PERCEPTION OR REALITY? A FRAME ANALYSIS OF LEADERSHIP
BEHAVIOR, STYLE, AND EFFECTIVENESS AMONG SELECTED COMMUNITY
COLLEGE ADMINISTRATORS

by

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ABSTRACT

SUSAN DIANNE LITTLE. Perception or reality? A frame analysis of leadership
     behavior, style, and effectiveness among selected community college
     administrators. (Under the direction of Dr. JOHN GRETES)

The American community college has reached a pivotal point in its history, a

juncture of conflicting forces pulling and pushing the institution in opposite directions,

attacking and supporting its mission, and demanding more from yet providing less to the

two-year sector of higher education. At this historical juncture, the community college is

also confronted by the challenges inherent in an increasingly diverse student population,

heightened external mandates for enhanced accountability, severe funding shortages,

continually metamorphosing technological developments, and growing public skepticism.

Compounded by an internal leadership crisis, the above forces have converged to create

the proverbial "perfect storm," an unprecedented turning point signaling the need for

unprecedented leadership. Such leadership must be both situational and transformational,

altering both the leader and the led and giving new credibility to the institution itself.

To effectively transform their institutions and ensure the navigation of such

turbulent times, current and future community college leaders must first transform

themselves through multi-faceted evaluation involving both self-examination of their

effectiveness and assessment by those with and for whom they work. This study utilized

a multi-rater approach to investigate the leadership behavior, orientation, and

effectiveness of sixteen selected administrators at a North Carolina community college.

Those administrators included vice-presidents, associate deans, executive directors,

executive officers, and one academic dean.

The purpose of the researcher was to compare leaders' self-perceptions of their behavior, orientation/style, and managerial and leadership effectiveness with the perceptions expressed by their supervisors, peers, and subordinates. Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation Instrument-Self (LOI-Self) was used to assess individual leaders' self-perceptions; the Leadership Orientation Instrument-Other (LOI-Other), the perceptions expressed by leaders' supervisors, peers, and subordinates. Leadership behavior and orientation were analyzed within Bolman and Deal's four organizational frames: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic. Independent variables were the groups of raters (self, supervisors, peers, and subordinates). Dependent variables were the perceptions of leadership behavior, orientation, and effectiveness.

Descriptive comparisons indicated that leaders and their supervisors considered leaders' preferred frame as the human resource frame, followed by the structural, symbolic, and political frames. Both peers and subordinates deemed the structural frame as leaders' preferred frame, followed by the human resource, symbolic, and political frames. Individual frame analyses revealed discrepancies in the level of rankings, with leaders often rated themselves higher than others. Discrepancies were also noted in leadership and managerial effectiveness, where leaders were more inclined to rate themselves in the top 20% of effective leaders they had known and peers were more inclined to rate leaders in the next to top 20% or middle 20%.

A series of nine two-factor Analyses of Variance with Repeated Measures (ANOVR) was used to analyze the differences between leaders' perceptions and the perceptions of others. Results suggested statistically significant differences between

leaders' self-perceptions of both their leadership behavior and their leadership orientation when compared with the perceptions of their supervisors, peers, and subordinates.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

The American community college has reached a pivotal point in its storied history, a juncture of conflicting forces pulling and pushing the institution in opposite directions, attacking and supporting its mission, and demanding more from yet providing less to the two-year sector of higher education. In such a climate, the community college is also struggling to address the needs of an increasingly diverse student population, respond to external mandates for enhanced accountability, develop alternative sources of funding, adapt teaching and learning to continually metamorphosing technological developments, and reassure an increasingly skeptical public of its validity as a viable institution within higher education. Together, the above forces have created an environment resembling the proverbial "perfect storm," an unprecedented turning point signaling the need for unprecedented leadership. Such leadership must be both situational and transformational in nature, adapting to constantly changing scenarios, altering both the leader and the led, and giving new credibility to the institution itself. However, to effectively transform their institutions and ensure a successful navigation of such turbulent times, current and future community college leaders must first transform themselves through both self-examination of their effectiveness and assessment by those with and for whom they work.

Overview

This research investigated the leadership behavior, orientation, and effectiveness of selected administrators at a North Carolina community college. Specifically, this study

compared community college leaders' perceptions of their own leadership behavior, orientation, and effectiveness with the perceptions expressed by their supervisors, colleagues, and subordinates, using Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation Instrument-Self (LOI-Self) and Leadership Orientation Instrument-Other (LOI-Other) (Bolman & Deal, 1990). The purpose of this study was to determine whether significant differences exist between the perspectives of self and others and, if so, the implications of the differences for those in leadership positions.

Leadership Crisis

The American higher education system is facing a leadership crisis because of the impending and occurring retirement of a significant number of veteran administrators. This crisis is particularly present within the nation's community college system, where 84% of all presidents plan to retire by 2016 (Weisman & Vaughn, 2007), a statistic only slightly higher than the percentage of other departing administrators. According to Fulton-Calkins and Milling (2005), such a mass exodus of experienced leadership means that in the next few years, 700 new community college presidents and campus directors, 1800 new upper-level administrators, and 30,000 new faculty members will be needed at institutions nationwide. However, Patton's (2004) research indicates that the administrative positions will not be easily filled due to the lack of qualified personnel. Noting that the number of graduate degrees conferred in community college administration decreased 78% from 1983 through 1997 (Shults, 2001), Patton warns that students currently enrolled in community college administrative programs will supply only a fraction of the anticipated vacancies. Additionally, the number of faculty members who traditionally progress to assume administrative roles is also declining due to

anticipated retirements (Shults, 2001). According to Amey, VanDerLinden, & Brown (2001), those faculty members would normally aspire to one of the following senior administrative positions: chief academic officer, business/financial officer, chief student affairs officer, director of continuing education, business and industry liaison, and occupational/vocational education leader. In view of the retirement of experienced leaders and the anticipated lack of qualified people to replace them, the community college leadership crisis will not be alleviated by the availability of new or present personnel.

The North Carolina Community College System is not immune to the leadership crisis. According to the 2008 *North Carolina Community College Fact Book*, 39% of the state's senior administrators, 11% of faculty, 16% of staff, and 10% of technical/paraprofessionals could retire by 2017 (North Carolina Community College System, 2008). In his January, 2007, report to the State Board, former System President Martin Lancaster announced the retirement of three of the 58 community college presidents, saying, "Turnover at the executive level continues at a record pace. …   These retirements represent a great loss of experience and dedicated leadership" (President's January Report to the State Board, 2007).

The leadership crisis is not simply a matter of numbers; it is also a matter of quality in leadership preparation. The majority of presidents retiring in the next five to ten years have served their institutions for decades and have been leaders in the establishment of the community college as a vital player in the higher education arena. As these individuals leave, they take with them a unique understanding of the community college mission, values, and culture; and they leave behind a noticeable void in

leadership and experience (Shults, 2001). Leadership preparation initiatives, which vary by states, districts, and individual colleges, play a major role in closing that gap. Those initiatives include long-term university-based graduate programs as well as short-term programs sponsored by the American Association of Community Colleges, individual states, and individual community colleges. Unfortunately, some researchers do not think that many of the existing leadership development programs provide the quality of training needed by the new generation of community college leaders (Piland & Wolf, 2003; Wallin, 2006).

Leadership Definitions

Leadership has been under the scrutiny of scholars for almost two centuries; however, the concept continues to defy universal definition and understanding. A complex process, leadership cannot be subject solely to the singular analysis of an individual's personal traits, power orientation, academic preparation, professional training, or behavioral profile. Instead, meaningful leadership exists and can be most clearly understood in the context of the relationships that develop between leader and followers and among leaders and followers (Bolman & Deal, 2003).

Some prominent definitions of leadership merit consideration: Bennis (1959) describes leadership as the process of one influencing another to behave in a certain manner. Fiedler (1967) sees leadership as directing and coordinating the work of others; Merton (1969), as an interpersonal relation in which people comply because they want to do so, not because they have to. Cohen and Brawer (2003) define the concept as a "transaction between people, not a quality or a set of traits held by a person who is in a position of authority" (p. 136). Bolman and Deal (2003) emphasize that leadership is an

intangible relationship that exists in the imagination of those involved, that it is distinct

from authority and power, and that it is not synonymous with management. Bennis and

Nanus (1985) further state that "managers do things right, and leaders do the right thing"

(p. 21). Finally, Burns (1978) provides the most comprehensive and authentic definition

of leadership:

> Some define leadership as leaders making the followers do what
> *followers* would not otherwise do, or as leaders making followers
> do what the leaders want them to do; I define leadership as leaders
> inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values
> and the motivations --- the wants and the needs, the aspirations and
> expectations --- *of both leaders and followers* (p. 19).

Burns' definition necessitates a relationship between leader and follower in which each

elevates the other to a higher level of motivation and morality, transforming both.

Leadership Theories

Numerous studies exist investigating the nature of effective leadership. Many of

those studies classify the concept in terms of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 2002;

Sergiovanni, 1992), team leadership (Bensimon & Neumann, 1993), transformational

leadership (Burns, 1978), emotionally intelligent leadership (Goleman, 2006a), or

situational leadership (Hersey, 1984; Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson, 2001; Yukl, 1989).

Others analyze leadership in more specific contexts, such as the five disciplines of shared

vision, mental models, team learning, personal mastery, and systems thinking (Senge,

2006) or the five practices of exemplary leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Still others

apply leadership from the perspectives of behavioral (Blake & Mouton, 1964),

participative (Vroom & Yetton, 1973), trait (Bennis, 2009; Covey, 1989; Stogdill, 1948),

or contingency theories (Fiedler, 1967). For the scope of this study, the following

theoretical approaches will be most applicable: trait, behavioral, contingency,

cultural/symbolic, power and influence, transactional, and transformational. Each approach is briefly described below.

