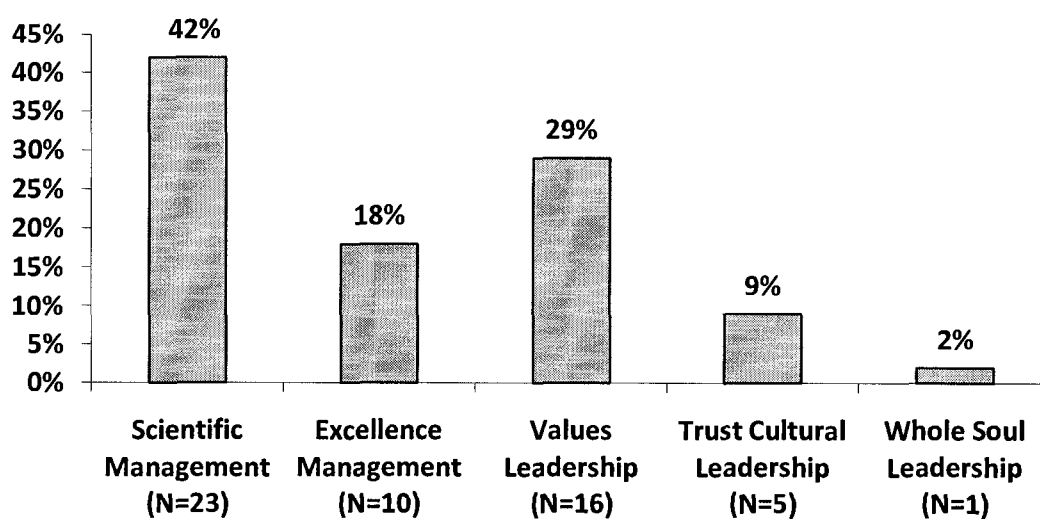


In terms of percentage of hits, the perspective of scientific management is most strongly represented, with each subsequent perspective represented with a declining number of hits. According to the strength indicators established in Chapter III, perspectives with more than 20 percent of the hits are strongly represented; those with 10 to 20 percent are moderately represented; and those less than 10 percent are weakly represented. Using these indicators, the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management and values leadership are strongly supported within the data, the perspective of trust cultural leadership is moderately supported, and whole soul leadership is weakly supported. These data do not show a great deal of difference among the first three perspectives in terms of the strength of support, but show a drop in support for the last two perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. This finding has been consistent among all previous analyses, where support for these two perspectives is moderate to weak.

The findings are different, however, when the data are analyzed in terms of the perspective in which each individual is typed – the primary perspective. The primary

perspective for each subject is determined by calculating the perspective in which the subject had the highest number of hits. Figure 4.5 presents the data for the 55 interview subjects by showing the percentage of subjects with their primary perspective in each leadership perspective.

Figure 4.5: Percent of Subjects with their Primary Perspective in Each Leadership Perspective.



When analyzed in terms of primary perspective, only the perspectives of scientific management and values leadership are strongly supported, with moderate support for excellence management, and weak support for trust cultural leadership and values leadership. A notable difference in the data presented in Figures 4.4 and 4.5 is that support for excellence management in terms of number of hits, is reduced from strong to moderate support in terms of individuals who typed in the perspective. Similarly, trust cultural leadership is reduced from moderate to weak support in terms of number

individuals who typed in the perspective. Although the data do not clearly explain this phenomenon, it may indicate that individuals freely use elements from perspectives other than their primary perspective. For example, the following quote clearly shows the use of more than one perspective. When asked about accomplishing a project with a two week deadline, a subject gave the following response:

I think there are times when a leader needs to manage. I know what a leader does and I know what a manager does and they are not the same. I would say that ideally I could empower them [followers] to get the job done and sit back. [I could] empower them to come up with the ideas for the project and to make it their own, with me standing on the outside to see the big picture and to see how it is coming along. You can only do that when you have people you can trust. But sometimes you don't empower. I think somewhere down the line with a project, especially one with a tight deadline, I would think along the lines of directing and delegating, not empowering.”

This manager spoke of empowerment, an approach to followers in the values leadership perspective, as the ideal approach to leadership. The manager also spoke of the necessity of having trust in employees, an approach to followers in the trust cultural leadership perspective. Finally, the value of directing and delegating was discussed, an approach to followers in the scientific management perspective. This indicates that the manager is not necessarily focused in one specific perspective, but rather, uses the approach to followers that is most appropriate for the situation. This particular subject was typed into the scientific management perspective as the primary perspective, but only one hit separated the primary perspective of scientific management from the secondary perspective of values leadership. This clearly shows that a subject may have multiple hits in a perspective other than the primary perspective. This raises a question regarding the paradigmatic nature of the LPM as constructed by Fairholm (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a).

Fairholm (2004a) presents the LPM as a model of leadership that is paradigmatic in nature. He draws upon the work of Barker (1992) and defines a paradigm as a “system or pattern of integrating, thoughts, actions, and patterns” (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a, p. 55). According to Fairholm, this means “people hold alternate ways of viewing the world. These perspectives shape not only how one internalizes observations and externalizes belief sets, they also determine how one measures success in oneself and others....Our leadership perspective defines what we mean when we say ‘leadership’ and shapes how we view successful leadership in others” (p.59). Fairholm leaves open the question of whether or not these paradigms or perspectives are commensurable, meaning that they can exist together, as suggested by Harman (1998), or incommensurable, as suggested by Kuhn (1996). These data suggest that the perspectives may be commensurable; suggesting an individual may hold more than one conception of leadership. This concept will be more fully explored when multiple perspectives are analyzed and further discussed as an area for further research in Chapter V. Following is a discussion of each leadership perspective using the data presented in Figures 4.4 and 4.5.

Scientific Management

Scientific management is the perspective that is most strongly supported in terms of both number of hits and percentage of subjects who are typed in the perspective. Twenty-three subjects, 42 percent of the sample, typed as having the scientific management perspective. Overall, respondents who typed in the scientific management perspective indicated that their job is primarily focused on efficiency and productivity. The tools they use to get the job done are organizing and planning, and they approach followers through direction and control.

Subjects who typed within the scientific management perspective were easily identified by their attentiveness to the task aspect of their job. One respondent asserted, “You have to make sure everyone knows the task and knows that the timeline is not negotiable....people may not like it, but that’s the deal.” Another individual stated, “...the leader gives the assignments – I decide.” The following quote provides a clear summation of the scientific management perspective.

I really do believe that some days I am down there at the task level. Did we order the screws? Why isn’t the screw going into the wall? On those days my leadership is very hands on....At my level, I spend much of my time of the task side of it – like here is what we have to get accomplished today. I prioritize for people and help them figure out what to do and how to do it....I would like my people to be more forthcoming with solutions, but often they look to me for direction. I have employees who are very focused on what they are told to do; they follow the last order given and need me to give the next order.

In the above quote, the manager has clearly articulated the scientific management perspective. This manager communicated that his concern was the operation of the organization, in this case, a prison. This responsibility kept him focused primarily on the day-to-day tasks, and he relied on his manager to set the direction and vision for the institution.

Other managers also clearly typed in the scientific management perspective. One manager stated, “I think people work well when they have a deadline and a little pressure.” Another articulated the importance of planning, saying, “I think you have to have a plan so that you know the specific things you are trying to accomplish and so that people are clear.” Yet another stated that the goal of leadership is “to provide direction for others.” Each of these statements

illustrates various aspects of the scientific management perspective. According to these data, this perspective is widely held and utilized among the managers at DOC.

Excellence Management

The data for excellence management show that it is the second highest perspective in terms of number of hits at 25 percent, but the third highest perspective in terms of number of individuals who typed in the perspective. Only 10 subjects, or 18 percent, were found to hold the excellence management perspective. These data raise an issue that may point to a limitation in the model. In all prior analyses, the perspectives of scientific management, excellent management and values leadership were strongly supported. Most notably, when examining the percentage of total hits in each leadership perspective, excellence management is identical to values leadership at 25 percent and only slightly behind scientific management at 29 percent. However, the data indicate that when individuals are typed into their primary perspective, support remains strong for the perspectives of scientific management and values leadership, but drops off considerably for excellence management, pushing it down into the category of moderate support.

An explanation for this finding may be found by evaluating the secondary and tertiary perspectives. Although excellence management is a primary perspective in only 18 percent of the subjects, it is among the top three ranking perspectives in 76 percent of the subjects. When compared to scientific management at 67 percent, values leadership at 56 percent, trust cultural leadership at 33 percent, and whole soul leadership at 15 percent, it is clear that excellence management is the strongest perspective in terms of its placement among the top three perspectives. This may explain why the excellence

management perspective has such a high number of hits and yet does not rank strongly as a primary perspective. This finding also adds credence to the suggestion that individuals may hold more than one perspective of leadership.

Overall, respondents who typed in excellence management indicated that their job is primarily focused on process improvement. The tools they use to get the job done are listening and being accessible, and they approach followers by engaging them in the process and motivating them to perform.

The data indicate that managers frequently use the elements of excellence management, even when they type in a different perspective. For example, a subject who typed in the scientific management perspective stated that leaders need to be “active listeners” and “need to motivate people.” These phrases reflect tools and behaviors and approach to followers that are hallmarks of excellence management. Another respondent, who typed dominantly in the values leadership perspective, stated that leaders need to “walk around and observe what is happening” and to “reach out to others.” These statements also reflect tools and behaviors and approach to followers that are hallmarks of excellence management.

For those respondents that were typed in the excellence management perspective, excellence management elements tended to be sprinkled throughout their responses, rather than clustered together as the response to a single question. For example, when asked how she would go about completing a task with her followers, one subject responded, “I would bring everyone together in a joint meeting and let them know what the task is. Brainstorm, seeking information about experiences they’ve had on the issue and how to go about it. After gathering all that, I would make a decision. That decision

has to be my decision. Then delegate to each person what has to be done and what the timeline is.” This statement contains a mixture of scientific management and excellence management. The subject uses the excellence management approach of bringing followers together and engaging them in the decision process, but then shifts to the scientific management approach of controlling and directing the decision.

Another example comes from a question pertaining to how the leader should approach followers. A respondent who typed in excellence management as the primary perspective stated, “I need to communicate a clear vision to the people who follow me, I am there to move them past the hurdle...but a great leader listens. You still have to keep active listening even though you have them going down a path of success because they may see a better way because every day they are the ones going down the path.” This statement reflects the values leadership perspective of casting and communicating vision, but then shifts to active listening, a tool and behavior of excellence management.

Excellence management appears to be different from the other perspectives in substantial ways. The high percentage of hits it received indicates that its elements are strongly supported in the data, and yet only a moderate number of individuals type in the excellence management perspective. The data indicate that individuals use excellence management in combination with one or more other perspectives. Fairholm (2004a) found similar anomalies with the excellence management perspective. As a part of the LPM, excellence management should be further examined to determine if it is, in fact, a perspective that can stand alone, or a simple collection of tools and behaviors and approaches to followers that are used in conjunction with other perspectives.

Values Leadership

Values leadership is strongly supported in terms of both the number of hits in the perspective, at 25 percent, and subjects who are typed within the perspective, at 29 percent. With 16 subjects in this perspective, values leadership is the second most strongly supported leadership perspective; only scientific management is more strongly represented. Overall, respondents who typed within values leadership indicated that their job is to help individuals become proactive contributors to the organization based on shared values. The tools and behaviors they use to get the job done are primarily setting and communicating the vision; while the approach taken toward follows is typically teaching and empowering.

One individual stated, “Leadership is about setting the direction, and developing the people involved...you want to build the folks who hopefully want to take your spot later on.” This individual aptly described the aspect of helping individuals to become proactive contributors of the group, an implementation description element of values leadership. Another tapped directly into the tools and behavior element of values leadership by saying:

The [organizational] mission is already there, and the leaders wrap their vision around how we are going to achieve that mission. The mission identifies the role and the leader makes clear what the mission is, articulates that to the organization, and establishes expectations for how we are going to get there. The leader infuses the vision with life and energy and gives it meaning. The leader is the number one spokesperson for the organization and shapes the vision.

Focus on the vision was a theme that ran heavily throughout many of the interviews, even for those managers who did not type in the values leadership

perspective. This is evidenced repeatedly in the data with comments such as, “there has to be a shared vision,” “a leader is someone who has a vision,” “the leader has to see the big picture and have a vision,” and, “my vision has grown as I have grown as a leader.” These comments suggest that respondents see casting and communicating vision, tools and behaviors of values leadership, as integral to their job as managers. Overall, values leadership is strongly supported as a leadership perspective by the managers at DOC.

Trust Cultural Leadership

Although moderate support for trust cultural leadership is found when the data are analyzed by total number of hits, it is weakly supported in terms of number of individuals who typed in the perspective. Only five subjects, or 15 percent, typed into the trust cultural leadership perspective. This means that, although respondents use some of the elements of trust cultural leadership, they rarely type into the perspective. Those that did type into the trust cultural perspective, view leadership in terms of setting up a culture of trust in which both the leader and follower work together to accomplish goals. These subjects used the tools and behaviors element of sharing governance and the approach to followers element of building teams and creating trust among those teams.

An individual whose leadership perspective was found to be trust cultural leadership commented, “We are such a small group and we rely on each other to get the job done, especially since we have had budget cuts and everyone has to work together for coverage.” The trust aspect is important to another individual who stated, “...it’s all about trust. A trust relationship develops when they [the followers] see the leader as caring.” Other individuals found the team building aspect of trust cultural leadership as important, as evidence by comments such as “everyone is a team” and “the support staff

is also critical to the process....everyone is a team because we all participate.” As these comments indicate, there is support for trust cultural leadership in the data when analyzing the elements, but as a perspective is it weak.