Trait theory identifies a set of personality traits or characteristics common among effective leaders (Bass, 1990). This theory implies that leaders are born, not made, having inherited certain qualities that guarantee their success. In contrast, behavioral theory espouses that effective leadership is displayed in observable, patterned behaviors which are not innate but can be learned. Those behaviors influence the actions and attitudes of others (Bass). Contingency theory considers the interaction between the leader's personality or behavior and situational factors in determining leadership effectiveness (Fiedler, 1967). Under this theory, leaders approach tasks within the context of the particular situation; and that context determines what the individual leader must do. Cultural or symbolic theory places leaders in the role of "high priests of the organization, managing the culture, myths, and maintaining the sagas" (Lees, Smith, & Stockhouse, 1994, p. 8). Symbolic leaders embody the organizational culture, relying on stories, rituals, traditions, and shared beliefs to create and sustain a sense of community (Bolman & Deal, 2003). Power and influence theory analyzes the leader-follower relationship in terms of the leader's degree of power and use of power in unilateral or reciprocal interactions (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989). According to Burns (1978), the essential elements of power, motive and resource are always political in nature. Finally, transactional theory and transformational theory, which fall in the category of the power and influence approach, can be explained in relation to Burns' (1978) definition of leadership discussed above. In the former theory, leadership occurs when one individual initiates contact and bargains with another for the purpose of an exchange of things

valued by both (such as jobs for votes or wages for work). However, the leader-follower relationship does not hold together in a continuing pursuit of a higher purpose. In contrast, the latter theory illuminates a relationship that elevates both leader and follower to a higher level of conduct and ethical aspiration. The transformational leader recognizes and exploits the demands and needs of followers but is concerned with satisfying higher values and producing lasting social change (Burns, 1978). The difference between these two theories lies in the nature of the leader's purpose or motive and the leader-follower relationship.

Bolman and Deal's Four Frames

Bolman and Deal approach leadership from the perspective of relationships as developed within situational contexts. Specifically, these authors seek to define leadership in terms of frames of reference, or lenses through which individuals perceive and interpret their personal and organizational environment. If a particular frame seems to fit current circumstances, leaders can understand and shape human experience. If not, they may use the wrong lens, see the situation in distorted views, and fail to respond effectively (Bolman & Deal, 1991a).

Bolman and Deal's four frames conceptualize organizational theories and represent how leaders respond to everyday issues. The structural frame emphasizes the roles and goals and efficiency of the organization. Structural leaders focus on data, production, goal accomplishment, policies, and accountability but give secondary importance to the people behind the organization (Bolman & Deal, 1991a). The human resource frame emphasizes the importance of people over the organization, focusing on meeting human needs in order to facilitate the accomplishment of organizational goals.

Human resource leaders direct their efforts to relationship building and empowerment. The political frame revolves around individual and group interests in the competition for scarce resources. Leaders within the political frame function as advocates and negotiators who bargain and network for their coalition's agenda. The symbolic frame operates in a world of ambiguity and uncertainty that is given meaning only by symbolic forms. Leaders utilizing this frame have the task of maintaining the organizational culture through symbolism and inspiring followers to adopt a shared sense of community and mission (Bolman & Deal). Based on their research, Bolman and Deal believe that the four frames constitute the foundations for human thought in schools and other organizations and that these frames are easily observed in leadership behavior because leaders use them to interpret what is happening and to determine an appropriate course of action in response.

Community College Challenges in the Millennium

In addition to the leadership crisis, the nation's community colleges must manage numerous challenges associated with the continually metamorphosing social and economic milieu of the 21st century (Amey, 2004; Boswell & Wilson, 2004; Cohen & Brawer, 2003; Eddy, 2004; Fulton-Calkins & Milling, 2005; Goff, 2003; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004; Kasper, 2002; Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006; Morrison, 1995; Society for College and University Planning, 2007; Sullivan, 2001; U.S. Department of Education, 2006; Weisman & Vaughn, 2007). The League of Innovation in the Community College and the Education Commission of the States identify four major trends impacting two-year institutions: an escalating demand for postsecondary education; an increasingly diverse and transitory student population, with more adult

learners, first-generation college students, students of color, and students from low-income families; a growing difference in how, why, and where students attend college; and a decreasing commitment for funding (Boswell & Wilson, 2004). Those trends are creating greater demands for access, which could result in a 13% increase in enrollment nationwide by 2015; greater demands for nontraditional learning options; and greater numbers of students needing remediation and financial assistance (Boswell & Wilson). Other important trends affecting the community college include globalization, advances in technology, heightened demands for career training, growing expectations for accountability in assessing student and institutional outcomes, and escalating skepticism of the ability of the college to meet the learning needs of contemporary consumers (Cohen & Brawer, 2003; Kasper, 2002; Morrison, 1995; Sullivan, 2001). Each trend will present challenges in program development, faculty professional development, and procurement and management of resources.

In the face of the current economic crisis plaguing the nation, community colleges are having, and will continue to have, difficulty addressing the trends and challenges listed above. The economic crisis has produced severe cuts in federal and state education budgets, resulting in unprecedented lay-offs and furloughs, resource restrictions, and program eliminations (Budget Crisis Prompts Deep Cuts in California, 2009; Dembicki, 2009; Office of the Governor, 2009; Strauss, 2009). Although the same crisis in funding promises to send more students in the direction of a community college instead of a university education, two-year institutions will not have the resources to accommodate those students and will face the possibility of closing the perennially open door (Strauss, 2009). According to Norma Kent, Vice-President of Communications for

the Association of Community Colleges, that action will force community colleges to go against their innate purpose: " ' For us to turn away students is anathema …. We are open-enrollment institutions. It's in our DNA' " (Strauss). Unfortunately, community colleges will find themselves caught in the dilemma of being inaccessible to those who most need their services in a time when the nation's economic recovery may depend on accessibility to two-year institutions.

The Need for Enhanced Transformational Leadership

All of the above conditions call for a different style of leadership within the community college, at the level of both the president and other upper-level administrators (Amey, 2004; Bassoppo-Moyo & Townsend, 1997; Eddy, 2004; Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006; Garavalia & Miller, 1996; Goff, 2003; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004; Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006; Myran, Myran, & Galant, 2004; Sullivan, 2001; Weisman & Vaughn, 2007). To maintain the open-door institution in the face of current adversities and to transform it to meet future challenges, community college leadership must transition to a higher level of commitment and expertise. Such leadership must consist of a broader perspective to become more global in focus, more dynamic in manner and process, more collaborative in policy development and decision-making, and more transparent and culturally astute in social interactions. It must also consist of a deeper situational perspective to respond appropriately to continually changing environmental conditions. Naturally, positive attributes and talents, years of experience, and knowledge and training remain vital aspects of leadership; however, those components must be utilized within the context of the new pressures and challenges facing two-year institutions (Kezar et al, 2006).

Sullivan (2001) describes historical community college leadership in terms of four generations: " '…the founding fathers, the good managers, the collaborators, and the millennium generation' " (p. 559). The first generation of founding fathers was responsible for the new institution's initial development; the second generation of good managers, for the rapid growth and management of the many resources given to the two-year institutions. The third generation oversaw the development of strong teams of faculty, administrators, and staff for the procurement of now-scarce resources to ensure continued open access. The millennials, Sullivan's fourth generation, have the crucial task of redefining the role of the presidency. Members of this generation must be adept dealmakers and coalition builders who can lead effectively amid changing student and faculty profiles, fluid political climates, and volatile economic conditions. In their profile of the community college presidency, Weisman & Vaughn (2007) support this argument, explaining that Chief Executive Officers (CEO's) devote an increasing amount of their time (34%) to such external relations, which include networking, legislative advocacy, and fundraising. Goff (2003) expands Sullivan's description of future community college leaders to stress the importance of self-study, a realistic understanding of their positive and negative traits and behaviors, and an ability to assess situations and people and respond appropriately. Other scholars reiterate the need for leaders who possess emotional intelligence, or the personal and social competencies enabling self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management; and emotional resonance, the ability to make their passion and energy resound throughout their followers (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2004; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004). Finally, the new community college leader must establish

himself as worthy of his followership by demonstrating honest, forward thinking, competent, and inspirational leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2003). Such abilities facilitate the development of transformational leadership, where leaders connect with followers' values and with followers themselves, producing more commitment, inspiring trust, and elevating all parties to a higher level of purpose (Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004).

The above profile of the new leadership style necessary among community college administrators points out the need for the adept use of Bolman and Deal's four frames of leadership orientation. Bolman and Deal's instruments (LOI-Self and LOI-Other) give the leader a 360-degree evaluation of leadership behaviors, style, and effectiveness from the perspectives of self, superiors, colleagues, and subordinates. Analysis reveals the strength of the leader's orientation to each of the following four frames: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic (Bolman & Deal, 1990). Equally important, each of the four frames is represented in the above description of the type of leaders needed to guide the 21st century community college. In redefining the presidency, Sullivan's (2001) millennial generation will need the perspective afforded by the structural frame to create and revise policies and procedures necessary to govern nontraditional instruction, expanded partnerships, and global initiatives. That generation will also make use of the human resource frame to establish a team-oriented approach to leadership as well as a team-oriented approach to ownership of the institution and its future among faculty and staff. In addition, effective human resource management will require that leaders first know and understand themselves and that they acknowledge the views about their performance held by others. Finally, new community college leaders will benefit from the political and symbolic lenses as they attempt to negotiate with state

and local leaders for dwindling resources and with the public at large for a vote of confidence in the mission and vision of the institution. Evidence of orientation to the four frames, of individual behaviors, and of effectiveness will be strong predictors of the potential for success not only of the administrators but also of the community college.

Need and Purpose

Evidence suggests that community colleges face a severe leadership crisis with high rates of administrative retirements inevitable over the next seven to ten years (Fulton-Calkins & Milling, 2005; Shults, 2001; Weisman & Vaughn, 2007). Research also indicates that few administrative positions will be easily filled due to the predicted paucity of qualified replacements (Patton, 2004) and the lack of experienced personnel in the succession pipeline (Amey, VanDerLinden, & Brown, 2001). Although various programs exist at the state and national levels to address this crisis, many of those programs lack a sound theoretical framework and fall short of meeting the needs of all participants (Piland & Wolf, 2003; Wallin, 2006). As a result, adequate evaluation of the effectiveness of those programs cannot be guaranteed.

The above crisis is compounded by the overwhelming social and economic changes taking place nationwide. As a result of those changes, community college leadership must be capable of addressing a burgeoning student population that will be more diverse, less academically skilled, and less receptive to traditional instructional delivery. Leadership must also be capable of meeting the challenges presented by increased government regulation, global competition, advances in technology, accountability, the heightened demand for access, and the threat of continued decreases in

funding (Boswell & Wilson, 2004; Cohen & Brawer, 2003; Eddy, 2004; Morrison, 1995; Society for College and University Planning, 2007).

The current climate within community colleges calls for a different style of leadership among presidents and upper-level administrators. Just as Sullivan's (2001) millennial generation of community college presidents must redefine the role of the presidency, all administrators must redefine their roles to exemplify the style necessary to transform two-year institutions. The new style of leadership must be rooted in a clear understanding of the leader's behaviors, style orientation, and effectiveness. Such understanding emanates from both self-perception and the perceptions of others, giving the leader a 360-degree profile of personal strengths and weaknesses. An analysis using Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation – Self (LOI-Self) and Leadership Orientation – Other (LOI-Other) provides both leadership perspectives. Those instruments use the perspectives of the leader (LOI-Self) and ratings by supervisors, peers, and subordinates (LOI-Other) to indicate leadership style and orientation within the structural, human resource, political, and symbolic frames. In addition, the instruments link frame orientation to the probability of managerial and leadership success. Bolman and Deal (1991a) have suggested that strong orientations in the structural frame are reliable predictors of success as a manager, while strong orientations in the symbolic frame are strong predictors of success as a leader. They have also validated that multi-frame orientation is associated with success in both roles.

Research supports the importance of 360-degree, or multi-rater, assessments such as the Bolman and Deal model. Almost all Fortune 500 companies use or plan to use a form of multi-rater feedback (Chappelow, 2004; Yammarino & Atwater, 1997). Though

acknowledging that problems can exist in the 360-degree approach, most researchers endorse the use of multi-rater assessments as a tool to foster leadership growth and development (Bass, 1985; Bass, 1990; Bass, 2008; Chappelow, 2004; Facteau and Facteau, 1998; Hancock, 1999). Nonetheless, most research studies utilizing the Bolman and Deal framework do not access a 360-degree approach. Many studies examine only self-perceptions (Borden, 2000; McArdle, 2008; Mann Gagliardo, 2006; Miller, 1998; Runkle, 2004; Russell, 2000; Sasnett & Ross, 2007; Sypawka, 2008; Tingey, 1997; and Turley, 2004). The current study employed a 360-degree analysis of leadership perceptions and evaluations of effectiveness, adding a broader perspective to the current literature.

The primary purpose of this study was two-fold: first, to examine and compare community college leaders' perceptions of themselves as leaders with the perceptions voiced by their superiors, colleagues, and subordinates; and second, to determine whether significant differences existed between the views of self and others and to identify the implications of any differences for those in leadership positions. This research will be valuable to community colleges as they attempt to identify new leaders and to assess current ones.

<div align="center">Statement of the Problem</div>

A review of the literature suggested that there is an increasing need for a more situational and transformational approach that will better inform a new leadership style and perspective among community college presidents and upper-level administrators (Bassoppo-Moyo & Townsend, 1997; Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004; Piland & Wolf, 2003). Similarly, the literature showed that there is value

in the use of Bolman and Deal's four frames when determining leadership styles (Beck-Frazier, 2005; Goldman & Smith, 1991; Guidry, 2007; Maitra, 2007; Sullivan, 2001; Sypawka, 2008; Thompson, 2000). Though some studies concentrated on leadership behavior within and orientation to the four frames as an indicator of individual effectiveness (Cantu, 1997; Chang, 2004; Thompson, 2000), research in that area has not been extensive. Moreover, very few studies investigated behavior and orientation as an indicator of team effectiveness. Most of the research centered on certain populations, such as deans, department chairs, vice-presidents, or presidents (Beck-Frazier, 2005; Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Guidry, 2007; Maitra, 2007; Sypawka, 2008). However, scholars have stressed that the millennial generation of college presidents and upper-level administrators should use a team-oriented approach to leadership (Amey, 2004; Goff, 2003; Sullivan, 2001). Therefore, a study examining the relation between the four frames and individual leader effectiveness and the four frames and team performance has great merit.

<div align="center">Research Questions and Hypotheses</div>

This study investigated perceptions of leadership orientation, style, and effectiveness from the perspectives of the individuals being rated and the perspectives of their supervisors, peers, and subordinates. Specifically, it addressed the following questions and tested the corresponding null and alternative hypotheses:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors?

Null Hypothesis (H_{O1}): There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_{A1}): There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors.

H_{O2}: There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership orientation and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors.

H_{A2}: There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership orientation and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors.

H_{O3}: There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors.

H_{A3}: There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors.

2. Is there a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their peers?

$H_{O1:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions expressed by their peers.

$H_{A1:}$ There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions expressed by their peers.

$H_{O2:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership orientation and the perceptions expressed by their peers.

$H_{A2:}$ There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership orientation and the perceptions expressed by their peers.

$H_{O3:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their peers.

$H_{A3:}$ There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their peers.

3. Is there a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates?

$H_{O1:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates.

$H_{A1:}$ There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates.

$H_{O2:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership orientation and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates.

$H_{A2:}$ There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership orientation and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates.

$H_{O3:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates.

$H_{A3:}$ There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates.

<div align="center">Delimitations and Limitations</div>

The primary limitation was the research sample: This study was restricted to one administrative team at one community college in North Carolina; therefore, the results may limit generalization to other settings. A second limitation was the composition of the leadership team: Members represented different levels of the college's administration and

include four vice-presidents, one dean, three associate deans, one interim associate dean, three executive directors, two executive officers, one director, one executive assistant, and one president (non-participant). A delimitation was the use of only two instruments, both by Bolman and Deal: Leadership Orientation Instrument – Self and Leadership Orientation Instrument – Other.

<div style="text-align:center">Definitions</div>

Human Resource Frame: The leadership frame that places the importance of people over the organization, focusing on meeting human needs in order to facilitate accomplishing organizational goals. Human resource leaders direct their efforts to relationship building and empowerment as determinants of the success of the organization.

Leadership Orientation: The tendency for an individual to gravitate towards a particular leadership style or frame.

Leadership Orientation Instrument (LOI): A leadership survey designed by Bolman and Deal to ascertain leadership perceptions of self and others regarding behavior, orientation, and effectiveness.

Leadership Orientation Instrument - Self (LOI-Self): The survey assessing self-perceptions of leadership behavior, orientation, and effectiveness.

Leadership Orientation Instrument - Other (LOI-Other): The survey assessing others' perceptions of one's leadership behavior, orientation, and effectiveness.

Political Frame: The leadership frame that places emphasis on individual and group interests in the competition for scarce resources. Political leaders focus on conflict

and power, functioning as advocates and negotiators who bargain and network for their coalition's agenda.

Structural Frame: The leadership frame that places emphasis on rules, roles, goals, and policies as vital determinants of the efficiency of the organization. Structural leaders focus on data, production, and accountability.

Symbolic Frame: The leadership frame that gives meaning to an ambiguous world through symbolic forms. Symbolic leaders work to create and maintain the organizational culture through symbolism and through inspiring others to adopt a shared sense of community, vision, and mission.

<div align="center">Summary</div>

Research for this study clearly indicated the existence of a leadership crisis, the importance of improved programs designed to train new leaders, and the need for enhanced transformational leadership styles among community college administrators. Chapter One provided an overview of the study and background information concerning leadership, exploring the current leadership crisis in American higher education and relating that crisis to the nation's community colleges. This chapter also provided a synthesis of leadership definitions and a brief profile of leadership theories, including Bolman and Deal's four-frame organizational theory. Additionally, Chapter One summarized the challenges facing community colleges in the millennium and the need for enhanced transformational leadership to meet those challenges. Finally, this initial chapter explained the need for and purpose of the study; described the problem, research questions, and hypotheses being addressed; discussed the study's delimitations and limitations; and listed definitions of terms applicable to the research.