There are two potential explanations for this finding. First, the finding may indicate a limitation within the model itself; and second, the finding may be the result of something specific to the sample in this research. Each of these explanations will be addressed after discussing the whole soul leadership perspective, since the analysis applies equally to both perspectives.

Whole Soul Leadership

Whole soul leadership has been found to have weak support in the data both in terms of the number of hits, at seven percent, and the number of individuals who typed into the perspective, at two percent. The one individual who was found in the whole soul leadership perspective described concern for the individual as paramount in accomplishing the goals of the organization. The following statement from this subject provides an outstanding description of the perspective.

A leader has to know who his followers are – their interests, their likes and their dislikes. Some people don't like to be involved personally with people, but a leader needs to be able to find a way to make people feel important and appreciated. They don't have to be involved in their personal life, but most people like to talk about their family and their kids – things that are important to them personally. When people feel at ease, they will tell you things, they will work and do things beyond their capability. They don't like working on Saturday and Sunday, but if they understand the company needs them, they will do that. What they want in return is that when they need something – when they want off to go on a class trip – they want the organization to accommodate them. It's hard on family people to work every day – we don't ever close, not at Christmas or any other time. That is hard on families. So you have to identify with people and have good relationships with them. There is no cookbook for good relationships – find out what is interesting to the person. That takes an investment of time, but there is no substitute for it. A leader who doesn't have time to do that doesn't have time to be a good leader. People have lives outside of work and that has to be validated and recognized.

The concern and respect for people's lives outside of work was echoed by other subjects who did not type in the perspective of whole soul leadership, but had hits in the implementation description element of whole soul leadership. Comments such as “I want to work for a boss who is interested in who I am, not just what I do,” and “Leaders need to be sensitive to the fact that people have lives outside of work” illustrate concern for the whole person, which is the hallmark of whole soul leadership. Still, these comments are few in number when compared to the other perspectives, making whole soul leadership the least supported perspective in the model. Like the trust cultural leadership perspective, there are two potential explanations for this finding.

The first explanation addresses a limitation of the original study. In that study, a large majority of the sample was engaged in a training program where they had been exposed to the LPM (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a). The essays used in the content analysis of

the study were written by individuals applying for admittance to the Program in Excellence in Municipal Management (PEMM) at The George Washington University. These managers were employees of the District of Columbia, many of whom had been exposed to the LPM in prior training administered by the investigator. In addition, 10 of the interviews conducted by Fairholm were with individuals from the District of Columbia municipal government who had also been exposed to the LPM in training. As a result, these managers may have been taught that the most desirable leadership perspectives were the higher order perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. Thus, the data collected from the sample may have reflected a desirability bias that skewed the data toward the higher order perspectives. If Fairholm's data over represented the occurrence of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership, his finding that each of these perspectives is supported in the model could be inaccurate. In the research conducted in DOC, the sample had no prior exposure to the LPM, was not trained in the language of the model, and had no desirability bias towards the higher level perspectives.

The second potential explanation for the finding regarding trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership may pertain to the organization being studied. Fairholm (2004a) found anecdotal evidence in his study that the function of the organization may have some bearing on the perspective and practice of leadership within that organization. According to Fairholm, organizations with a public safety focus, such as DOC, are typically more focused on the development and implementation of policies and procedures, and the leadership in these organizations may be skewed toward the three perspectives of scientific management, excellence management and values leadership. If

this is the case, then the perspective of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership could be under represented in this study.

These two explanations are at odds with each other. The first explanation, if true, would indicate that the trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership perspectives may be poorly supported in the model, and were only found in the original study because the sample was biased. The second explanation suggests that the model itself may be correct, but the function of the organization being studied has skewed the data to under represent the two perspectives. To help determine which is correct, it is helpful to look more deeply into the data collected in the interviews for this research.

Evaluation of the data collected in the 55 interviews reveals that there were few subjects that focused exclusively on policy and procedures. Even though 42 percent of the subjects typed in scientific management as their primary leadership perspective, they frequently used elements from several other perspectives. Overall, the managers interviewed in DOC had a clear understanding of leadership, a clear understanding of management, and a clear understanding of the differences between the two. Their public safety focus did not appear to keep them in the lower order perspectives where policies and procedures are the driving forces behind leadership. These managers spoke descriptively and passionately about the mission of the organization to preserve and protect the safety of offenders, staff, and, perhaps most importantly, the citizens of the Commonwealth of Virginia. They spoke of empowerment, creative thinking and critical reasoning. They also spoke of safety and the importance of getting the job done right, the first time, every time. They discussed the values of the organization and the importance of creating buy-in of those values from individuals throughout the organization. They

acknowledged that they were an organization that was dynamic in nature, constantly evolving and changing. They did not indicate that they were constrained by procedures, but rather they were empowered by them.

The discussions with DOC managers covered the gamut of leadership perspectives and indicated that the managers had knowledge of a wide range of leadership elements. The qualitative data did not suggest that DOC is an organization lacking in leadership; rather it suggested that it is an organization rich in leadership. This observation is not concrete evidence of a failure of the model, but it does bring into question why the model failed to identify the complexity and diversity of leadership within DOC. The final analysis of the leadership perspectives evaluates the existence of multiple leadership perspectives, and pure form and majority perspectives in the data.

Multiple Leadership Perspectives

When an individual types in one leadership perspective, but continues to use elements of other perspectives, multiple leadership perspectives exist. The data collected in this study does not clearly indicate why multiple leadership perspectives exist, or if their presence in the data affects support of the model. However the disparity between the percentage of hits in each leadership perspective, and the percentage of individuals who typed within each perspective indicate that there is an issue in the data that should be explored.

A discussion of multiple leadership perspective requires a review of the constructs of the LPM. The LPM is constructed as a model of leadership that contains five distinct leadership perspectives. These perspectives are operationalized using the three elements of implementation description, tools and behaviors, and approach to followers; and these

elements form the description of each perspective. Each perspective is unique and discernable from the others. The perspectives are paradigmatic in nature and relate in a hierarchical manner (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a). As previously discussed, when examining the differences between the percentage of hits in each leadership perspective and the percentage of subjects who typed within each perspective, there is evidence in these data that individuals use elements from several leadership perspectives, in addition to their primary perspective. This calls into question the existence of perspectives that are distinct and paradigmatic in nature, and presents a definitional problem in the model.

Fairholm (2004a) does not fully explain what he means by paradigmatic when referring to the perspectives. He states that some individuals view paradigms as commensurable (Harman, 1998), meaning they can exist together; while others view them as incommensurable (Kuhn, 1996), meaning that the presence of one paradigm precludes the presence of another. Without defining the paradigmatic nature of the perspectives, it is difficult to analyze the extent to which the perspectives are supported in the data. If the paradigmatic nature of the perspectives is commensurable, it calls into question whether the perspectives are, in fact, distinct and separate from one another. If they are incommensurable and therefore the existence of one precludes the existence of another, it calls into question how strongly one must type in their perspective to support the model. This definitional problem represents a limitation in the model that must be resolved.

In the data for this study, subjects are clearly shown to have hits in perspectives that are not their primary perspectives. Fairholm acknowledges this issue as the existence of multiple leadership perspectives. He comments that individuals “are not always

exclusive in the leadership perspective they defined, mixing and matching elements of different perspectives” (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a, p. 152). He considers that this may mean either that individuals understand leadership in complex ways, or that their conceptions are changing from one perspective to another. Fairholm acknowledges that this problem makes it difficult to analyze the data in terms of support for each perspective. Thus, he introduces the existence of pure forms and majority perspectives as critical to supporting the five separate perspective of leadership in the model.

Pure Forms and Majority Perspectives

With the presence of multiple perspectives in the data, the existence of “pure forms” and “majority perspectives” in the sample is a measure that can be used to substantiate the existences of all five perspectives. A subject is considered to type as a “pure form” in their perspective when 100 percent of the hits are contained within that perspective. A “majority perspective” is established when over 50 percent of the hits are found within the perspective. When pure forms and majority perspectives are present in the data, the data indicate that those subjects function primarily within their perspective and do not use the other perspectives with the frequency of the subjects who have multiple perspectives. Thus, when Fairholm (2004a) found evidence of pure form or majority perspectives for each leadership perspective, with the exception of excellence management, he established this finding as evidence that the perspectives do exist in the data, and provided support for the model.

The data in this study reveal that there are no pure forms among the sample, and only eight majority perspectives, for a total of 15 percent of the sample. Out of the eight majority perspectives, seven are found in the scientific management perspective with a

range of 52 to 71 percent of the total hits found in that perspective. The other majority perspective is found in excellence management, with 67 percent of the hits found in that perspective.

It is notable that seven of the eight majority perspectives are found within the perspective of scientific management, and one is found in excellence management. Since pure forms and majority perspectives are used as part of the validation of each perspective in the model, the lack of majority perspectives for values leadership, trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership is troubling. Of particular concern is the lack of pure forms or majority perspectives for values leadership, since this perspective has been strongly supported in all other analyses.

The existence of multiple perspectives and the lack of pure forms and majority perspectives are difficult to understand in terms of support of the model, since their meaning in the model has not been established. For example, the data provides support for the all of the leadership perspectives and elements, although some are more strongly supported than others. However, the presence of multiple leadership perspectives and the absence of pure forms and majority perspectives conflict with these findings. Does a perspective have to be a majority perspective to be supported in the model? Can an individual lead using two different perspectives? These are questions that are raised in these findings that point to a limitation in the model. Although the data only raise the question without providing the answer, it may be possible that the construction of the model of needs to be more developed. The pieces of the model all appear to exist to some degree, but the model itself may be more useful in explaining leadership if

constructed differently. This is an area for future research that is further discussed in Chapter V.

Summary of Leadership Perspectives

Although each of the five perspectives is found in the data to some extent, the findings provide strong support for the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management and values leadership, and weak support for the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. The model does not provide any explanation for the existence of multiple perspectives, and provides no way to interpret the lack of pure forms and majority perspectives. The final analysis for research question one addresses the hierarchical relationship of the perspectives.

Hierarchy of Perspectives

The final analysis conducted to determine the validity of the model is used to determine if the perspectives are hierarchical in nature. According to Fairholm (2004a), the relationship between the primary and secondary perspective determines the extent to which the perspectives relate in a hierarchical manner. These perspectives should be progressive, meaning the secondary perspective is related to the primary perspective as the next highest perspective in the hierarchy. Table 4.3 shows the distribution of the secondary leadership perspective for each primary leadership perspective in the sample.

Table 4.3: Distribution of the Secondary Leadership Perspective for Each Primary Leadership Perspective

Primary Perspective	Total	Secondary Perspective				
		Scientific Management	Excellence Management	Values Leadership	Trust Cultural Leadership	Whole Soul Leadership
Scientific Management	23	**	10	10	2	1
Excellence Management	10	5	**	4	1	0
Values Leadership	16	7	5	**	3	1
Trust Cultural Leadership	5	1	2	1	**	1
Whole Soul Leadership	1	1	0	0	0	**

Note: All numbers above the asterisks () represent a higher level perspective; those below the asterisks (**) and shaded represent a lower level perspective.**

The data illustrate that the relationship between many of the primary and secondary perspectives is not progressive. Further, even when the secondary perspective is a higher level perspective, it does not always progress to the next higher order perspective. For example, 13 of the 23 subjects who typed in scientific management had a secondary perspective that was higher than excellence management, the next perspective in the hierarchy. Five of the ten subjects who typed into excellence management as the primary perspective, had scientific management, a lower order perspective, as their secondary perspective. Likewise, 12 of the 16 subjects who typed in values leadership as the primary perspective had a secondary perspective that was lower than values

leadership. In trust cultural leadership, four out of the five subjects had a secondary perspective lower than their primary. Finally, the one subject who typed in whole soul leadership as the primary perspective had a secondary perspective of scientific management.

According to these data, there is limited support for the hierarchical nature of the LPM. Instead, subjects seem to operate within several of the perspectives, although they usually prefer one over another, as evidenced by their primary perspective. This relationship between perspectives is clearly seen in the qualitative data. One subject stated, “A leader is a person who has vision and goals for the organization. Not that they can necessarily achieve all of them, but they set them and work towards them. But the department [DOC] looks at how I manage my facility or my budget or my staffing when they look at me as a leader.” When this individual discusses leadership in terms of vision and goals for the organization, the values leadership perspective is tapped into. However, the individual goes on to discuss the importance of managing, budgeting, and staffing, all tools of the scientific management perspective.

Another respondent suggests, “Leaders should mentor followers, teach them to be successful so they [followers] can grow professionally and personally. Sometimes they [leaders] also have to say this is your job – do your job – this is what you get paid for.” Again, the subject discusses the teaching and mentoring element of values leadership, but also clearly discusses the tools of scientific management. Another manager when asked about accomplishing a task with employees stated, “I would make sure I chose the right person for the task. I would talk to everyone and tell them my vision about getting this done, but also ask them what they think, then put those two things together.” In this

statement the subject begins with the scientific management approach of staffing, moves into the values leadership approach of visioning, and then concludes with the participatory approach of excellence management. These data illustrate that when analyzing the primary and secondary perspectives, as well as and the qualitative data, the hierarchical relationship of the perspectives is not supported.

In analyzing the existence of pure form and majority perspectives, and then the hierarchy of perspectives, another anomaly in the model is uncovered. Fairholm (2004a) cites the existence of pure forms as evidence that the perspectives exist, and cites the movement from one perspective to another, higher order perspective as evidence of the hierarchical relationship of the perspectives. In reality, an individual cannot have a pure form perspective and also show evidence of the hierarchical relationship of the perspectives. The two cannot exist together, since a pure form perspective is one where 100 percent of the individual's hits are found in one perspective. Thus, with a pure form perspective, there is no secondary perspective, and no evidence of movement from one perspective to another. Since the data in this research indicate that there are no pure forms and that perspectives are not hierarchical, additional research needs to be performed to determine the relationship of the perspectives to each other. This is further discussed in Chapter V.