Chapter Two presents an overview of the current leadership crisis and a review of the related literature on leadership theories. Chapter Two explores specifically the tenuous leadership situation from the community college perspective, providing a brief analysis of professional development efforts designed to cultivate leaders in two-year institutions. The review of related literature includes a synopsis of leadership definitions, relying primarily on the interpretations offered by Kouzes and Posner, Bolman and Deal, and Burns. Chapter Two then offers an overview of leadership theories, reflecting their evolution from the 1940's through the present era.   Dominant theorists are highlighted to inform the discussion of trait, behavioral, power and influence, transactional and transformational, contingency, and cultural and symbolic approaches to the study of leadership. Chapter Two concludes with an exploration of Bolman and Deal's four-frame theory of organizational leadership and a review of the research related to that theory.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

The primary purpose of this research was two-fold: First, to compare selected community college administrators' perceptions of their leadership behavior, style, and effectiveness with the perceptions indicated by their supervisors, peers, and direct reports; and second, to examine the implications of any significant differences that may exist between the perspectives of self and others. In support of that purpose, this chapter provides an explanation of the leadership crisis within higher education, with a particular emphasis on the impact of that crisis on the community college. It also provides a review of the relevant literature regarding trait, behavioral, power and influence, transactional and transformational, contingency, and cultural and symbolic theories. Chapter Two concludes with an explanation of Bolman and Deal's four-frame organizational theory and a discussion of community college, community college and university, and university studies exploring the application of that theory.

Leadership Crisis

The leadership crisis in the American community college emanates from three sources: the high number of experienced presidents and other upper-level administrators retiring or planning to retire within the next decade, the lack of qualified personnel to replace those retirements, and the lack of programs designed to prepare future leaders. Working in combination, those sources present serious challenges to the two-year

institution as a viable member of the higher education family. They also exacerbate the turbulent environment in which all higher education institutions currently struggle.

Shults (2001) provided the most alarming analysis of the impact of impending retirements on community college leadership. Shults' report summarized research initiatives, including the American Association of Community College's 2001 Leadership Survey of community college presidents. According to this study, two-year institutions faced a leadership crisis not confined to the level of president but extending to other senior administrators and faculty leaders as well. Specifically, the 2001 survey predicted that 79% of the nation's community college presidents will retire by 2011, taking with them "inestimable experience and history, as well as an intimate understanding of the community college mission, values, and culture … (and) leaving an enormous gap in the collective memory and the leadership of community colleges" (p. 2). Shults also reported that 33% of presidents surveyed expected to lose at least 25% of their senior administrators and 25% of their full-time faculty to retirement by 2006. The departures of those administrators and faculty would diminish the traditional pipeline to the presidency, exacerbating the leadership crisis.

Though differing in their estimations, other studies addressed the impact of impending retirements on community college leadership. Fulton-Calkins and Milling (2005) stated that the mass exodus of leadership would mandate at least 700 new community college presidents and campus heads, 1800 new upper-level administrators, and 30,000 new faculty members within the next few years. Weisman and Vaughn's (2007) Career and Lifestyle Survey of community college presidents compared figures from four previous studies in 1984, 1991, 1996, and 2001 to identify trends in retirement

statistics. Their work indicated that from 1996 to 2006, the percentage of presidents planning to retire increased from 68% to 84%. Additionally, a study of 415 community college presidents conducted by Iowa University reported that 79% of the state's chief administrators would retire by 2012 and 84% by 2016 (Duree, 2008). The Iowa report also emphasized the urgency of developing a new pipeline and new preparation programs for incoming leaders. Finally, Hockaday and Puyear's (2008) research estimated that 50% of the slightly more than 1,200 community college presidents could retire within ten years; however, surveys conducted by the American Association of Community Colleges claim that as much as 84% of the nation's community college presidents could retire by 2018 (Chappell, 2008).

The above retirement predictions have begun to materialize. In a study of leadership program practices, Dembicki (n.d.) stated that "The changing of the guard is already taking place. Since 2001, 80 to 100 community college presidents have come aboard, as well as more than 500 new, senior-level administrators, from academic chiefs to business officers …" (Dembicki, p. na). In an electronic correspondence, Courtney Larson, Research Associate with the American Association of Community Colleges, added that the AACC membership database reflects a consistently higher number of retirements over the last 5 years. Since 2004-2005, the AACC has noticed a sharp increase in administrative retirements of roughly 10% each year, as well as an increase in the number of first-time Chief Executive Officers assuming the CEO position. However, due to budget cuts and staffing constraints, Larson stated that the AACC has not been able to conduct any presidential surveys in the last few years (personal communication, October 13, 2009).

Several researchers have speculated about the impact of future faculty retirements on the leadership crisis in the community college. In their 2001 study of Chief Academic Officers and faculty members, Berry, Hammons, and Denny found that 38% of current full-time faculty plan to retire before age 65 and that 94% (between 25,850 and 30,040 full-time faculty) would retire by 2011. Describing preparation plans to manage the surge in retirements as "meager at best" (p.133), Berry, Hammons, and Denny recommended a significant increase in efforts such as leadership preparation to ensure adequate numbers of new faculty in the future. However, while acknowledging the detrimental effect of a large increase in faculty retirements, other researchers, such as Clery and Lee (2001), Evelyn (2001), and Fleck (2001), also see the future loss of personnel as an opportunity to instill a more student-centered approach to instruction in new faculty.

Many researchers have addressed the importance of valid, theoretically-based leadership preparation programs as critical tools to address the leadership crisis in the community college. Criticizing the traditional avenues of leadership preparation as "disjointed" and "ill suited" for the 21st century (p. 93), Piland and Wolf (2003) emphasized that two-year institutions must take a more proactive role in the development of their future leaders. Specifically, the authors called for community colleges to assume responsibility for the direction of training efforts, identifying leaders from within and creating their own leadership development policies and programs tailored to the needs of aspiring administrators at all levels. Piland and Wolf further suggested that colleges within the same region form leadership development consortia to share resources and give participants experiences in more than one institution.

Vaughn and Weisman (1998), Shults (2001), and Wallin (2002) examined the importance of professional development designed specifically for community college presidents. The three studies surveyed sitting community college presidents to identify the skills that those individuals deemed necessary for success. Vaughn and Weisman's respondents listed the following skills as critical to the presidency: the ability to engage all sectors of the college in the governing process, build consensus, understand technology, tolerate ambiguity, respect multiculturalism, and build coalitions. Though producing similar results, Shults' study placed strong emphasis on the importance of a mentoring program for new presidents; and Wallin's study listed budget management, development of positive relations with local political leaders, and the significance of politics as either important or very important to success as the leader of a community college.

In a later study, Wallin (2006) emphasized the need for leadership programs tailored specifically to mid-level administrators, those vice-presidents, deans, and directors traditionally in line to assume the presidency. Though acknowledging that effective programs do exist, Wallin criticized the lack of consistency in content and quality among many short-term initiatives provided by states, colleges, and professional associations. Her study of 44 individuals participating in a week-long national leadership development program offered new insights into the planning and development of viable short-term programs. Wallin stressed that such programs should focus on identified areas of concern, or problems that current leaders are facing, instead of randomly selected topics. Her own analysis revealed three clear areas of concern: skills orientation, such as conflict management, resource development, and legal issues; relationship orientation,

including mission and vision development, faculty motivation, and team building; and personal orientation, encompassing skills in self-assessment and time management (p. 523). Wallin suggested that all three areas of concern should be included in meaningful short-term leadership development experiences.

Some researchers have been critical of university-based leadership preparation programs (Brown, Martinez, & Daniel, 2002; Brungardt, n.d.). Brown et al. found that though the roles of community college leaders have changed over the last three decades, university programs have failed to restructure to prepare aspiring community college leaders for those new roles. Brown et al. also documented disparity between the skills stressed in graduate programs and those recommended by graduates for inclusion in doctoral study. Such disparity indicated that university-based programs were not allocating the necessary attention to community college leadership preparation. In a similar vein, Brungardt faulted institutions of higher education for adhering to an outdated concept of leadership and organizational behavior centered around the singular leader in an age when collaboration between leader and followers is vital to effectiveness.

Other researchers have described university-based programs as beneficial and necessary to the effort to prepare community college leaders. In *Breaking Tradition,* Amey (2006) described the practices of six new university-based leadership programs designed for the community college. Those programs used flexible scheduling and innovative delivery methods to open access to a wider audience. Additionally, they aligned with the competencies identified by Leading Forward (AACC, 2006) and with the needs of the participating states and of the individual leaders. Duvall (2003) reviewed several innovative programs designed by universities to accommodate the needs of

community college leaders. Those programs included learning communities or cohorts, structured internships, and unique approaches to instruction and the use of technology. Duvall noted that the limited number of such programs specializing in two-year institutions is insufficient to meet the national needs.

In response to the leadership crisis, the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) has initiated several programs to assist both current and future leaders. The AACC renewed its mission statement in 2001 to include leadership as a strategic action area and goal. In March 2001, the AACC Board of Directors invited college presidents, leadership program enrollees, and doctoral program representatives to a Leadership Summit (American Association of Community Colleges, 2001). Summit participants focused on the leadership pipeline, diversity, leader skills and knowledge base, program delivery methods, and partnerships. The Summit concluded with the formation of the AACC Leadership Task Force, which ultimately produced Leadership 2020, a program designed to address the recruitment, preparation, and sustaining support of presidents and upper-level managers. The Task Force formulated the new program to include specific outcomes and strategies for each of those three areas, including construction of a national leadership program database identifying local, state, and regional college leadership programs; the creation of professional development program content that identifies and reinforces the essential characteristics of effective community college leaders; and the establishment of partnerships with a variety of groups to implement meaningful programs (AACC, 2001).

In 2003, with the support of a two-year planning grant from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, the AACC launched a major national initiative entitled *Leading Forward:*

The Community College Opportunity (Bragg, 2004). This program was in direct response to the leadership crisis and was designed to develop consensus on a national leadership development framework, including agreement on the characteristics of effective community college leaders, a national inventory of leadership offerings, and venues for collaboration (Bragg). *Leading Forward* has helped foster at least twenty-three short-term leadership succession programs sponsored by individual states, community colleges, or community college districts (AACC, 2006). However, because these programs exist at various levels and vary greatly in content, length, focus, and intensity, it is difficult to assess their overall effectiveness.

With the support of the Kellogg Foundation, the American Community College Association annually sponsors the Presidents' Academy and the Future Leaders' Institute. The former provides professional renewal for current AACC-member presidents; the latter serves as a leadership seminar for senior level administrators aspiring to the presidency (Amey, 2006). Finally, the AACC oversees the University-Based Community College Leadership Program, a new initiative designed to revitalize the traditional university-based programs by tailoring those programs to working professionals. Essential characteristics of the programs in this new initiative include accessibility, low cost, high quality, mentoring opportunities, and personal reflection and self-assessment activities (Amey).

In 2004, as part of the *Leading Forward Initiative*, the American Association of Community Colleges developed a competency framework for current and future leaders. This framework provides valuable information for individuals and institutions in the areas of specific leadership competencies and professional development. It also can be

used by human resource personnel to guide recruitment, hiring, and rewards. The

AACC's *Competencies for Community College Leaders* is intended to be a " 'living

document,' evolving over time to meet changing human and institutional needs" (AACC,

2005). It includes the following competencies, stating each in terms of what an effective

community college leader does:

1. Organizational Strategy: Improves the quality of the institution, protects the long-term health of the organization, promotes the success of all students, and sustains the community college mission.

2. Resource Management: Equitably and ethically sustains people, processes, and information as well as physical and financial assets to fulfill the community college's mission, vision, and goals.

3. Communication: Uses clear listening, speaking, and writing skills to engage in honest, open dialogue at all levels of the college and its surrounding community, to promote the success of all students and promote the community college mission.

4. Collaboration: Develops and maintains responsive, cooperative, mutually beneficial, and ethical internal and external relationships that nurture diversity, promote the success of all students, and sustain the community college mission.

5. Community College Advocacy: Understands, commits to, and advocates for the mission, vision, and goals of the community college.

6. Professionalism: Works ethically to set high standards for self and others, continuously improves self and surroundings, demonstrates accountability to and

for the institution, and ensures the long-term viability of the college and community.

The AACC Leadership Task Force also developed a list of essential leadership characteristics of effective community college presidents. Those characteristics are as follows:

1. Understanding and Implementing the Community College Mission: Understands and implements the role of the college within the community; develops a strong orientation toward community colleges; creates a student-centered environment; values and promotes diversity; and promotes teaching, learning, and innovation as primary goals for the college.

2. Effective Advocacy: Knows how to work with legislators on matters of concern to the college, is familiar with all aspects of fundraising, and knows how to make effective use of data and research.

3. Administrative Skills: Possesses essential skills in the areas of governance and organization, organizational development, promotion of diversity, assumption of the role of CEO, personnel issues, research and planning, day-to-day management, management of technology, and management of relations with print and electronic media.

4. Community and Economic Development: Develops partnerships in the community with business, industry, and government; develops linkages to high schools and universities; encourages civic engagement by students, staff, and the institution; participates in strategies for community development; and implements workforce development strategies.

5. Personal, Interpersonal, and Transformational Skills: Possesses skills in working with staff to promote the college's vision, mission, and values; maintaining and demonstrating a code of personal ethics; projecting the confidence and competences of a leader; modeling diversity; interviewing and evaluating personnel effectively and fairly; balancing all aspects of the job; managing institutional politics, building coalitions, and forming collaborative relationships; demonstrating flexibility; speaking and writing; and demonstrating self-mastery and operating at the highest level of personal transformation (AACC, 2002).

The eleven competencies listed above reflect the changing nature of leadership within the community college. Today's leaders face challenges more diverse and more complex than leaders have faced in the past, and they must possess the knowledge and interpersonal skills necessary to respond effectively to those challenges. The AACC competencies provide a framework for development of the necessary skills and knowledge and for assessment of performance.

Research validated the existence of a crisis in community college leadership. Caused by the convergence of several forces, that crisis exacerbates the turbulent environment in which all higher education institutions currently struggle and poses a serious threat to the viability of the nation's community colleges. Solutions to such a dilemma reside not in the number but in the quality, commitment, and ability of those individuals assuming leadership roles in the 21st century.

Leadership Definitions

Philosophers and scholars have attempted to define leadership for hundreds of

years, only to fail in their efforts to clearly identify it. Bennis and Nanus (1985) labeled

leadership as the "most studied and least understood topic of any in the social sciences,"

comparing the concept to the mythical Abominable Snowman, "whose footprints are

everywhere but who is nowhere to be seen" (p. 20). Stogdill (1974) noted that though the

term *leader* actually appeared as early as A.D. 1300, "there are almost as many

definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept"

(p. 259). Researchers have described leadership in terms of traits, skills, behaviors,

relationships, interaction patterns, influence, positional factors, power orientation, and

perceptions of effectiveness by self and others (Yukl, 1989). Though their efforts have

added to the confusion concerning the exact nature of leadership, Bass (2008) contends

that representative definitions have been evident throughout the last century. Bass

described those definitions in these terms: impressing the will of the leader on the led

(1920's); organizing people in a specific direction (1930's); possessing the ability to

persuade and direct beyond the effects of power, circumstances, or position (1940's);

using authority granted to the leader to engage in group interactions (1950's); influencing

others to move in a shared direction (1960's); possessing discretionary influence that

varied from one member to another (1970's); inspiring others to take some purposeful

action (1980's); and utilizing the mutual influence of both leaders and followers who

shared a common purpose and a desire to accomplish that purpose (1990's) (p. 15).

McFarland, Senn, and Childress (1993) continued that analysis by characterizing 21st

century leadership according to six themes: Leadership is not confined to one top boss,

facilitates excellence in others, is not synonymous with management, has a humanistic dimension, necessitates a holistic approach, and is the mastery of initiating and implementing change (p. 185).

Regardless of wording, most definitions have focused on the leader as a person, on behavior, and on leadership as a process involving the use of influence during leader-follower interactions (Bass, 2008; Bolman & Deal, 2003; Gardner, 1990; Northouse, 2007; Yukl, 1989). Therefore, the leader as an individual and the leader-follower relationship have become a vital part of defining leadership. In *The Leadership Challenge,* Kouzes and Posner (2002) described leadership as "an art … a means of personal expression" (p. 56) where the individual leader is the instrument of the craft. Furthermore, they also defined leadership as a relationship between those desiring to lead and those willing to be led. In addition, Kouzes and Posner enumerated specific behaviors defining effective leaders and effective leadership: modeling the way for others by clarifying personal values and aligning actions with those values; inspiring and enlisting others in the quest for a shared vision; challenging the process through innovation and risk-taking; enabling others to act through collaboration; and encouraging the heart by recognizing and celebrating others' accomplishments (p. 22).

Cohen and Brawer (2003) reinforced the importance of the leader-follower relationship by noting that effective leadership is a "transaction between people, not a quality or set of traits held by a person who is in a position of authority" (p. 316). Goleman (2006a) also challenged the view of leadership as domination and depicted it instead as the art of persuasion used to facilitate pursuit of common leader-follower goals. Like Kouzes and Posner, Goleman described specific personal qualities and

behaviors associated with defining effective leaders: personal competencies, such as self-awareness and self-management, and social competencies, such as social awareness and relationship management. Those competencies are discussed in detail under leadership theories.

As noted in Chapter One, Burns' (1978) seminal work offered the most comprehensive and authentic definition of leadership. Burns explained that leadership was inseparable from followers' needs and goals and could not be realized through coercion by the leader. He insisted that leadership be defined as leaders influencing followers to pursue goals representative of the desires, needs, and values of both parties. Burns contended that the interaction of people with different levels of motivation and power potential was the heart of the leader-follower relationship and assumed two forms: transactional and transformational. The former entailed the exchange of valued things for the benefit of both parties; the latter, however, involved a relationship between leader and follower in which each elevates the other to a higher level of motivation and morality. In such a relationship, both the leader and the led are transformed. The economic, social, and political climates existing today call for leaders who are capable of practicing and modeling transformational leadership. Bolman and Deal's four-frame model provides a viable tool for those seeking to transform themselves into effective leaders and their institutions into effective places for productive work and learning.

Leadership Theories

The predominance of leadership theories concentrated on the personal characteristics and abilities of leaders until the late 1940's. From that time until the late 1960's, research focused on the personal styles of leaders; and during the next two

decades, research emphasized leaders' traits, followers' traits, and situational factors. The early 1980's saw the emergence of inspirational and transformational theories, which have remained prominent topics in leadership research (Bass, 2008).

Trait Theory

One of the earliest approaches to the study of leadership in the 20th century, trait theory purported that leadership was a natural ability, emanating from specific inherent personal attributes. Early research efforts were devoted to the discovery of those traits essential for leadership effectiveness and typically focused on physical characteristics (age, height, and appearance), ability (general intelligence, verbal fluency, knowledge cognitive complexity, and social insight), personality (self-esteem, initiative, and emotional stability), and social background (education and socioeconomic status) (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p. 8). Because they concentrated on identifying the innate qualities and characteristics displayed by great military, social, and political leaders, resulting theories were labeled " 'great man' " theories (Northouse, 2007, p. 15).