This section presented the data analysis for research question one. The following section presents the data analysis for research question two. After the analysis of research question two, the findings for both research questions will be summarized.

Research Question Two

To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by the managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections vary by level of management?

Level of Management Discussion

Before presenting an analysis of the data related to research question two, it is important to discuss the levels of management used in this research. This discussion helps to gain a full understanding of how the selection of the sample may have impacted the outcome of the data when analyzed by level of management.

As discussed in Chapter III, the sample used for this research was stratified by the three DOC divisions of Operations (Institutions), Community Corrections, and Administration. From the top down, the Operations Division and the Community Corrections Division have a similar reporting structure, with parallel positions between both divisions. A deputy director is responsible for each division and a regional director, who reports to the deputy director, is responsible for each of the geographical regions. Wardens report to their respective regional director in the Operations Divisions, and Probation and Parole Chiefs report to their respective director in the Community Corrections Division. Assistant Wardens report to the Warden at each institution and one or more Deputy Probation and Parole Chiefs report to the Probation and Parole Chiefs.

For the purpose of this study, Deputy Directors and Regional Directors were classified as upper management, Wardens and Probation and Parole Chiefs were classified as middle management, and Assistant Wardens and Deputy Probation and Parole Chiefs were classified as lower management. Administration does not follow the

exact same structure as the Operations and Community Corrections Divisions, but it employs managers at the upper, middle and lower levels with managerial responsibility similar to the other two divisions. Classification of level of management for the Administration Division has been done by a representative from the DOC Human Resources Department.

A problem with the designation of the levels of management is that, particularly in the Operations Division, there are levels of management that extend further down toward the level of line managers and supervisors. The Operations Division has a strong military structure, and there are several levels of management between the front line supervisor and the Assistant Warden, the lowest level of management included in the sample for this study. In the Community Corrections and Administration Divisions, the disparity between the lowest level managers interviewed and the lowest levels of management that exist within the organizational structure was not as great. Still, there may be levels of management below those considered lower level management in this study.

The impact that the sampling strategy could have on the data is that instead of reaching into the lowest levels of management, the sample may actually reach into the lowest levels of upper management, particularly in the portion of the sample from the Operations Division. If this is the case, the data could be skewed toward upper level management. If Fairholm's (2004a) proposition that leadership perspective increases with level of management is supported, then this would mean that a higher number of the subjects would type in the higher level perspectives, even if they were not typed as an upper level manager. As discussed in the analysis for research question one, there were

few managers in the sample who typed into the higher level perspectives. Thus, even if the upper levels of management were over represented in the sample, this was not reflected in the results in any discernable way. The following section presents the data analysis for research question two.

Data Analysis for Research Question Two

Interviews have been conducted with 14 upper level managers, 21 mid level managers, and 20 lower level managers from DOC. The data collected in these interviews has been analyzed to determine the extent to which the perspective and practices of leadership varies by level of management within the organization. Data analysis for this research question includes three separate analyses. First, each level of management is examined in terms of total hits within each operational element. This analysis determines the extent to which each operational element is supported by each level of management. Second, the data is analyzed in terms of number of total hits in each perspective by level of management. This analysis determines the extent to which support for each leadership perspective varies by level of management. Finally, the data is analyzed by examining the primary perspective of the subjects at each level of management. This analysis evaluates how the primary perspective varies by level of management. Each of these analyses is presented, and then followed by a discussion of each level of management.

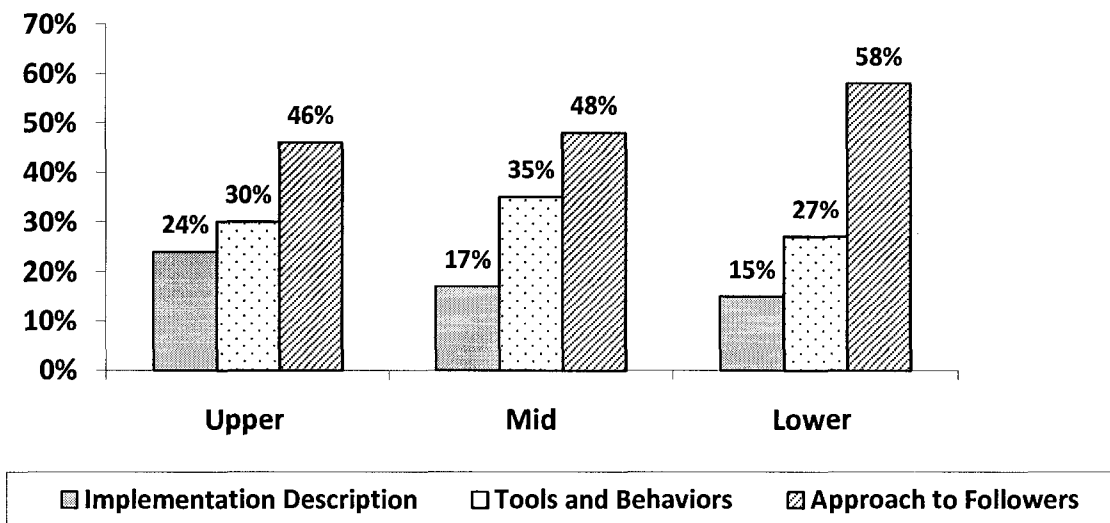
A total of 1220 total hits were recorded after coding the data collected in the interviews. When analyzed by level of management, the data reveal that 322 hits were found in upper level management; 485 hits were found in mid level management; and 413 hits were found in lower level management. The disparity between the number of

hits in upper level management and the numbers in mid and lower management levels is explained by the lower number of upper level managers interviewed. Table 4.4 presents the total number of hits and the percentage of hits for each level of management categorized by operational element. Figure 4.6 presents the data graphically, illustrating the percentage of the total hits in each level of management categorized by the three operational elements of implementation description, tools and behaviors, and approach to followers.

Table 4.4: Total Number of Hits and Percentage of Hits for Each Level of Management Categorized by Each Operational Element

	Total Hits	Percentage of Hits
Upper Level Management		
Implementation Description	77	24%
Tools and Behaviors	97	30%
Approach to Followers	148	46%
TOTAL	322	100%
Mid Level Management		
Implementation Description	82	17%
Tools and Behaviors	169	35%
Approach to Followers	234	48%
TOTAL	485	100%
Lower Level Management		
Implementation Description	63	15%
Tools and Behaviors	112	27%
Approach to Followers	238	58%
TOTAL	413	100%

Figure 4.6: Percentage of the Total Hits in Each Level of Management Categorized by Each Operational Element



According to the parameters established in Chapter III for determining the strength of the results, strong support for an element is found when more than 33 percent of the total hits are contained within the element; moderate support is found with 17 to 33 percent of the hits; and weak supported is found with less than 17 percent of the hits. Using these parameters, approach to followers is an element that is strongly supported by all levels of management; tools and behaviors is strongly supported by mid level managers and moderately supported by upper and lower level managers; and implementation description is moderately supported by upper and mid level managers, and weakly supported by lower level managers.

The data indicate that the trend for all three levels of management is the same: the approach to followers received the greatest number of hits; tools and behaviors received the second greatest number of hits; and implementation description received the fewest number of hits. It is notable, however, that even though the trend is the same for all three

levels of management, there are marked differences between them. Lower level managers have a higher percentage of hits in approach to followers than the other two levels; mid level managers have a higher percentage of hits in tools and behaviors than the other two levels; and upper level managers have a higher percentage of hits in implementation description than the other two levels. These data suggest that as level of management increases, there may be some differences in the ways in which managers use the three elements.

This finding is consistent with the concept that different skills are needed at different levels in the organization (Katz & Kahn, 1978). According to Katz & Kahn (see also Yukl, 2006), lower level managers are focused on implementing policy and procedure and maintaining the workflow within the organizational structure. These managers are in need of strong technical skills and moderate interpersonal skills to perform their job duties. Middle level managers are focused on supplementing existing policies with policies geared toward improvement of the organization. These managers need a mixture of technical, interpersonal, and conceptual skills. Upper level managers are tasked with developing strategies for continuance and improvement of the organization. These managers require strong conceptual skills. While the exact skill requirements can vary depending on organizational type, Katz and Kahn have clearly established that skill differences are typically seen at different levels within an organization. Thus, when examining the DOC managers in terms of the LPM, it is not surprising that different levels of management would utilize the operational elements differently.

Lower level managers may be concerned with approach to followers because these elements focus on getting the job done through others, using tactics such as direction, motivation, teaching, and teambuilding. For example, one lower level manager described leadership as “providing direction and vision,” an approach to followers from both the scientific management and values leadership perspectives. This manager also described leadership as “empowering them [the followers] to do their job,” an approach to followers from the values leadership perspective. Another manager at the lower level stated that the goal of leadership is to “send them [the followers] in the right direction.” This manager also commented that it is important to “meet with them [the followers] and make them part of the process.” This manager used an approach to followers in both the scientific management perspective and the excellence management perspectives to describe leadership.

Each of these quotes reflects an understanding of leadership in terms of how the followers are approached. While the data do not specifically reflect why these managers view leadership in the way they do, an explanation may be that at the lower levels, managers are more heavily tasked with implementation of policy and procedure than they are with development of policy and procedure. Thus, they need to be able to effectively communicate with those who follow them in order to accomplish the tasks of their job.

As managers move into mid level positions, they may add elements from the tools and behaviors category, since these elements tend to focus on larger organizational goals, such as process improvement, values setting, and creating culture within the organization. For example, one mid level manager, when asked to describe a leader, stated that a leader is one who is “available and approachable.” This statement reflects the tools and

behaviors of excellence management. Another mid level manager described a leader as one who has “some vision, some goals...for the organization.” This manager stated that leaders must “be able to listen – to get involved with subordinates...you need to be seen, and...you need to build consensus and let them [the followers] know they have some say or some authority or responsibility in the decisions that are being made.” These statements reflect the tools and behaviors of both excellence management and values leadership.

Finally, managers at the highest level of management may be more able to understand leadership in terms of the more abstract concept of what leadership means, the implementation description; rather than simply in terms of what leaders do, the tools and behaviors used and approach to followers. The qualitative data show that managers at the upper level use the element of implementation description with more frequency than other levels. One upper level manager, stated that the goal of leadership is to “insure constant process improvement,” an implementation description in the excellence management perspective. This same manager, when asked for any comments about leadership in general, stated, “You have to care for people,” an implementation description from the whole soul leadership perspective. Another manager, when asked about how leaders should approach followers, indicated that, “you have to ask people about their lives and show interest in them – call them by name.” This same manager, when describing a leader, said that a leader is, “a friend and supporter...if you take away the friendship, you don’t know the person; if you don’t know the person, you don’t know what personal issues they have that may impact their job.” Again, this manager

illustrates an implementation description of leadership in the whole soul leadership perspective.

If implementation description is an element that is found with more frequency at the higher levels of management, as the data suggest, this may explain why the element of implementation description received a lower number of hits than the other two elements. In the data analysis for research question one, only weak support was found for the element of implementation description. However, if upper level managers support the element of implementation description at a higher percentage than other managers, the disparity in support for this element could be explained, in part, by the fact that fewer upper level managers were interviewed. Thus, based on the findings in this analysis, support for implementation description may have been affected by the disparity in the numbers of upper level managers included in the sample.

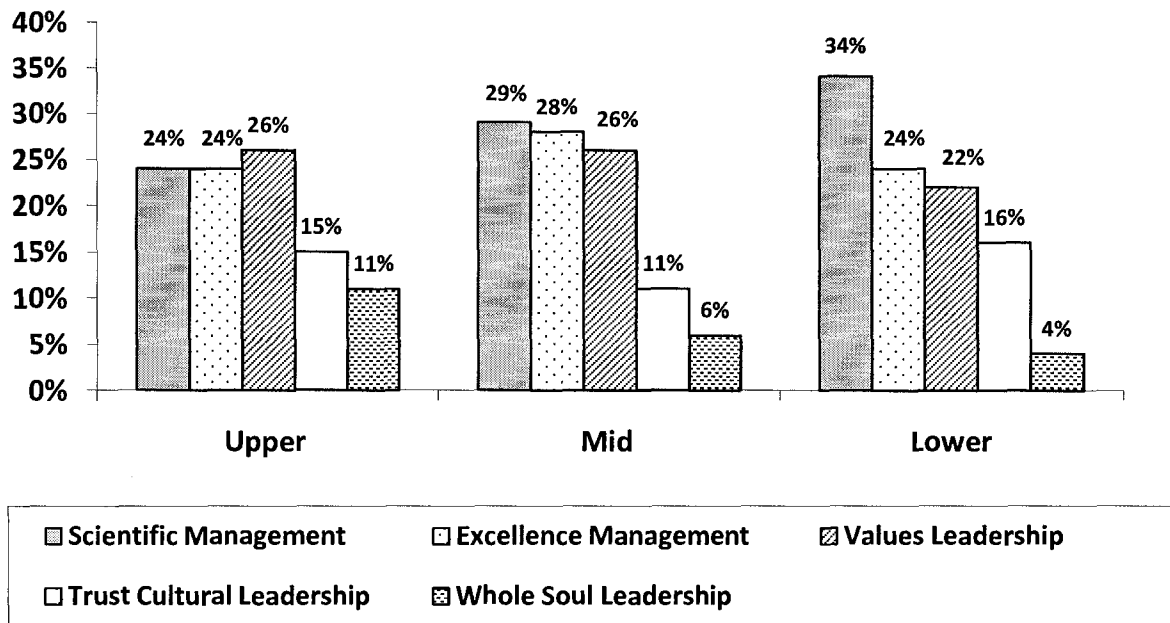
Overall, the analysis of the operational elements by the three levels of management does not show a difference in the data trend. In essence, all three levels of management use the operational elements in an upward slope with implementation description having the lowest support, tools and behaviors having more support than implementation description, and approach to followers have the strongest support. However, even though the data trend is the same for all three levels of management, the qualitative data indicate that the elements may be used differently at different levels of management. This finding makes it difficult to determine conclusively the extent of the difference among levels of management. Further research is needed to explore how the operational elements are used by level of management.

The second analysis of level of management evaluates how the total number of hits for each level of management is distributed across leadership perspectives. Table 4.5 presents the number of hits and percentage of hits for each level of management categorized by leadership perspective. Figure 4.7 presents the data graphically, illustrating the percentage of the total for level of management in each of the five leadership perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, values leadership, trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership.

Table 4.5: Total Number of Hits and Percentage of Hits for Each Level of Management Categorized by Each Leadership Perspective

	Total Hits	Percentage of Hits
Upper Level Management		
Scientific Management	78	24%
Excellence Management	76	24%
Values Leadership	84	26%
Trust Cultural Leadership	48	15%
Whole Soul Leadership	36	11%
TOTAL	322	100%
Mid Level Management		
Scientific Management	140	29%
Excellence Management	135	28%
Values Leadership	127	26%
Trust Cultural Leadership	53	11%
Whole Soul Leadership	30	6%
TOTAL	485	100%
Lower Level Management		
Scientific Management	140	34%
Excellence Management	99	24%
Values Leadership	93	22%
Trust Cultural Leadership	65	16%
Whole Soul Leadership	16	4%
TOTAL	413	100%

Figure 4.7: Percentage of the Total for Each Level of Management in Each Leadership Perspective



According to the parameters established in Chapter III for determining the strength of the results, strong support for a perspective is found when more than 20 percent of the total hits are contained within the perspective; moderate support is found with 10 to 20 percent of the hits; and weak supported is found less than 10 percent of the hits. Using these parameters, the data reveal that, at all three levels of management, the leadership perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership are strongly supported. At the upper level, moderate support is found for trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership; at the mid level and the lower level, moderate support is found for trust cultural leadership and weak support is found for whole soul leadership. These data indicate that there is some support for the proposition that leadership perspectives changes with level of management even though the changes

are not dramatic in terms of strength of support. The data trend in this analysis provides more information than the strength indicators. The most notable difference in the data is that lower level managers have a higher percentage of hits in the scientific management perspective than the other two levels of management. In addition, the trend for scientific management is upward, meaning that the data show increasingly higher percentages from upper level management at 24 percent, to mid level management at 29 percent, and lower level management at 34 percent. The differences in perspective based on level of management are illustrated in the qualitative data when managers were asked if their view of leadership has changed over the course of their career.

One manager described the change in perspective as connected with his position, saying:

When I was an assistant warden I didn't understand why the warden wasn't in the compound all the time. When I became a warden, I found out that I couldn't be in the compound all the time. It wasn't effective for me to do that because I got the bigger picture of the organization. It took a while to develop what I believed was important to run the institution – the vision, goals, and objectives. I had to promote those things without micromanaging.

In this quote, the subject discusses the visibility that the assistant warden, a lower level manager, has in the institution. These comments suggest the “management by walking around” tool and behavior of excellence management. When moved into the mid level position of warden, this individual realized that management by walking around was no longer effective for the position. This individual had to develop and communicate vision and goals, both elements of the values leadership perspective. Another manager echoed this statement when saying:

When I was a front line supervisor I just saw what I had to do and how I had to do it and my focus was on getting it done. As I evolved at each level, I began to see the bigger picture of why it is important to get it done and how it ties into everything else. It's more than just about meeting with people and making sure they aren't in trouble...As I evolve as a leader I see the bigger picture and why we do what we do....My vision has grown as I grew as a leader.

In this quote, the manager communicates that the vision and focus of the managers changes with management position, and indicates that the tools and behaviors, and approaches to followers used at the lower levels are no longer effective at the higher levels of management.

This aspect of seeing the bigger picture was repeated by many managers with comments such as, "As I moved up in the organization I had to continue to see a larger picture." Another manager said, "I can now look at the big picture, rather than just looking at how things affect my area." These managers also indicated that the change in view created a change in their tools and behaviors and approach to followers. One manager indicated that his perspective "changed in terms of going from a more dictator, control type to going to a more empathetic and sympathetic people person." Another indicated, "As I have moved up, a different set of skills is required." Still another manager said, "You have to be cognizant and able to use other perspectives of leadership. You cannot stay in one orbit. If you are going to go up in the institution you are going to have to learn all the other orbits and not be afraid to assimilate some of it." These comments indicate that the managers in the sample perceive changes in position as creating different goals and objectives that may require different approaches.

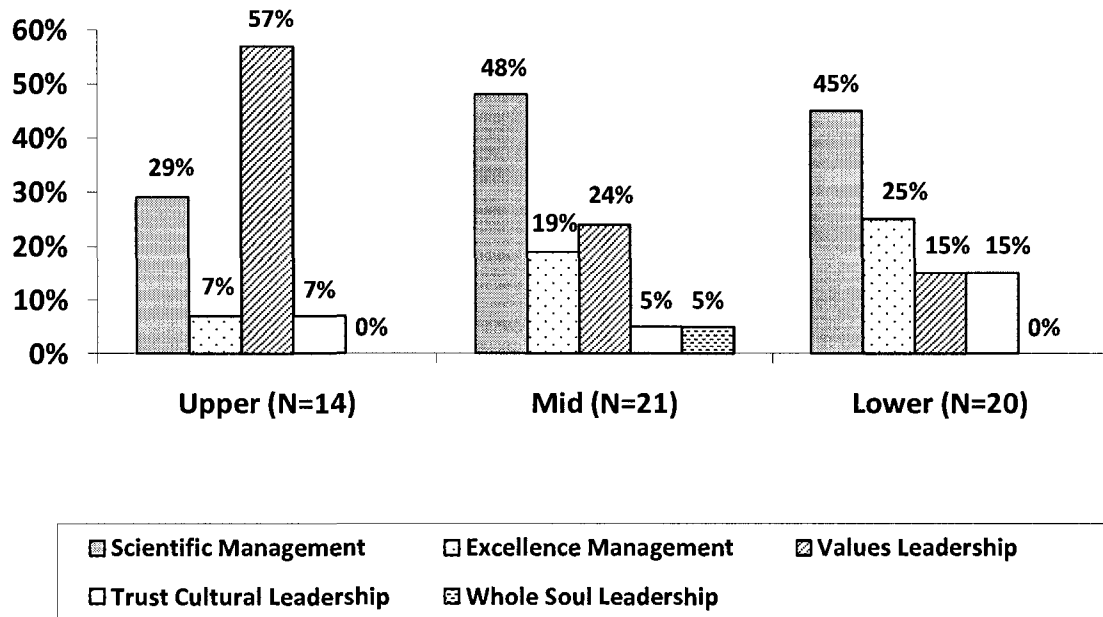
The findings for this analysis are similar to the previous analysis, where level of management was analyzed in terms of operational elements. The data are different for all three levels of management when evaluating the total number of hits across the five leadership perspectives, but they are not drastically different. The qualitative data suggest that managers have changes in their leadership perspective based on their level of management, but it is difficult to determine conclusively the extent of the difference among levels of management. Further research is needed to explore how the leadership perspectives are used by level of management.

The final analysis used in examining level of management focuses on the primary perspective for each subject. This analysis moves beyond measurement of number of hits, and evaluates the primary perspective for each subject. Table 4.6 presents the total number of subjects and the percentage of subjects in each leadership perspective by level of management. Figure 4.8 presents the data graphically, illustrating the percentage of subjects in each leadership perspective by each level of management.

Table 4.6: Total Number of Subjects and Percentage of Subjects in Each Leadership Perspective by Level of Management

	Total Subjects	Percentage of Subjects
Upper Level Management		
Scientific Management	4	29%
Excellence Management	1	7%
Values Leadership	8	57%
Trust Cultural Leadership	1	7%
Whole Soul Leadership	0	0%
TOTAL	14	100%
Mid Level Management		
Scientific Management	10	47%
Excellence Management	4	19%
Values Leadership	5	24%
Trust Cultural Leadership	1	5%
Whole Soul Leadership	1	5%
TOTAL	21	100%
Lower Level Management		
Scientific Management	9	45%
Excellence Management	5	25%
Values Leadership	3	15%
Trust Cultural Leadership	3	15%
Whole Soul Leadership	0	0%
TOTAL	20	100%

Figure 4.8: Percentage of Subjects in Each Leadership Perspective by Level of Management



According to the strength indicators established in Chapter III, perspectives with more than 20 percent of the subjects are strongly supported; those with 10 to 20 percent are moderately supported; and those less than 10 percent are weakly supported. Each level of management is presented and analyzed individually using these strength indicators.

Fourteen upper level managers were interviewed for this study. Out of that number, four were found to type in the scientific management perspective; one in excellence management; eight in values leadership; one in trust cultural leadership; and none in whole soul leadership. These data indicate that values leadership is the most strongly indicated perspective for upper level managers, and these managers also show a strong preference for the perspective of scientific management. Excellence management

and trust cultural leadership are weakly represented, and whole soul leadership is non-existent as a perspective among this group. It is worthy of mention that the data presented in previous analyses indicate that managers at the upper level use the elements of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership, and, in fact, use those elements more than any other level of management. However, they do not type into those perspectives with frequency that they type into scientific management and values leadership.

Upper level managers who type into the values leadership perspective reflected a concern for the vision of the organization. Comments such as “the leader has to have a vision,” and “a leader is one who has a vision and can get people to follow” indicate the visioning focus of this perspective. Since these managers are responsible in many ways for creating and sustaining the organizational vision, it is not surprising that so many upper level managers would hold the values leadership perspective.

Perhaps more surprising, is the amount of upper level managers who have scientific management as their primary perspective. If leadership increases with level of management, the expectation would be that the highest level managers would function at the highest level perspectives. However, for the organization being studied, this was not the case. This may reflect the paramilitary structure of the organization, particularly in management of the prisons. One upper level manager articulated the issue well with the following statement:

Sometimes you have to go back to basics. For example, if you want the inmates moved, you let your lieutenant know that and he can move the inmates however he wants to. If you have a problem, because the inmates won't go, you go in there and direct. This is how we are going to do it, and that's the way it's going to be. You give a stern directive. Discussion is not an option. In one side of the house [the institutions], this is an every day thing. On the other side of the department, if you are writing policy for counselors, you give people a lot of leeway, and not so much direction; you let them develop it.

This manager provides an excellent example of the reason that scientific management is an important leadership perspective for DOC, and why that perspective is still discernable among high level managers. Since safety is a critical aspect of the job, safety directives are not negotiable. There are clear and precise policies in place to maintain safety and these are followed carefully. At the upper levels of management, managers have been with the organization for a long time in various positions and many of them have seen tragic results when procedures are not followed. Therefore, these managers understand the importance of following procedures to maintain control and safety within the organization. As they move up in the organizational structure, they do not leave behind the structure of policies and procedures. However, as illustrated in the quote above, these managers also understand that some policies are negotiable, and the individuals who are affected by the policy need to have some input into its development.

In addition, these managers also understand the need for vision within the organization. The same manager, who spoke of the need for using stern directives, also spoke of the need to develop and communicate vision, tools of the values leadership perspective. This manager stated that the goal of leadership "is to set the vision...and to communicate the vision." This illustrates that not only are the values leadership and scientific management perspectives supported at the upper level, but that managers use

both perspectives in conducting their job. In fact, the upper level of management is the only level where two of the perspectives are strongly supported and the other three are weakly supported. The data are much more spread out for mid level management.

Twenty-one mid level managers were interviewed for this study. Out of that number, ten were found to type in the scientific management perspective; four in excellence management; five in values leadership; one in trust cultural leadership; and one in whole soul leadership. The data for mid level managers shows that the strongest perspective for these managers is scientific management. Values leadership is also strongly represented among mid level managers, with excellence management moderately represented, and trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership weakly represented. Mid level management is the only level that contains at least one subject typed in every perspective, and the one and only whole soul leadership perspective is found among this group.

At the mid level of management, managers tend to use all of the perspectives to some degree. For example, a mid level manager who has the primary perspective of values leadership stated that leaders must “share the vision, get consensus, and build trust.” Visioning is a tool of values leadership, consensus building is an approach to followers of excellence management, and trust building is an approach to followers of the trust cultural leadership perspective. Another manager spoke of the necessity of using the right approach for each follower. This manager said that “some people respond better to being directed; others respond better to being coached and guided.” Giving direction is an approach to followers in scientific management, while coaching and guiding fall under the values leadership approach to followers. This particular manager has the primary

perspective of scientific management, but appeared comfortable in other perspectives as well. Another manager, with the primary perspective of excellence management, stated that the best way to complete a project is to “bring everyone together in a joint meeting...brainstorm, seeking the information and experiences they have had that pertain to the project. Then, after gathering all that, make a decision. That decision has to be your independent decision. Then delegate the tasks.” This manager engages followers in the decision making process, an approach of excellence management, but makes the decision and delegates tasks independent of the followers, a scientific management approach to followers. This propensity to use multiple perspectives is not confined to mid level managers; the data indicate that lower levels managers also use multiple approaches.

Twenty lower level managers were interviewed for this study. Out of that number, nine were found to type in the scientific management perspective; five in excellence management; three in values leadership; three in trust cultural leadership; and none in whole soul leadership. The data for lower level managers reveal that the strongest perspective found among this group is scientific management, with excellence management also strongly represented. There is moderate representation of values leadership and trust cultural leadership, and whole soul leadership is not represented among lower level managers.