Scholars began to challenge the universality of leadership traits around the middle of the 20th century (Bass, 1990; Bensimon et al.,1989; Northouse, 2007; Yukl, 1989). Stogdill's (1948) review of leadership research, which examined the results of 124 trait studies from 1904-1948, both supported and questioned the original assumption inherent in the great man theories. In his review, Stogdill found that certain traits repeatedly differentiated leaders from non-leaders. His results determined that those perceived as leaders exceeded the average person in the following respects: intelligence, scholarship, dependability, activity and social participation, socioeconomic status, sociability,

initiative, persistence, self-confidence, knowing how to get things done, adaptability,

cooperativeness, and verbal facility. However, Stogdill also concluded that though traits

did differentiate between leaders and non-leaders, the patterns of leadership traits were

not consistent and varied notably from situation to situation:

> 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. Thus, leadership must be conceived in terms of the interaction of variables which are in constant flux (p.64).

Stogdill's (1974) subsequent review consisted of more studies involving

managers and administrators and utilized a wider variety of measurement procedures. In

that review, Stogdill analyzed 163 additional studies compiled between 1948 and 1970,

discovering ten traits positively associated with successful leadership: drive for

responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuing goals, originality in

problem solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense

of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decisions and actions,

readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration, ability to

influence others' behavior, and capacity to structure social interactions systems

(Northouse, 2000). However, Stogdill did not envision leadership as dependent upon a

set of qualities possessed by select individuals but as a relationship between people in a

social situation. His implication that leaders must possess traits relevant to the particular

situation marked the beginning of a new approach to leadership research (Northouse,

2000).

In the last thirty years, the trait approach has received increased attention among

several scholars. In his study of the relationship between personality and performance in

small groups, Mann (1959) identified leaders as strong in the traits of intelligence, adjustment, extraversion, dominance, masculinity, and conservatism (p. 243). Mann concluded, therefore, that personality traits could distinguish leaders from non-leaders. In their 1986 meta-analysis, Lord, DeVader, and Alliger re-evaluated the Stogdill and Mann studies and noted that intelligence, masculinity, and dominance were significantly related to leadership perceptions. Lord et al. found that dominance and masculinity-femininity had statistically significant (non-zero) relations with leadership emergence, or whether one is viewed as a leader by others who have limited information about his performance. Lord et al. also determined that personality traits could be used to differentiate leaders from non-leaders across situations.

The work of Goldberg (1990) and McCrae and Costa (1987) validated the basic factors, or Big Five, which comprise human personality: neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Neuroticism is defined as the extent to which people tend to experience distress, nervousness, and insecurity; extraversion, the extent of assertiveness and enthusiasm. Openness to experience refers to the degree of imagination and intellect, while agreeableness signals the degree of sympathy, trust, affiliation, and cooperation. Finally, conscientiousness means the extent of dependability, perseverance, efficiency, and need to achieve (Bass, 2008, pp. 120-121). Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt (2002) performed a meta-analysis of 78 personality and leadership studies and found a strong relationship between the Big Five traits and leadership. Their analysis indicated that extraversion, openness, and conscientiousness were positively related to both leadership emergence and effectiveness but that neuroticism and agreeableness were negatively related.

Gardner (1990) reinforced the relationship of traits to effective leadership, noting that that relationship varies with the situation. After a five-year study of leaders and organizations, Gardner comprised the following list of attributes positively related to effective leadership: physical vitality and stamina, intelligence and judgment-in-action, willingness to accept responsibilities, task competence, understanding of followers and their needs, skill in dealing with people, need to achieve, capacity to motivate, courage and resolution, trustworthiness, decisiveness, confidence, assertiveness, and adaptability (pp. 48-53). Although asserting that the preceding list was not an all-inclusive one, Gardner ranked the above qualities as among the most important for effective leadership. However, he was also careful to point out that "the attributes required of a leader depend on the kind of leadership being exercised, the context, [and] the nature of the followers" (p. 53).

The concept of emotional intelligence emerged in the 1990's as yet another research avenue examining the impact of traits on leadership. Though its inception has been attributed to Salovey and Mayer (1990), emotional intelligence has been associated more often with the work of Goleman (2006a, 2006b). Salovey and Mayer defined emotional intelligence as "the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in self and others" (p. 189). The researchers enumerated four domains: perception and expression of emotions, integration of emotions into thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Goleman (2006a) defined the concept as one's capacity for recognizing personal feelings and the feelings of others, for self-motivating, and for managing emotions in relationships with others. Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee

(2004) adapted the Mayer-Salovey model to include four domains and eighteen associated competencies. Those four domains consist of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. The first two domains address the critical areas of emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, self-confidence, and self-control. They include such crucial qualities as transparency, achievement, initiative, adaptability, and optimism. The latter two domains address social competence and include the traits and abilities necessary to understand and manage relationships: empathy, organizational awareness, inspirational leadership, conflict management, collaboration, and development of others (p. 39). Goleman et al. postulated that one's emotional intelligence in the above areas positively impacted his effectiveness as a leader, making him more capable of understanding himself and others, resolving conflicts, facilitating individual and organizational growth, and inspiring followers to achieve the goals of the organization.

Early trait research efforts focused on identifying the personality characteristics and abilities of effective leaders. However, those efforts did not produce a definitive list of leadership traits, nor did they adequately consider situational effects (Northouse, 2000). Recent studies have produced more positive results. After two decades of gathering data, Kouzes and Posner (2002) identified honesty, forward-looking, competent, and inspiring as the four most admired traits describing persons perceived and accepted as leaders. Yukl (1989) concluded that some personality characteristics, such as self-confidence, energy level, emotional stability, initiative, stress tolerance, and lack of defensiveness, were relevant to leadership effectiveness. Bennis (2009) summarized the basic ingredients of leaders as guiding vision, passion, integrity, trust, curiosity, and

daring. To Bennis, just as leaders are not born but made, those ingredients are not innate but can and should be cultivated. The primary consensus of modern scholars still relies on a combination of traits relative to the particular situation as a determinant of leadership effectiveness (Bolman & Deal, 1991b; Thompson, 2000).

Trait theory continues to shape the concept of effective leadership in higher education (Bensimon et al., 1989). Numerous studies have investigated the personal attributes of successful college presidents and other senior level administrators (AACC, 2002; Bassoppo-Moyo & Townsend, 1997; Bensimon, 1987; Borger, 2007; Corrigan, 2001; Fulton-Calkins & Milling, 2005; Goff, 2002, 2003; Hockaday & Puyear, 2008; Roueche & Roueche, n.d.; Sullivan, 2001; Wallin, 2007; Weisman & Vaughn, 2007). Though such studies have not produced a universally accepted list of personal characteristics or abilities inherent in effective leadership in higher education, many institutions still rely on the presence of certain traits to guide their selection of administrative and academic leaders.

Behavioral Theory

A second approach to leadership focused not on personal characteristics but on the behavior patterns of leaders (Bass, 2008; Bensimon, Neumann,& Birnbaum, 1989; Yukl, 1989). Studies examined the effects of leader behavior on group performance through self-reporting, observation, critical incident analysis, and questionnaires (Bensimon et al., 1989). The most prominent research in behavioral theory emanated from the Ohio State University studies conducted in the 1940's to identify effective leadership behavior (Bass, 2008; Beck-Frasier, 2005; Bensimon, et al., 1989; Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2001; Yukl, 1989). Participants, who were military and civilian

personnel, completed a questionnaire asking them to describe the behavior of their supervisors. The data revealed two categories of behavior, consideration and initiating structure. Consideration indicated the degree to which the leader acted in a friendly and supportive manner and showed concern for subordinates and their welfare. Initiating structure indicated the degree to which the leader defined and structured his role as well as the roles and tasks of his subordinates toward achieving the group's goals (Bass, 2008; Yukl, 1989). Each category was found to be relatively independent and distinct: Some leaders scored high on initiating structure and low on consideration; others scored high on both or low on both. Therefore, a low score in one dimension did not indicate a low score in another. Dividing each orientation into a high and low section created four quadrants of leadership styles. An individual's behavior could be described as any mix of both dimensions within those quadrants (Hersey et al., 2001). The Ohio State Leadership Quadrants were delineated as low structure and low consideration, high structure and low consideration, high consideration and low structure, and high structure and high consideration (Hersey et al., p. 94).

Substantial research on leadership behavior was also conducted at the University of Michigan beginning in 1945. These studies focused on the identification of relationships among leader behavior and group performance, using objective measures of group productivity to determine managerial effectiveness (Yukl, 1989). The results determined that three types of leadership behavior distinguish effective from ineffective managers: task-oriented behavior, relationship-oriented behavior, and participative leadership. The task-oriented behaviors deemed significant in the Michigan studies were similar to the initiating structure dimension in the Ohio State research; the relationship-

oriented behaviors in the former study were similar to the consideration dimension in the

latter (Yukl). The actions of effective task-oriented managers included guiding

subordinates in setting realistic performance goals, providing materials and assistance as

necessary, and coordinating activities. Effective relationship-oriented managers were

considerate and supportive of subordinates and avoided close supervision. Relationship-

oriented behaviors specifically correlated with effective leadership included

demonstrating trust, developing employees, and providing autonomy. Finally, effective

participative leadership behaviors consisted of involving subordinates in decision-making

and activities, guiding discussion sessions, and promoting active problem solving. The

Michigan studies found that such behavior resulted in higher satisfaction and

performance among subordinates (Yukl).

Blake and Mouton's (1964) *Managerial Grid* emerged as a meaningful and

influential application of the behavioral approach as seen in the Ohio State and Michigan

studies. Blake and Mouton contended that the best way to achieve effective leadership

was through the integration of task and relations orientations (Bass, 2008). Their basic

premise was that managers and leaders vary from one to nine in their concern for people

(relationship-oriented) and from one to nine in their concern for production (task-

oriented). Individuals' assumptions and beliefs about management were measured along

a horizontal axis (concern for people) and vertical axis (concern for production). The two

resulting scores indicated one of five leadership styles on the grid:

> 1, 1 - Impoverished Management: Exertion of minimum effort to get work done is
> appropriate to sustain membership;
> 1, 9 - Country Club Management: Thoughtful attention to the needs of people for
> satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable, friendly organization atmosphere;

9, 1 - Authority-Obedience Management: Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree;

5, 5 - Organizational Management: Adequate organizational performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get work done while maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level;

9, 9 - Team Management; Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organizational purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect (Blake & McCanse, 1991, p. 29).

According to the managerial grid, the most effective leaders were those placing in the "9, 9" category because they have high concern for both people and production (Blake & McCanse, p. 29). This assertion that there is a one best way to lead has received much criticism because it negates the importance of other factors, such as the situational environment, participant qualities, and nature of the task to be accomplished (Bensimon et al., 1989). Additionally, as Hersey et al. (2001), Yukl (1989), and Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991a, 1991b, 2003) note, research in the last twenty years has suggested that assertion is incorrect. Good leaders are able to adjust their style based on the requirements inherent in each situation, and they are attuned to both tasks and relationships. Bolman and Deal (2003) support this premise and emphasize that leaders must consider factors within each of the structural, political, human resource, and symbolic frames if they are to be effective. Citing that the grid model focuses almost entirely on issues of task and human resources, Bolman and Deal contend that "…if the structure is unmanageable, political conflict is devastating, or the organization's culture is thin, this grid model may have little to offer" (p. 341).

In their 1989 article on leadership in higher education, Bensimon et al. assessed the usefulness of behavioral theories in determining leadership effectiveness as "problematic" (p. 14). Citing the failure of such theories to produce definitive

conclusions on the role of behavior, Bensimon and her colleagues explained that it is easy to label certain behaviors as effective once the desired outcomes are achieved but more difficult to select beforehand the behaviors that will produce those outcomes (p. 14). Their conclusions are still prominent among many researchers today.

Power and Influence Theory

Power and influence theories focused on how effective leaders use power in their attempts to influence others and oversee the work of their organizations. Research traditionally divided these theories into two orientations, social power and social exchange. Social power evaluated how leaders influence followers; social exchange stressed the relationship resulting from the reciprocal influence exerted by leaders and followers (Bensimon et al., 1990).

French and Raven (1959) listed five types of social power that leaders use to influence others: legitimate power, influencing others by the legal authority inherent in one's office; reward power, influencing others by providing rewards; coercive power, influencing others by exercising threats or punishment; expert power, influencing others through perceived expertise; and referent power, influencing others through the lure of charisma. Most studies of power usage found that expert and referent power were positively correlated with subordinate satisfaction and performance, while legitimate power showed no correlation with performance, and coercive power was negatively correlated. Findings on reward power were inconsistent (Bensimon et al., 1989). These results indicate that effective, rather than ineffective, leaders rely more on expert and referent power to influence subordinates (Yukl, 1989).

The social exchange orientation stressed the two-way, mutual influence between leaders and followers. In these reciprocal relationships, leaders provide needed services to a group in exchange for the group's compliance, approval, or assistance with leaders' demands. Therefore, in social exchange, leadership is a two-way process in which leaders and followers repeatedly interact and influence each other for the attainment of mutually agreed upon goals. In exchange for the benefits or rewards offered by the leader, subordinates agree to accept the leader's authority and relinquish a degree of their autonomy (Bensimon et al.,1989). In doing so, subordinates perceive their leader as influential if that individual meets their expectations.

In *The Situational Leader,* Hersey (1984) pointed out that power is not synonymous with leadership, or the attempt to influence another individual or group; rather, power is "influence potential," or the resource enabling a leader to gain the commitment or compliance of followers (p. 77). Therefore, to be effective, leaders must understand power, know how to use it, and know how to adapt its use to particular situations and to followers' needs and expectations. Hollander (2008) extended this point to emphasize that a leader's power depends upon followers: "Whatever power is imputed to a leader, actualizing it depends on its perception by followers. Power becomes real when others perceive it to be so and respond accordingly" (p. 14). Burns (1978) also described leadership and power as a two-way relationship, emphasizing that power must be analyzed in the context of human motives and resources. According to Burns, power resides within everyone; however, without the motive or the means to use it, the concept has no substance or meaning.

Yukl (1989) interpreted influence in its simplest form as the effect of one party, the agent, on another party, the target. He reinforced the importance of considering the reactions of followers to a leader's attempt at influence, stating that success was measured by the degree of commitment, compliance, and resistance. Commitment was the desired goal because it indicated that the target person agreed with the agent's decision or request and made great effort to carry it out. Compliance was less desirable, indicating that the target was willing to fulfill the leader's request but made only minimal effort to follow through. Compliant followers have been influenced by the target's behavior but not by his or her attitude. Finally, resistance reflected the least desirable reaction, evident in the target's active opposition to the task (Yukl, p. 13). Yukl's conclusions support the basic premise that the essence of leadership lies not in the power of the leader but in the mutual influence of both leader and followers. He classified that mutual influence into four types of power relationships: downward power of leader over subordinates, upward power of subordinates over leader, upward power of leader over superiors, and lateral power of leader over others in the organization (p. 15). Those relationships substantially impact the effectiveness of the leader.

Transactional and Transformational Theory

In his book *Leadership,* Burns (1978) classified the leader-follower relationship within the power and influence approach in terms of transactional or transforming leadership. In transactional leadership, the leader-follower relationship is based on an "exchange of valued things" that may be political, economic, or psychological in nature (p. 19). Leaders motivate followers to engage in the transaction by appealing to their self-interests, and each party is aware of the other's power resources and attitudes. Once the

bargaining process has been concluded and all parties are satisfied, the leader-follower relationship may also end. In contrast, transforming leadership occurs "when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (p. 20). The purposes and power bases of leader and followers become more closely united than in transactional situations. The transforming leader is more attentive to the needs and motives of followers and more concerned with helping them develop to their fullest potential. Burns explains that transforming leadership "ultimately becomes moral in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both leader and led, … transforming … both" (p. 20). As Gardner (1990) explains, "Transactional leadership accepts and works within the structure as it is. Transformational leadership renews" (p. 122). Bolman and Deal (2003) contend that transforming leaders, whose leadership is visionary and inherently symbolic, are more rare than commonplace.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) studied ninety top leaders from the government, education, business, and cultural arts sectors to develop a profile of transformational leadership. They discovered four strategies common among those outstanding leaders: attention through vision (establishing an agenda, focusing on results, and attending to the transaction between leader and follower), meaning through communication (interpreting reality and articulating meanings through symbols, metaphors, and images), trust through positioning (demonstrating accountability, integrity, and reliability to implement the leader's vision), and deployment of self through positive self-regard (recognizing one's strengths, addressing one's weaknesses, and focusing on succeeding) (pp. 26-27). The

leaders studied by Bennis and Nanus had used the above strategies to direct new trends and transform the basic culture of their organizations.

In contrast to Burns' (1978) theory emphasizing the leader-follower interactive relationship, Bass (1985) focused on the leader's effect on followers to define transformational leadership. Bass viewed the transformational leader as one who motivates followers to do more than originally expected by utilizing any one of three interrelated approaches: by raising subordinates' level of awareness about the importance and value of designated outcomes, by getting subordinates to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the team or organization, and by altering subordinates' need level on Maslow's hierarchy or expanding their portfolio of needs and wants (p. 20). Though similar in their definition of transformational leaders, Bass and Burns differed in one major aspect: Where Burns limits such leaders to enlightened individuals who appeal to positive moral values and higher-order needs of followers, Bass extends the concept to include anyone who motivates followers and increases their commitment (Yukl, 1989). To Burns, leaders such as Adolph Hitler were not transformational; instead, they were brutal tyrants because of their appeal to lower-level needs and their negative effects on followers. Bass, however, acknowledged such evil figureheads as transformational because of their ability to motivate followers in implementing social and cultural change, regardless of the negative effects of such change.

Charismatic leadership, another type of transformational leadership, emerged in the 1980's (Bass, 2008; House, 1976; Northouse, 2004; Yukl, 1989). Weber (1947) first applied the term *charisma* to the social sciences to describe leaders perceived as being "endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or

qualities" (pp. 241-242). In formulating a theory of the concept, House explained that

leaders possessing charisma have a profound influence on their followers, commanding a

loyalty and devotion that transcend the individual follower's self-interest (p. 4). House

determined that the extent of a leader's charisma depended on certain variables among

followers, such as trust in and identity with the leader's beliefs, the similarity between

follower and leader beliefs, unquestioning acceptance of and affection for the leader,

willing obedience, emotional involvement in the organizational mission, heightened

performance goals, and belief in ability to contribute to the mission (p. 7). Charismatic

leaders were transformational in the sense that they effected radical change through the

juxtaposition of their own values against those of the established order. Personal

characteristics of such leaders included extremely high levels of self-confidence,

dominance, and a strong sense of the moral righteousness of their beliefs (p. 10).