A lower level manager with the primary perspective of values leadership showed the mixture of perspectives used when asked if leadership can be developed. This manager said, “You have to mentor people. Assigning someone brand new into the office – they would need to learn the policies and procedures and to understand what they

can and cannot do. That is the most important part of their job. After learning procedures they can have more latitude with handling their clients and make more decisions on their own.” This manager understood leadership to be a mentoring process, an approach to followers in the values leadership perspective, but felt that the most important way to build new leaders is to make sure they understand and can follow the foundational policies and procedures of the organization, a scientific management perspective. Another manager at the lower level with the primary perspective of trust cultural leadership said, “...if you can make people trust you and make people understand that your approach is to benefit them and the organization, they will be much more likely to follow than to resist.” This manager also mentioned, “As a manager, I am a member of the group. Once you separate yourself from the group, you lose them.” These comments are all approaches to followers from the trust cultural leadership perspective.

This analysis illustrates that there are differences in the primary perspectives of the subjects based on their level of management. Upper level managers type strongly in scientific management and values leadership, with weak or no support for the other three perspectives as a primary type. The data for mid level and lower level managers are more distributed across the five perspectives. One reason for this finding may be that fewer managers at the upper level were interviewed. Perhaps more data at that level would have resulted in a data spread that more closely resembles mid and lower level management.

Although the research question being explored is the extent to which leadership perspective changes with level of management, the question was derived from Fairholm’s (2004a) anecdotal finding that as one increases their level of management, their

leadership perspective increases as well. The data collected in this study provided evidence that leadership perspective is somewhat different at the different levels of management, but not that higher levels of management have higher levels of leadership. If Fairholm's observation was supported in these findings, the expectation would be that lower level managers would have primary perspectives at the lower levels, mostly within scientific management and excellence management; mid level managers would be in the middle, between excellence management and values leadership, and upper level managers would have primary perspectives in upper perspective of trust cultural leadership and whole should leadership. Under this scenario, the data would show a trend of continual increase in leadership perspective with level of management. That was not the finding in this data. In this data there is a difference in leadership perspective based on level of management, but this relationship requires more research to gain a full understanding of the nature of the relationship.

This section presented the data analysis for research question two. The following section provides a summary of the findings for research questions one and two.

Summary of Findings

Research Question One

To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections reflect the Leadership Perspectives Model?

Research question one was analyzed by evaluating 1) the extent to which the operational elements of implementation description, tools and behavior, and approach to followers were found to differentiate leadership perspectives, 2) the extent to which the

five perspectives of leadership were found in the data, and 3) the extent to which the perspectives were found to be hierarchical in nature. The findings of the analyses reveal that the perspective and practice of leadership described by the managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections only partially reflects the Leadership Perspectives Model. The operational elements of tools and behaviors, and approach to followers are strongly reflected in the data, but implementation description has weak support. The leadership perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership are strongly supported, but the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership have weak support. There is evidence that multiple perspectives exist within the data and that these multiple perspectives are not incommensurate. There are no pure forms of any perspective and majority perspectives only exist within scientific management and, marginally, within excellence management. Finally, the perspectives do not convincingly relate in a hierarchical manner.

Although the LPM is only partially supported through the analysis of research question one, the research has been helpful in determining the strength of the model in identifying the leadership perspectives managers may have. In the original study, Fairholm (2004a) was looking for support for each element and perspective, and considered any support at all to affirm the model. Since his research was the first study of the model, the important contribution he made was in developing and testing the model and its constructs. Thus, most constructs were supported in that they were visible within the data, but many were not strong within the data. This analysis established parameters for determining the strength of the model. Adding the strength indicators has

shown the areas of the model that have limitations, and provide indicators for further research.

Research Question Two

To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by the managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections vary by level of management?

Three analyses were conducted to determine the extent to which the perspective and practice of leadership described by managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections varies by level of management. The data were analyzed to determine if the data among levels of management were different, and, if so, how they were different. Analysis specifically addressed Fairholm's (2004a) proposition that leadership perspective increases with level of management.

The first analysis evaluated the data in terms of the number of hits within the operational elements. In this analysis, all three levels of management were found to support the elements in a similar manner. All levels of management have the highest percentage of hits in the element of approach to followers, with tools and behaviors second, and implementation description third. There are, however, indicators that the strength with which managers use these tools may vary by level of management, and this finding is worthy of further study.

The second analysis evaluated the data in terms of the number of hits in each perspective. In this analysis, all three levels of management show strong support for the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership, with moderate to weak support for trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership.

Thus, the data in this analysis is similar at all three levels of management. There are some differences, but the differences are not drastic and they do not indicate that the leadership perspective increases with level of management.

In both the first and second analysis, the trend in the data was similar for all levels of management. There were variations in the exact percentages found in each element and in each perspective, but there was little difference in the strength with which each level of management supported each perspective.

The third analysis evaluated the primary perspective of the subjects within each level of management. This analysis revealed that each level of management typed within the perspectives in a manner that is different from each other; but there is no discernable pattern in the data that suggests that the differences are attributable to level of management. The data trends that would indicate that leadership perspective increases by level of management were not present in the data. Thus, even though the trends were different from one another, they were not the trends that would be expected based on level of management. When combining the results of all three analyses for research question two, there is evidence that the subjects may use the elements and perspectives differently based on level of management; but there is no evidence that leadership perspective increases as level of management increases.

Since research question one is only partially supported in the data, and the results of research question two are somewhat inconclusive, a third level of analysis was conducted on the data. In this analysis, modifications were made to the model and the data were analyzed based on those modifications. The following section provides and

overview of the modifications made, the reason for the modifications, and the data analysis conducted on these modifications.

Modified Model

The first three perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership are perspectives that are well established in the literature and clearly supported in the research. However, the last two perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership are more vague and abstract both in how they are defined in the model and in the literature. These two perspectives are still new to leadership study, with research on both trust and spirituality within the organization considered to be in their infancy in the scope of leadership study (Dent et al., 2005; M. R. Fairholm, 2004a). As such, the definitions of the two in the model are vague, and, in some aspects, appear to overlap. This creates a problem in articulating the perspectives and in coding the data.

An example of the ambiguity in the definitions of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership can be found within all three elements. Implementation description under trust cultural leadership has been operationalized as “ensuring cultures conducive to mutual trust and unified collective action” (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a). In whole soul leadership Fairholm defines implementation description as the “relating to individuals such that concern for the whole person is paramount in raising each other to higher levels of awareness and action.” These two definitions are difficult to distinguish from each other, since having concern for the whole person could be construed as building a culture of trust. Fairholm has operationalized approach to followers in trust cultural leadership as “fostering a shared culture,” while approach to followers in whole

soul leadership is operationalized as “creating culture through visioning.” The distinction between the two is unclear, as fostering a shared culture is similar to creating culture. Finally, in the operational element of tools and behaviors, Fairholm describes trust cultural leadership as “liberating followers to build community and promote stewardship” and whole soul leadership is described as “developing and enabling individual wholeness in a community context.” Again, the difference between the two is confusing, because building community and promoting stewardship is similar to enabling individual wholeness in a community context.

While the differences are difficult to understand cognitively, they are even more difficult to code in the qualitative data. For example, one subject commented, “You have to have the skills that show you care because if you do not care for the people who work for you...you cannot build relationships. It’s all about relationships.” This comment could easily be coded as team and trust building, an approach to followers in trust cultural leadership; or creating an environment that inspires individuals to do more for the organization, an approach to followers in the whole soul leadership perspective.

If the model were modified and the two perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership were combined, it is possible that the vague variables used to define each perspective could be removed, with the more concrete variables retained. This would allow for one perspective that is well defined, rather than two that are loosely defined. The process of consolidating the two perspectives would entail defining one perspective using variables that are clear and concise, that lend themselves to measurement in qualitative and, in the future, quantitative measurement. The new perspective would be defined using descriptors found in the literature, in keeping with

Fairholm's (2004a) methodology for operationalizing the LPM. The perspective would then require field testing using qualitative methods to validate that the perspective as operationalized exists, and can be defined and coded as a separate perspective, distinct from the other three. This process should be undertaken in conjunction with construct validation as discussed in Chapter V.

In an effort to determine if there is any utility in modifying the LPM with four perspectives rather than five, the data collected in this research has been collapsed to combine the two perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership into one perspective entitled "cultural leadership." It is important to note that, in this research, the variables themselves have not been changed to reflect any new definition or to modify the current definitions. Only the data analysis has been modified. This modification was a simple collapsing of the two categories and combining the data into one category. This analysis is meant to provide an indicator of whether there is merit to the modification of the model. Further definition of the new perspective and testing of the modified model are necessary to clearly establish its usefulness in defining the leadership perspectives that individuals may hold.

In the modified model, the data are analyzed using three of the analyses that were used to evaluate the data prior to modification of the model. These analyses were selected because they get directly to most the important constructs in the model. These analyses are 1) the number of hits and percentage of hits for each operational element, 2) the number of hits and percentage of hits for each leadership perspective, 3) the percentage of subjects with their primary perspective in each leadership perspective. Each of these analyses is presented below, with a discussion of the findings.

Operational Elements

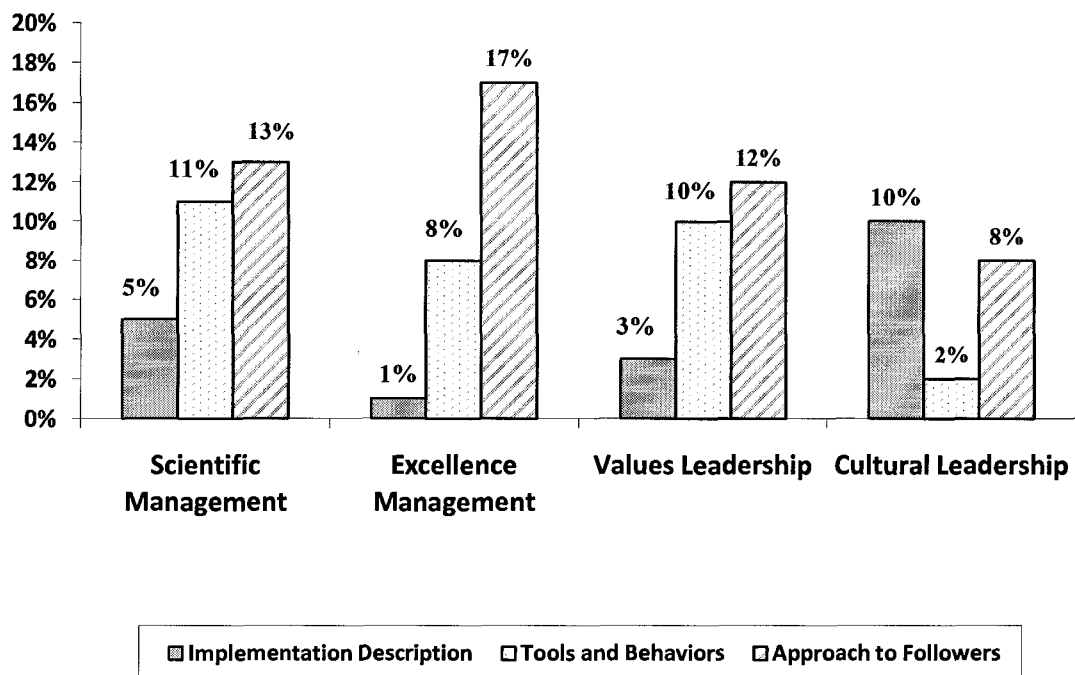
The operational elements were evaluated in terms of their distribution across all elements of all leadership perspectives. In these analyses the total of 1220 hits were analyzed to determine the distribution across each of the elements of the four leadership perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, values leadership, and cultural leadership. Table 4.7 contains the number of hits and percentage of hits found in each operational element in the modified leadership perspectives model.

Table 4.7: Number of Hits and Percentage of Hits Found in Each Operational Element in the Leadership Perspectives Model – Modified Model

Leadership Perspective/ Operational Element	Number of Hits	Percentage of Total Hits (N=1220)
Scientific Management (N=358)		
Implementation Description	56	5%
Tools and Behaviors	139	11%
Approach to Followers	163	13%
Excellence Management (N=310)		
Implementation Description	8	1%
Tools and Behaviors	96	8%
Approach to Followers	206	17%
Values Leadership (N=304)		
Implementation Description	32	3%
Tools and Behaviors	123	10%
Approach to Followers	149	12%
Cultural Leadership (N=248)		
Implementation Description	126	10%
Tools and Behaviors	20	2%
Approach to Followers	102	8%

Prior to combining the last two perspectives, trust cultural leadership had five percent of the hits in implementation description; one percent of the hits in tools and behaviors; and eight percent of the hits in approach to followers. Whole soul leadership had five percent of the hits in implementation description, one percent in tools and behaviors and less than one percent in approach to followers. In the modified model, ten percent of the hits were found in implementation description, two percent were found in tools and behaviors, and eight percent were found in approach to followers. Figure 4.9 presents the data graphically, for all leadership perspectives in the modified model.

Figure 4.9: Percentage of Total Hits Found in Each Operational Element of the Leadership Perspectives Model – Modified Model



Since the strength indicators are calculated based upon the total number of data points in the analysis, they were recalculated for this analysis because there are fewer data points. Using the calculation for strength indicators outlined in chapter III, this means that that operational elements containing more than 8 percent of the hits are strongly represented; those with 4 to 8 percents of the hits are moderately represented; and those with less than 4 percent of the hits are weakly represented. When cultural leadership existed as two perspectives, only one element, approach to followers in the trust cultural leadership perspective, had strong support. All of the others were moderately or weakly supported and the overall data for the two perspectives called into question the strength of these perspectives in the model. With the two perspectives combined, the cultural leadership perspective is more similar to the other perspectives. Approach to followers is strongly represented, implementation description is moderately represented, but at the high end of moderate, only one percentage point away from strong, and tools and behaviors is weakly represented.

The data trend for the cultural leadership perspective is different than the other three perspectives. The first three perspectives have an upward trend, with implementation description having the fewest hits, tools and behavior second, and approach to followers having the most hits. Cultural leadership varies from this trend with implementation description being strongly supported, tools and behaviors weakly supported, and approach to followers moderately supported. This finding may be due to the fact that the definitions used to describe cultural leadership need to be updated.

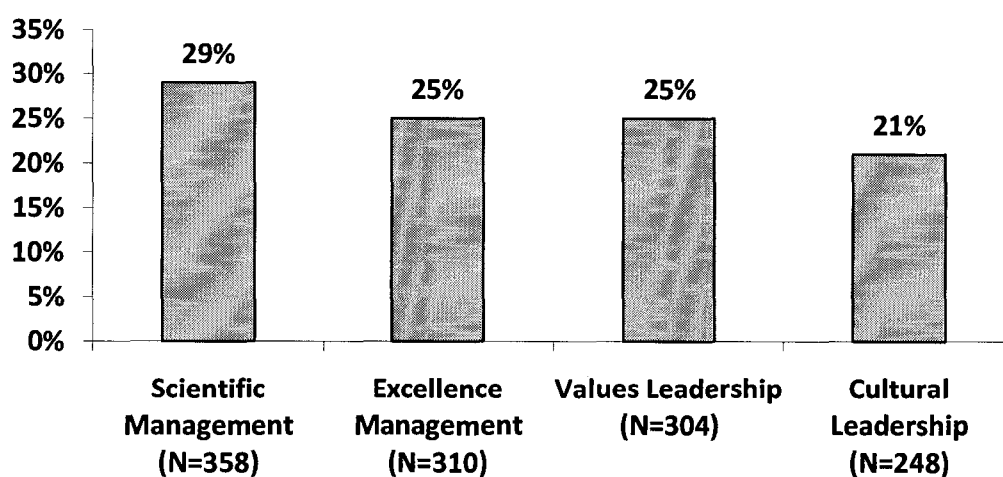
As previously discussed, the variable definitions of the elements in trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership were somewhat vague. Since the modifications in

this study simply merged the two, the definitions themselves were not updated to reflect a more solidified definition of the new perspective. If these were to be redefined and tested using the modified model, the resulting data may follow the pattern of the other three perspectives more closely. Even though the data trend is different, this analysis shows that cultural leadership as a fourth perspective may be a legitimate modification to the model. Further analysis of model evaluates the hits across leadership perspectives.

Leadership Perspectives

The next analysis evaluates the element as a percentage of the total hits within each leadership perspective. The 1220 hits were categorized into each of the four leadership perspectives to determine how well each perspective is represented in total number of hits. Figure 4.10 presents the number of hits found in each leadership perspective.

Figure 4.10: Percentage of Total Hits in Each Leadership Perspective – Four Perspectives



The strength indicators for this analysis were also changed to reflect the change in number of data points from five to four. According to the new strength indicators, perspectives with more than 25 percent of the hits are strongly represented; those with 13 to 25 percent are moderately represented and those with less than 13 percent are weakly represented. The change in strength indicators had a ramification for all of the data. When there were five perspectives, those with more than 20 percent of the hits were considered strongly represented. Thus, scientific management, excellence management and values leadership were found to be strongly represented in the previous analysis. With the collapse of the two perspectives into one, and the resulting change in strength indicators, excellence management and values leadership now fall into the moderate category with 25 percent of the hits in each perspective. Since more than 25 percent of the hits are required to be categorized in the strong category, these perspectives are very close to having a strong indicator.

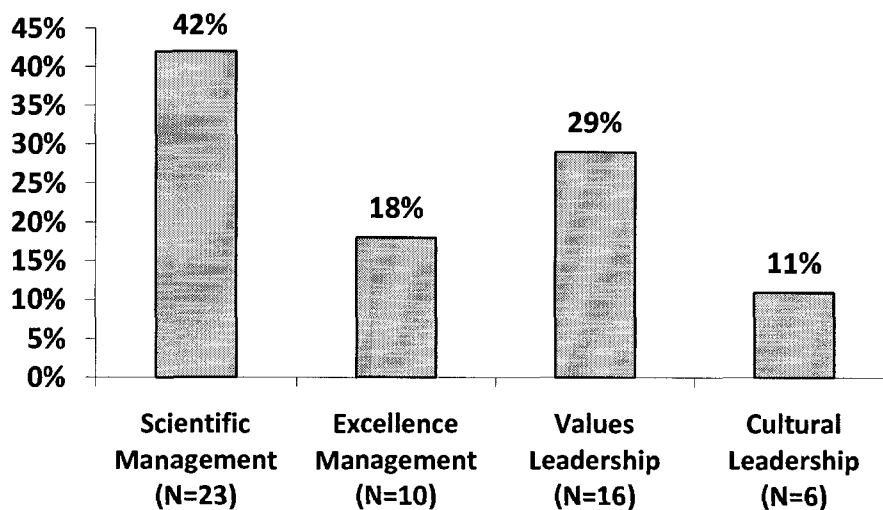
However, the placement of these perspectives in a strong or moderate category is less important than the overall data trend. When the two perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership are combined into cultural leadership, the new perspective is similar to the other three in terms of its representation in the data. When looking at all of the data points the range is a high of 29 percent for scientific management to a low of 21 percent for cultural leadership. This is a small range and indicates a similar distribution of data across all four perspectives. The analysis of total hits by leadership perspective provides evidence that the model would be strengthened by collapsing the perspectives into one.

Prior to modification of the model, the leadership perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership were only marginally represented in the data. The fact that they had a combined number of 248 hits indicates that these perspectives were found in the data, and found in significant numbers. However the data were so spread out among the two that neither perspective was well supported. The combining of these perspectives in this analysis has shown that these hits are an important part of the model that cannot be ignored as weak. With more than 20 percent of the hits in cultural leadership, this perspective holds promise for the modified model. Analysis of the modified model continues with an analysis of the primary perspectives.

Primary Perspectives

The primary perspective for each subject was determined by calculating the perspective in which the subject had the highest number of hits. After the individuals were typed by perspective, the percentage of subjects in each perspective was calculated. Figure 4.11 presents the data for the 55 interview subjects by showing the percentage of subjects with their primary perspective in each leadership perspective in the modified model.

Figure 4.11: Percent of Subjects with their Primary Perspective in Each Leadership Perspective – Four Perspectives



According to the new strength indicators, perspectives with more than 25 percent of the hits are strongly represented; those with 13 to 25 percent are moderately represented and those with less than 13 percent are weakly represented. When this analysis was calculated with all five leadership perspectives, the trust cultural leadership perspective was weakly supported at nine percent and the whole soul leadership perspective was also weakly supported at two percent. In this analysis, with the two perspectives combined, the cultural leadership perspective is still weakly supported at 11 percent. However, the combining of perspectives changes the spread of the data and removes the extreme outlier of 2 percent. As a result the data is spread between 42 percent and 11 percent, and the new perspective is more in line with the other data.

The lack of subjects who typed as having their primary perspective in cultural leadership may reveal a definitional problem with the perspective. Since the two perspectives that comprise cultural leadership are vague, as previously discussed, coding

for these perspectives was more difficult than the other three. In addition, there were statements made by many subjects that were coded because they were so repetitive, but had no apparent place in the model. For example, there were over 30 hits for the words “integrity” and “honesty.” Many subjects also discussed the need for leaders to be “credible,” “courageous,” “a risk taker,” “humble,” “dedicated,” and “one who leads by example.” These are actually leadership traits that are being described, but the behaviors define these traits should be developed into variables. These ideals are not specifically defined in any perspective, and some of them fit within the cultural leadership perspective. If the definitions for cultural leadership were stronger and more concrete, the modified model has the potential to provide a strong model of leadership perspectives.

Summary of Modified Model

The analyses presented above to evaluate the modified model reveal that there is some merit to collapsing the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership into one perspective. The modification of the model takes the two perspectives that were most weakly supported and makes one perspective that is much more strongly supported in the data. In reality, the perspectives cannot be simply collapsed as shown in this analysis. The definitions of new perspective need further research and testing, with the data coded specifically for the new perspective. Still, the analysis conducted in this research indicates that this is a stream of further research that is promising.

Conclusion

This chapter provided detailed data analysis for research questions one and two, as well as analysis for a modified model. Additional discussion regarding the findings of this study, the limitations of this study, and recommendations for further research can be found in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

Findings, Recommendations, and Conclusion

Summary of Research

The purpose of this study is to determine the extent to which the perspective and practice of leadership by managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections (DOC) reflect the Leadership Perspectives Model (LPM), and to discover the extent to which their perspectives vary by level of management. The literature review establishes that leaders often perceive of leadership through different perspectives, or paradigms, and their practice of leadership is influenced by these paradigms. The LPM is a model of leadership that consolidates leadership study into five distinct leadership perspectives that managers use in their understanding and practice of leadership. In a previous study of managers from local government agencies, the LPM was tested, and each perspective was validated within the sample (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a, 2004b). With only one study of the LPM available, further research is needed to explore the model.

In an effort to contribute to the reliability and validity of the model, this study provided a replication of the previous research (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a), and extended that research to a different population and geographical location. The study took place among managers within DOC, a government organization of the Commonwealth of Virginia, thereby extending the study population from local to state government; and the geographical reach from the Washington Metropolitan area to the Commonwealth of Virginia. The scope of this research was also enlarged from the original study to examine an anecdotal finding that leadership perspective increases with level of management.

Thus, this research sought to answer the following two research questions: *1) To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections reflect the Leadership Perspectives Model?*
2) To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by the managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections vary by level of management?

Utilizing an instrumental case study approach, the study is designed specifically to gain an understanding of the leadership perspectives of the managers within DOC. Although the case itself cannot be generalized beyond the study, it has added to the cumulative knowledge of the LPM, has helped to shape the model, and has provided direction for future study. The host organization has benefitted from the study in that they have been able to more fully understand the leadership perspectives of their managers and to use the data collected to inform their future leadership training.

A qualitative method of data collection was used for this study. Semi-structured open ended interviews were conducted with 55 managers representing three levels of management within DOC. These interviews took place over the course of four months, and were conducted at various DOC locations throughout the Commonwealth of Virginia. Data were then coded to identify statements that represented the operational elements of the five leadership perspectives as defined in Chapter III. Each of these statements was considered a “hit” for the element within its perspective, and each subject was then typed into the perspective for which he or she had the most hits. Data analysis evaluated the hits to determine how they were spread across each perspective and across each element of each perspective. Cut points were established to distinguish between weak, moderate, and strong support for each element and each perspective. The subjects

were also categorized as upper, mid, or lower level management and data were analyzed to determine the variations among each level of management. Data collection also included demographic information regarding gender, ethnicity, age, time in current position, total time in management positions, previous employment, educational level and previous leadership training.

Findings

Research question one was: *To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections reflect the Leadership Perspectives Model?* This question is analyzed by evaluating the three fundamental aspects of the model, as follows: 1) the extent to which the operational elements of implementation description, tools and behavior, and approach to followers were found to differentiate leadership perspectives, 2) the extent to which the five perspectives of leadership were found in the data, and 3) the extent to which the perspectives were found to be hierarchical in nature. The findings for all three aspects of the model reveal that the perspective and practice of leadership among the managers in DOC only partially reflect the LPM.

The operational elements of the LPM are supported in the data. Approach to followers is found to be the strongest indicator of an individual's leadership perspective, with tools and behavior also shown to have strong support. The element of implementation description is shown to have moderate to weak support and is the most weakly supported element among the three. However, implementation description as an element is more strongly supported among upper level managers than mid level and

lower level managers. Since upper level managers are less represented in the sample, the sample itself may have caused the weaker support of the implementation description.

Overall, the managers in the sample describe leadership using concrete descriptions of what leaders do, such as those found in the elements of tools and behaviors and approach to followers; rather than the more abstract description of what leadership is, as found in the element of implementation. The model does not stipulate that the three elements should be found in equal percentages; only that all three are used to define the perspective. Thus, the finding that implementation description is not found as strongly as the other elements does not create any reason to reject the proposition that all three elements together comprise each perspective. However, the relationship of each of the operational elements within the perspectives is an area of the LPM that would benefit from further study.

The leadership perspectives of the LPM are each supported in the data, but the strength of each perspective varies. The findings reveal strong support for the perspectives of scientific management and values leadership, strong to moderate support for excellence management, and weak support for trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. Unlike the elements, weak support for a perspective creates a problem in finding support for the model. Since a foundational premise of the model is that leadership is perceived in one of five ways, the weak support for trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership is an indicator that the model itself may be lacking in some aspects.

In evaluating the variables of the elements for the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership, some of the definitions are found to be vague and

difficult to articulate and to code in the qualitative data. This leads to an interpretation that the perspectives themselves are vague, and therefore neither are fully defined perspectives that are able to stand alone as a description of leadership. Still, the number of hits in each perspective indicates that at least some of the variables are defined enough to be supported in the data. Combining the two weak perspectives is found to be a potential method of removing the variables of both perspectives that were vague in their definition and using only those variables that were clearly defined and supported in the data. To test this proposition, the two variables of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership were collapsed into a perspective entitled cultural leadership.

For this study, the definitions of the perspectives and the variables of the elements were not changed or manipulated in any way. The data for the two perspectives have been simply combined to provide an indicator of the potential impact of a four perspective model. Several of the critical analyses have been recalculated for the modified model and the new perspective is shown to strengthen the model in terms of the strength of support for the operational elements and the leadership perspectives. This modification provides a stream of research that should be further defined and tested.

The concept of multiple perspectives is vague in the initial study, but found to be an important consideration in this study. Fairholm (2004a) considers the perspectives to be paradigmatic in nature, but discusses paradigms in the context of being both commensurate and incommensurate with one another, without establishing which category the perspectives fell into. This is an important distinction because if the perspectives are commensurate with one another, they can exist together; while if they are incommensurate they cannot.

The data in the study also reveals that 85 percent of the subjects interviewed type into multiple perspectives. This indicates that these individuals use the tools and behaviors, approaches to followers, and implementation descriptions of two or more perspectives in their jobs, rather than functioning from a primary perspective. There are no subjects with a pure form, meaning 100 percent of their hits are in one perspective; and only 15 percent of the subjects have a majority perspective, meaning that more than 50 percent of their hits are in one perspective. This finding is determined to indicate that the perspectives are commensurate with one another. This means that the perspectives can exist together, and that an individual can actually hold more than one perspective.

The final aspect of the perspectives evaluated for research question one is the hierarchical relationship of the perspective. Fairholm's (2004a) method of determining if the perspectives are hierarchical in nature is to evaluate how subjects type in their primary and secondary perspectives. If the secondary perspective is found to be next to the primary perspective at a higher level, it is determined to be progressive in nature. The progressive relationship of the secondary perspective is interpreted by Fairholm as an indicator that the perspectives are hierarchical in nature. Fairholm found evidence of progressive relationships in his study, and these supported his proposition that the perspectives are hierarchical.

There was little support in this study for the progressive nature of the perspectives; thus, the hierarchical relationship of the perspectives is not found. This finding suggests that subjects do not necessarily move up the hierarchy of perspectives in a progression from lowest to highest. Subjects are found to have hits in many, and sometimes all, perspectives. In addition, primary and secondary perspectives are

frequently not next to each other in the hierarchy of the model. For example, several subjects have values leadership as a primary perspective and scientific management as a secondary perspective. This indicates that the relationship of the perspectives is not necessarily hierarchical, as defined in the model. Subjects type into primary and secondary perspectives that do not always have close proximity to each other in the model and these perspectives are at both higher and lower levels.

In summary, the perspective and practice of leadership by managers at DOC only partially reflect the LPM. The operational elements are supported, but implementation description requires more research to determine specifically if or how it changes with leadership perspective and level of management. The five perspectives are supported in various strengths, but also need further research to determine if the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership can be combined into one perspective. The hierarchical relationship of the perspectives is not supported in the data, suggesting that the perspectives may related in a different manner.

Research question two is: *To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by the managers in the Virginia Department of Corrections vary by level of management?* Although there are some differences found by level of management, these differences are minimal and do not conclusively reveal that leadership perspective and practice vary by level of management. This research question is analyzed by evaluating the number of hits in each operational element and each perspective by level of management. The primary perspective of each manager is also analyzed, based on level of management.

When the data are analyzed by operational elements, the data trend for all three levels of management is the same. Subjects use approach to followers with the highest frequency, followed by tools and behaviors, and finally, implementation description. The percentage of use for each element is different at each level of management; and these differences can be seen when looking at the range of percentages between the lowest and highest elements. Upper level managers have a range of 22 percentage points between the lowest element of implementation description and the highest element of approach to followers. Middle level managers have a range of 31 percent between the lowest and highest elements; and lower level managers have a range of 41 percent. These data indicate that, at the upper level, managers are more balanced in their use of the elements, and use all three elements, to a large extent, to describe their leadership perspective and practice. Managers at the mid and lower levels also use all three elements, but they favor approach to followers more strongly and implementation description more weakly.

These findings may reflect the nature of the work at the different levels of management. At the lower level, managers are more involved in the day-to-day operation of the organization. Their success as a manager is more contingent upon their daily interaction with followers to make sure that people are doing what they are supposed to do to complete their daily tasks. As managers move into mid and upper level positions they become more focused on larger organizational goals. These managers are able to focus more on the tools that are used in pursuit of those goals, and what it means to be a leader within the organization. Thus, the data indicate that at all three levels the elements of implementation description, tools and behaviors, and approach to followers are used, but the elements are used differently at different levels of management. Still,

the data trend for all three is the same, with managers at all levels using approach to followers with the greatest strength, followed by tools and behaviors and implementation description.

When the three levels of management are analyzed by number of hits in each perspective, the data trends are also similar for all three levels. All three levels of management strongly support the first three perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership, with the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership being moderately or weakly supported. Although the data trend is similar at all three levels of management, there are variations in the percentages found in each perspective at each level. Again, the range provides a good indicator of the differences found between levels of management. For upper level managers the range between the perspective with the most hits and the perspectives with the least hits is 15 percent. For mid level managers the range is 23 percent; and for lower level managers the range is 30 percent. Thus, for all managers, the data is skewed toward the first three perspectives; but the data is less skewed at the upper levels of management, than at the lower level of management. As a result, the finding for hits across all the perspectives is similar to the finding for hits across all elements: the data trend for all levels of management is similar, but the actual percentages are different at all three levels of management. This makes it difficult to determine conclusively the differences at the three levels of management because, although there are differences, the differences are small.

Another important consideration with this analysis is that the findings in research question one have already revealed that the practice of leadership by managers at the

DOC only partially reflect the LPM. Furthermore, the perspectives that are weakly supported in the model are trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership; the same perspectives that show the largest difference by level of management. As a result, it is difficult to determine if the differences found by level of management are a result of the limitations already found in the model, or differences in perspective and practice of leadership due to level of management.

The final analysis for level of management evaluates the differences in primary perspective by level of management. This analysis determines the primary perspective for each manager at each level of management. The data trends in these data are different at each level of management, but there is no pattern in the data that suggests that the differences are attributable to level of management. Again, this finding may be attributable to the finding in research question one that trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership are weakly supported in the model. There are few managers at any level that typed into these perspectives, and that keeps most of the data skewed toward the first three perspectives for all three levels of management.

The one finding that may suggest a difference at level of management is the large percentage of upper level managers who type into the values leadership perspective. This percentage is far higher than the other two levels of management and it is even higher than the combined percentage of managers at the mid and lower levels of management. This indicates that, at the upper level, managers use the values leadership perspective more than any other perspectives and they use it more than any other managers. Still, this is only one perspective, at one level of management, and it is not enough data to

conclusively determine that the perspective and practice of leadership by managers within DOC vary with level of management.

When considering all of the analyses for research question two, there is only minimal evidence that leadership perspective varies substantially based on level of management. There are some variations by level of management, and these variations are worthy of further research. However, until the model is found to be valid and reliable, it is difficult to determine if changes by level of management are truly due to level of management and not due to a limitation in the model.

Data analysis for this study reveals that there is some merit in combining the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership into a single perspective. Although a true modification to the model requires that the new perspective be redefined, simply combining the data collected for the two perspectives allows for a cursory analysis of the modified model. The analysis of the modified model provides evidence that there is merit in combining the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. The new perspective, entitled cultural leadership, is much more strongly represented in the data than either trust cultural leadership or whole soul leadership.

Limitations of the Study

There are four specific limitations to this study. First, although the instrumental case study method strengthened the overall design of the study in many ways, it also presented a limitation. It is possible that the findings could be attributable to something within the culture of DOC, rather than differences in the perception and practice of leadership among the managers of DOC. Organizational function is an area that was

cited by Fairholm (2004a) as potentially skewing the results, and the paramilitary structure of DOC as a public safety organization could have skewed the results toward the first three perspectives.

A second limitation to the study is that it did not lend itself to triangulation. Although data triangulation, theory triangulation and methodological triangulation are not appropriate for this study, investigator triangulation could have strengthened the results by reducing the potential for investigator bias. This limitation is addressed through the use of a tight research design, a strong theoretical framework, clear research questions and a precise method for data collection and analysis.

The third limitation relates to sample selection. The sample of managers from DOC is stratified by upper, mid, and lower level managers. Designation of the three levels was performed by a human resources specialist within the organization. Upper level managers are designated as those in the highest level positions, reporting either directly to, or within one level of the DOC Director. Mid level managers are designated as those who report directly to upper level managers; and lower level managers are designated as those who report directly to mid level managers. These designations leave a gap between managers designated as lower level in this study and the managers at the lowest level within the organization. For the divisions of Community Corrections and Administration, this gap is not large; but for the Operations Division, which manages institutions, there are potentially many levels between the managers designated as lower level in the study and actual front line managers. This limitation could skew the data toward upper level managers.

The fourth limitation of this study is that it is not generalizable to the larger population of managers in other public organizations. However, the purpose of the study is not to generalize to other organizations; the purpose is to test the LPM through replication of a previous study by extending it to another population and geographical location. To that end, the study is useful in further developing the model.

Contribution of the Research

This research provides several contributions to the body of knowledge regarding the LPM. Since the LPM is a relatively new model among leadership studies, only one study of the model has been completed prior to this study. Thus, this study is important in beginning to establish the reliability and validity of the model. Although this study does not completely support the model as developed, it does support aspects of the model and provides valuable indicators for steps that can be taken to strengthen the model.

The establishment of strength indicators for the operational elements and the leadership perspectives is another contribution of this study. As a new model of leadership, the original study of the LPM was designed to fully develop and operationalize the model, and to determine if the model existed as operationalized (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a). In that study, support was found for each operational element and each perspective if they contained hits. The number of hits was not of concern because the investigator was interested in the existence of hits to support the elements of the model; not how strongly the model was supported. This research makes a significant contribution to development of the LPM by establishing strength indicators for each element and each perspective. This allows for more meaningful discussion of the constructs of the model, and points to areas of both strength and weakness within the

model. These strengths and weaknesses can be further examined to determine how the model can be modified to provide a more meaningful tool for leadership study. The modification presented in this research represents the third contribution of this study.

This research provides evidence that the two perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership are too vague and abstract to form two separate leadership perspectives. As a result of this finding, a recommendation is made to combine the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. To test the utility of this modification, the data were collapsed and analyzed in this study. The findings for the modified model reveal that the modification may ameliorate some of the weaknesses of the model, and create a model that is a stronger and more valid representation of leadership perspectives.

Recommendations for Future Research

Findings of this study suggest four lines of further research. First, the proposed modification to the model should be fully operationalized and tested. Second, each of the constructs of the model should be tested for validity. Third, after making the modification to the model, and establishing some validity for the model, the extent to which perspective of leadership varies with level of management should be tested again. Finally, other variables should be tested such as age, gender, ethnicity, organizational function, and other variables to determine how leadership perspective varies with these variables. Each of these recommendations is discussed below.

Modification of Model

The first recommendation for future research is to fully operationalize and test the proposed modification to the model. This modification combines elements of the trust

culture leadership perspective and the whole soul leadership perspective to form one perspective that is well defined. In development of the model, the first three perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership are perspectives that are well established in the literature and clearly supported in the research. The last two perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership are less well developed. These notions of leadership are still new and there is far less literature available and research conducted on these two perspectives (Burke et al., 2006; Dent et al., 2005; M. R. Fairholm, 2004a; Joseph & Winston, 2005). Thus, even though Fairholm took his description of each perspective from the literature, the lack of development of these ideas in the literature is reflected in Fairholm's definitions.

In some respects, the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership overlap with each other and, to a lesser extent, with values leadership. For example, the tools and behavior of values leadership include setting and enforcing values, visioning, and focusing communication around the vision. These are closely related to the tools and behaviors identified in trust cultural leadership as creating and maintaining culture through visioning. Although they are not exactly the same, they are so similar that it is difficult to distinguish from which perspective the leader is operating and this creates a definitional problem with the model that leads to a coding problem within the qualitative data. Another example is found within approach to followers. Values prioritization, teaching/coaching, and empowering are all approaches to followers found within the values leadership perspective. These variables together encompass developing an environment where followers are a part of the leadership process. However, in the trust cultural leadership perspective, fostering a shared culture is an approach to

followers, and in the whole soul leadership perspective, building community and promoting stewardship is an approach to followers. Again, there is a fine distinction between these variables and the distinction is difficult to discern in practice and to detect in coding the qualitative data. As a final example, an approach to followers in the trust cultural leadership perspective is team building; while a tool and behavior of whole soul leadership is developing individual wholeness in a team context. This example also shows the overlap of variables between perspectives, and also between operational elements.

In addition to the areas of overlap, the vague and ambiguous aspects of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership need to be clarified or removed. For example, in whole soul leadership, an approach to followers is inspiration. This is too vague and difficult to discern in practice and in coding the qualitative data. The idea of inspiring can be confused with communicating a vision, motivating employees to perform, creating a culture of trust, or any number of other activities that are defined in other perspectives. The term is too vague to be useful in the model. Other vague variables in the model include liberating followers to build community and promote stewardship, and developing and enabling individual wholeness in a team context. Both of these variables are found within the whole soul leadership perspective, and are difficult to identify in practice and to code in the qualitative data.

In order to make the recommended modification to the model, the values leadership perspective needs to be evaluated to include those aspects of trust cultural leadership that are found to overlap with values leadership. The second recommendation is to remove or clarify the vague variables in the whole soul leadership and trust cultural

leadership perspectives, and to combine them into one perspective. The emerging perspective would address the standards of morality and service orientation that are the hallmarks of whole soul leadership, the focus on the value of life/work balance that is found in whole soul leadership, and the importance of the entire organization working together as a team that is the hallmark of trust cultural leadership.

As illustrated by the data analysis of the modified model discussed in Chapter IV, combining the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership provides some utility in strengthening the model. Further research on this modification is needed to fully describe and validate the new perspective and to define its variables. The second aspect of the model that requires further research is to validate the constructs of the model.

Validation of Constructs

A problem revealed in the data analysis for this study is that when the findings that do not match with Fairholm's (2004a) it is difficult to determine if the issue is with the model itself, or with some aspect of the study. Thus, the model needs to be validated so that further research can more confidently rely on its constructs. As a model of leadership, the LPM has five perspectives, each of which has three elements, each of which has eight variables. This means that 40 variables are used to construct the LPM. Even with the modification of the model, there are 32 variables used to construct the model. This study reveals that the model itself is too large and complex to study without first validating its constructs.

In addition to the number of variables, there is another issue with validation of constructs. The model presents the perspectives as paradigmatic in scope and

hierarchical in nature. The issue with these constructions of the perspectives is that the exact meaning of paradigmatic and hierarchical is never fully defined. Thus, a critical effort is needed to strengthen the LPM, is to validate each of the perspectives and each of the elements within the model, and to define and validate the nature and relationship of the perspectives.

With the modification of the new perspective, and the strength of the first three perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership in both the literature and the two studies of LPM, the perspectives themselves will be well supported. As a result, validation of the model can focus on validation of each of the variables that comprise the elements of implementation description, approaches to followers, and tools and behaviors within each perspective.

According to the findings of this study, the element of implementation description across all the leadership perspectives may be problematic. This element was shown to have moderate to weak support in the findings. Because the model constructs have not been validated, it is difficult to determine what weak support for this element means. This finding could indicate that managers are more comfortable describing leadership in terms of what they do, rather than what they perceive leadership to be – their implementation description. However, the findings could also mean that the variables used to describe implementation are not valid; and, therefore, implementation description as an element is shown to have less support because there is a problem in the model. Although implementation description was the only element in this study that was shown to have weak support, all of the elements need to be validated to increase the strength of the findings for further research using this model.

In addition to validation of the elements, the relationship of the perspectives needs to be examined. The perspectives within the model are constructed as hierarchical in nature. However, the data collected in this study did not show the perspectives to be hierarchical. Managers at all levels of the organization use elements from two, three, four, or even five different leadership perspectives. Each manager has a primary perspective, but is not confined to the elements of that perspective in his or her job. The data reveal that the managers at DOC use the implementation description, approach to followers and tools of behaviors of several other perspectives. Their ability to do this is indicated in the spread of hits across perspectives, and the presence of multiple perspectives. This ability to move outside of their primary perspective to use the appropriate approach and/or tool may indicate a more comprehensive understanding of leadership and management than a single perspective allows. As a result of these findings, the relationship of the perspectives within the model requires further research.

Level of Management

The third line of further research is to re-examine the extent to which the perspectives and practice of leadership varies by level of management. After updating and validating the model, further research on how the perspective and practice of leadership varies with level of management could be conducted through replication this study in another public sector environment that is not structured in a military or paramilitary environment. The study should be designed to carefully select the sample to reflect all levels of management, so that there is no danger that the data collected would be skewed toward the upper or lower levels of management. Although the level of management analysis in this study was mostly inconclusive, it does indicate that there are

differences by level of management and these differences should be further explored with the modified model.

Other Variables

The final recommendation for further research of the LPM is to determine the extent to which the perspective and practice of leadership changes by other variables. These variables should include age, gender, ethnicity, education, prior leadership training, function of the organization, and others. If the LPM is updated and validated as a model of leadership, it has the potential to provide rich information and valuable insight into the reasons that leadership perspectives vary.

Each of these four lines of research provides direction for further study of the LPM as a model of leadership. Although this study found that the perspective and practice of leadership by managers within DOC only partially reflect the LPM, and that differences in perspectives by level of management are inconclusive, the model shows promise in many areas. With additional research, the modified model has the potential to be an important tool for understanding how managers perceive and practice leadership.

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APPENDIX A

Semi-Structured Interview Questions

1. What do you think is the goal(s) or task(s) of leadership?
2. What types of activities or sets of skills do you think describes leadership?
3. If you were to define leadership, what would your definition be?
4. In describing leadership, how do you think leaders should relate to followers? In other words, how should a leader approach the relationship between leaders and follower?
5. A senior executive in the organization has assigned a branch chief, who oversees 5 professional and 2 support staff, the job of redesigning a service delivery process to be presented to the executive committee in two weeks. You are the branch chief. How would you most effectively accomplish the assignment?
6. Your ideal boss would be the kind of person that saw leadership as what.... Please fill in the blank.
7. If you were to describe a leader, what words, phrases, or statements would you use?
8. Do you feel leaders can be developed? To what extent to you think leadership training improves the performance of leaders?
9. Has your view of leadership changed over your career? If so, why do you think that change occurred?
10. What impact do leaders have on organizations, groups, or individuals?
11. Are there any other comments you wish to express about the research in general or this interview in specific?
12. Are there any "leadership stories" from work or any other aspect of your life that have made an impression on you? If so, would you tell me about them?

Demographic Data

1. What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

2. What is your ethnicity?

- White (includes Arabians)
- Black (includes Jamaicans, Bahamians and other Carribeans of African but not Hispanic or Arabian descent)
- Hispanic (includes persons of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Central or South American or other Spanish origin or culture)
- Asian & Asian American (includes Pakistanis, Indians, and Pacific Islanders)
- American Indian (includes Alaskans)

3. What is your age in years?

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 24 years or younger | <input type="checkbox"/> 50 - 54 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 25 - 29 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 55 - 59 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 30 - 34 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 60 - 64 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 35 - 39 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 65 - 69 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 40 - 44 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 70 years or older |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 45 - 49 years | |

4. How many total years have you been employed in a managerial capacity?

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 0 - 5 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 16 - 20 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 6- 10 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 20 - 25 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 11- 15 years | <input type="checkbox"/> More than 25 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 16 - 20 years | |

5. How long have you been in your current position?

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 0 - 5 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 16 - 20 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 6- 10 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 20 - 25 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 11- 15 years | <input type="checkbox"/> More than 25 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 16 - 20 years | |

6. What is your current job title? _____

7. Have you had any other positions in this agency? If so, what was your job title(s)?

8. Have you worked in other government agencies? If so, which ones and in what positions?

Government Agency	Position	Amount of Time in Position

9. Have you worked in the private or non-profit sectors? If so, where and in what positions?

Company	Position	Amount of Time in Position

10. Can you tell me about your professional preparations, such as degrees, certifications, and training?

- Associate Degree in: _____
- Bachelor Degree in: _____
- Master Degree in: _____
- Doctorate Degree in: _____
- Professional Certification (please specify): _____
- Professional Training (please specify): _____

11. Have you ever received leadership training?

- Yes
 No

12. If yes, what kind of training did you receive? _____

APPENDIX B**Thematic Mapping**

Construct	Question(s)
Leadership Perspective	6, 7, 10, 11, 12
Implementation Description	1, 3, 5, 6, 7
Tools and Behaviors Used	2, 5, 6,
Approach to Followers	4, 5, 6,
Enlargement of Perspective	8, 9

APPENDIX C
Summary Data Worksheet

Subject Number: _____

Scientific Management (SM)	ID Total (1)	TB Total (2)	AF Total (3)	TOTAL 1 + 2 + 3
	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Excellence Management (EM)	ID Total (1)	TB Total (2)	AF Total (3)	TOTAL 1 + 2 + 3
	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Values Leadership (VL)	ID Total (1)	TB Total (2)	AF Total (3)	TOTAL 1 + 2 + 3
	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Trust Cultural Leadership (TCL)	ID Total (1)	TB Total (2)	AF Total (3)	TOTAL 1 + 2 + 3
	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Spiritual Whole-Soul Leadership (WSL)	ID Total (1)	TB Total (2)	AF Total (3)	TOTAL 1 + 2 + 3
	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

Curriculum Vitae

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Education

Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in Public Administration and Urban Policy, with cognate in Research Methods, Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia.

Master of Arts in Organizational Leadership (M.O.L.), May, 2003, Regent University, Virginia Beach, Virginia.

Bachelor of Arts in Liberal Arts Management, May, 1995, Virginia Wesleyan College, Norfolk, Virginia.

Associate of Applied Science in Business Management, May, 1992, Tidewater Community College, Virginia Beach, Virginia.

Academic Experience

Faculty – 2007 – Present

Christopher Newport University, Newport News, Virginia
Department of Leadership Studies

Adjunct Faculty – 2006-2007

Christopher Newport University, Newport News, Virginia
Department of Leadership Studies

Adjunct Faculty – 2007

Cambridge College, Chesapeake VA 23320
School of Management

Adjunct Faculty/Writing Coach - 2003-2004

Regent University, Virginia Beach, Virginia

Adjunct Faculty - 2003-2004

Tidewater Community College, Virginia Beach, Virginia

Guest Lecturer – Global Leadership
Chinese Scholar Program
Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia

Guest Lecturer – Topics in Leadership 2005-2006
Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia

Guest Lecturer – Statistics and Research Methods 2005-2006
Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia

Courses Taught

- Foundations of Marketing – MKTG 101, Tidewater Community College
- Leadership: A Communications Perspective – OLAM 350 (Writing Coach), Regent University
- Examining Your Leadership Potential – OLAM 405 (Writing Coach), Regent University
- Civic Leadership – LDSP 195
- Exploring Leadership from the Inside Out – ULLC 100
- Self Leadership – LSDP 210
- Foundations of Leadership Study – LDSP 220
- Leadership Theory and Research – LDSP 320
- Marketing Management – MMG 733

Related Work Experience or Specialized Skills

Consultant

Tidewater Community College
Virginia Beach, Virginia, 2003 - Present

I have worked as a consultant with Tidewater Community College on various grant projects with an emphasis on data collection and analysis.

- Women in Science, Technology, Engineering and Math - Mentoring Program – Perkins Grant.
- Women in Science, Technology, Engineering and Math - Recruitment Program – National Science Foundation Grant.
- Tech Prep Program (awards college credits to high school students in articulated classes) – Virginia Community College System Funded Program.
- Path to Industry Certification Program (Recruits high school seniors who are not college bound to technical certification programs) - Virginia Community College System Funded Program and Perkins Grant.

Graduate Assistant
Old Dominion University
Norfolk, Virginia, 2003 – Present

Graduate assistant in the College of Business and Public Administration at Old Dominion University. In that capacity, I have been responsible for various research projects, guest lecturing, and curriculum development. Projects include:

- Leadership in Public Administration research
- Ethics in Public Administration research
- Women in Public Administration (course development)
- Leadership and Ethics (course development)
- Criminal Justice Ethics (use of case studies in the classroom)
- Program Survey administration, data analysis and reporting

Director of Marketing
Electronic Systems
Virginia Beach, Virginia, 2000 – 2003

Electronic Systems is a complex organization with five separate business units and six separate geographical locations. I developed and implemented the marketing and communications plan for the organization. Efforts resulted in company growth of 20% year over year.

- Hired and managed marketing staff in all locations.
- Developed and implemented branding campaign that encompassed newspaper, radio and TV advertising, marketing literature, branding of products and services, trade show participation and various media and public relations events.
- Successfully placed articles with media outlets.
- Spokesperson for company in media-related issues.
- Managed web site strategy and implementation.
- Developed and presented informational seminars.
- Facilitated relationship with vendors that resulted in co-marketing strategies to increase sales revenue for both organizations.

In addition to my marketing responsibilities, chaired Leadership Committee designed to navigate the organization through significant organizational change. Responsibilities included recasting organizational vision and values, designing leadership training for employees, and facilitating formation of subcommittees focused on customer service.

**Director of Marketing
PROSOFT, Inc.**

Virginia Beach, Virginia, 1997-2000

Strategically positioned PROSOFT Training Institute as the premier technology training company in Hampton Roads through design and implementation of the strategic marketing campaign. Marketing strategies resulted in increasing training attendance to over 10,000 students per year.

- Developed training catalog and other marketing literature.
- Placed advertising and monitored results.
- Wrote bid responses to corporate customers.
- Developed strategic training agreements with corporations.
- Managed trade show and event participation

**Marketing Communications Manager
Schlumberger Technologies**

Chesapeake, Virginia, 1989 - 1997

Developed and implemented the marketing strategy to introduce the company as a new entrant into the transit industry. Efforts resulted in moving the company from a relatively unknown entity in the industry to the position of industry leader.

- Performed market research and analysis to determine product development strategies.
- Developed and implemented lead generation program to identify both potential customers and vendor partnerships.
- Designed marketing literature.
- Represented company on industry panels and discussion groups.
- Wrote and edited articles for trade publications.

Professional Development

Attended Business and Leadership Symposium, 9/28-28/2006 at Fort Hays State University, Hays, Kansas.

Attended “Global Challenges, Local Solution” Research Exposition, 4/5/2006 at Ted Constant Center, Norfolk, Virginia.

Attended Service Learning Workshop, 9/19/2008 hosted by the Virginia Tidewater Consortium for Higher Education, Norfolk, Virginia.

Research/Scholarly Activities

Gibson, P. A. & Gagnon, E. M. (2005). *What if leaders do the right thing but for the wrong reason: An exploration of moral reasoning and leadership styles in public administration*. Conference Proceeding. Paper presented at the Business and Leadership Symposium, Fort Hays State University, Hays, Kansas, 9/29/2006.

Gibson, P. A. & Gagnon, E. M. (2006). *An Empirical Analysis of Ethics and Leadership in the Public Sector*. “Global Challenges, Local Solutions” Research Exposition, Ted Constant Center, Norfolk, Virginia 4/5/2006.

Plichta S. B., Payne B., Carmody E., Gagnon, E. M. (2007). *Intimate Partner Violence: What do social workers want to know?* Presented at the 135th Annual Meeting of the American Public Health Association, Washington DC.

Professional or Academic Honors and Awards

Phi Kappa Phi Honors Society, Old Dominion University, May, 2006
Who’s Who Among Graduate Students, Regent University, 2003

Professional Affiliations and Memberships

American Society for Public Administrators (ASPA)
International Leadership Association (ILA)