Behaviors common among charismatic leaders consisted of role modeling, articulating

transcendent goals, and exhibiting high expectations and confidence.

Conger and Kanungo's (1987) theory of charismatic leadership viewed charisma

as an "attributional phenomenon" where followers attribute charismatic qualities to a

leader based on their observations of the individual's behavior (p. 639). Conger and

Kanungo's charismatic leaders possess an idealized vision that openly challenges the

status quo, are willing to take high personal risks, display unconventional behavior and

use unconventional means to bring about change, demonstrate extreme self-confidence,

and utilize referent and expert power to transform their institutions and society (p. 641;

Yukl, 1989, pp. 208-209).

Though supported as a viable theory, charismatic leadership in practice has been subject to criticism (Bass, 2008; Yukl, 1989). Bass argued that charisma is necessary for transformational leadership but by itself fails to account for the transformational process (p. 31). Yukl cautioned against the "dark side" of charisma (p. 226). Charismatic leaders are more likely to emerge during a crisis in which followers are dissatisfied with the status quo and seek quick resolution to social and political issues. The same charismatic qualities that lured many people to follow the positive leadership of Franklin Roosevelt, Mohandas Gandhi, and Martin Luther King, Jr., also lured many others to emulate the negative influence of Adolph Hitler, the Reverend Jim Jones, and Benito Mussolini. Charisma can be a dangerous quality in the personality of a leader with less than admirable motives. Instead of transforming people and organizations to a higher level for the common good, the dark side of charisma is a toxic magnetism inducing a "sleeping sickness of the soul" (Bolman & Deal, 2001. p. 40).

Contingency Theory

The contingency approach to leadership stresses the importance of situational factors in determining leadership effectiveness, assuming that the traits and behaviors necessary for effectiveness are contingent on the particular situation (Bensimon et al., 1989). Emphasizing the role of factors such as the nature of the task, the nature of the environment, the quality of leader-follower relations, and the degree of follower maturity (Bensimon et al.; Birnbaum, 1987), contingency theory refutes the concept that there is one best way to lead. Rather, as Northouse (2007) notes, the contingency approach attempts to match the leader to the situation.

Fiedler's (1967) Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) contingency model is the most widely recognized example of contingency theory (Northouse, 2007). Fiedler's theory postulated two leadership styles: task-oriented, or concerned with attaining goals; and relationship-motivated, or concerned with developing close interpersonal relations (Fiedler). To predict leadership effectiveness, Fiedler designed a trait measure called the Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) scale. Leaders rated their least preferred coworker on a set of bipolar adjective scales; LPC scores revealed the respondent's style preference, with high scores indicating the respondent to be relationship-oriented and low scores, task-oriented. The results were explained in terms of favorableness of the situation, which Fiedler defined as "the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert influence over his group" (p. 13). Situational favorability (situational control) was defined in terms of leader-member relations (supportive or non-supportive), position power (high or low), and task structure (clear or ambiguous) (Bensimon et al., 1989; Fiedler; Northouse; Yukl, 1989). The results suggested while the task-oriented style was more effective in group situations which were either very favorable or very unfavorable for the leader, the relationship-oriented style was more effective in situations which were intermediate in favorableness (Fiedler, p. 13). From his research, Fiedler concluded that if leaders could be made aware of their strengths and weaknesses and ways to improve, they could alter situations to match them with their leadership styles, avoid those incompatible with their preferences, and pursue those in which they were most likely to succeed (p. 259). Effective leadership, then, would not depend upon changing the leader's style but upon placing the leader in a position suitable to his or her style or altering situations to align with the individual's strengths (Bensimon et al.).

Fiedler later expanded his contingency model by adding the factors of (a) leader intelligence and (b) leader competence and experience (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). Known as cognitive resource theory (CRT), Fiedler and Garcia's new approach explored the relationship between those two factors and effective leadership, examining the conditions under which cognitive resources impacted group performance (Yukl, 1989). Fiedler and Garcia concluded that factors such as the amount of group support, the degree of stress, the leader's directive or non-directive orientation, and the leader's task or relationship orientation altered the influence of intelligence and experience on effectiveness. Group performance was also affected by leader and group intelligence. Leaders with high ability levels would be more effective in situations in which the group's ability negatively correlates with performance. In situations in which both leader and group demonstrate high ability levels, competition may ensue, inhibiting group performance (Bensimon et al., 1989).

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) and Vroom and Yetton (1973) produced important research examining the importance of the decision-making process within the context of the situation. Tannenbaum and Schmidt developed a continuum depicting leadership behavior as completely autocratic or directive ("boss-centered leadership") to completely democratic or participative ("subordinate-centered leadership") (p. 96). The range of behavior related to the degree of authority utilized by the leader and the amount of freedom available to subordinates within the decision-making process. At the extreme end of boss-centered leadership, mangers make decisions without explanation, expect compliance, and allow minimal follower participation. At the other extreme of subordinate-centered leadership, managers may give participants compete authority to

make decisions. Three factors determine the leader's choice of decision-making strategies: forces in the leader (value system, confidence in subordinates, personal leadership inclinations, and feelings of insecurity in uncertain situations), in the subordinates (need for independence, readiness to assume responsibility, tolerance for ambiguity, interest in and value of the problem and organizational goals, knowledge of the problem, and expectations of involvement), and in the situation (type of organization, group effectiveness, nature of the problem, and time for decision-making) (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, pp. 99-100).

Vroom and Yetton (1973) expanded the Tannenbaum-Schmidt model to specify the decision-making process according to particular situations. Vroom and Yetton analyzed the effect of the leader's behavior in decision-making on the quality of the decision and on subordinates' acceptance of the decision. Their basic assumption was that participation increases both decision acceptance and quality. The Vroom-Yetton normative model consisted of a continuum revealing five decision-making styles: two types of autocratic decision, two types of consultation, and one type of joint decision-making by leader and subordinates as a group. Situational factors determined the effectiveness of a decision-making process: the amount of information known to leader and subordinates, the probability of subordinate acceptance of an autocratic decision, the probability of subordinate cooperation if allowed participation, the degree of disagreement among subordinates concerning preferences, and the degree of creative problem solving required.

To explain the influence of leader behavior on subordinate satisfaction and performance, House (1971, 1996) developed the path-goal theory of leadership. House

(1971) interpreted the leader's motivational function as "increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for a work-goal attainment and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route" (p. 324). The original version of the path-goal theory classified leader behavior in only two categories: path-goal clarifying behavior and behavior focused on satisfying subordinate needs. Later, House and Mitchell (1974) refined those behaviors to include four types of leadership: directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented. Directive leaders clearly explain the task expectations and provide specific guidance; supportive leaders demonstrate concern for employee welfare and create a friendly climate; participative leaders consult with subordinates and take into account their opinions in decision-making; achievement-oriented leaders promote goal attainment, improvement, and excellence (House, 1996, pp. 326-327). The style chosen by the leader is contingent upon the situational factors of task characteristics and subordinate characteristics. For example, if tasks are stressful and subordinates are not self-confident, the supportive leadership style would be more appropriate. Similarly, situations in which inexperienced subordinates are confronted with a complex task would call for directive leadership (Yukl, 1989). Achievement-oriented leadership would be appropriate in situations where both leader and subordinates have high expectations and are confronted with challenging and complex tasks (Northouse, 2007). Though the path-goal theory provides a useful theoretical framework, approaches motivation in a unique way, and provides a practical model for leaders, it has been criticized for its complexity and for its implication that leadership is a "one-way event" emphasizing the leader's effect on subordinates (Northouse). House (1996)

acknowledged some of the shortcomings of his original theory and developed an

extensive list of propositions to reformulate his approach. House's reformulation suggests

an extension of the complexity inherent in his 1976 theory and does not merit discussion

in the context of this research.

A final contingency theory that does merit consideration is Hersey's situational

leadership theory (Hersey, 1984; Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2001). Hersey defined

leadership style as the "patterns of behavior (words and actions) of the leader *as*

perceived by others" (1984, p. 27) and classified leadership behaviors as oriented in tasks

and relationships. Task-oriented behavior denoted the extent to which the leader engaged

in delineating the duties of others; relationship-oriented behavior, the extent to which the

leader engaged in two-way or multi-way communication with and provided support to

subordinates (pp. 31-32). Effective leaders displayed concern for both task completion

and relationship development.

The readiness (Hersey, 1984) or maturity (Hersey et al., 2001) of followers

served as a moderating variable in Hersey's situational leadership model. Readiness was

evaluated on two levels: ability, indicating the degree of task-relevant skills and

knowledge; and willingness, indicating the degree of self-confidence, commitment, and

motivation (p. 46). Hersey's analysis produced four levels of follower readiness based on

ability and willingness. Table 1 indicates follower readiness levels (R1 – R4) and

characteristics:

Table 1

Hersey's Readiness Levels of Followers

Readiness Level	Follower Characteristics
R1	Unable and unwilling (low ability, commitment, and motivation);
R1	Unable and insecure (low ability, low confidence).
R2	Unable but willing (low ability but motivated and showing effort);
R2	Unable but confident (low ability but confident under leader's guidance).
R3	Able but unwilling (ability but lack of motivation);
R3	Able but insecure (ability but apprehensive).
R4	Able and willing (ability and desire to do the job);
R4	Able and confident (ability and confident about performance).

Adapted from Hersey, 1984

Hersey purported that leadership style depends upon follower readiness. As followers' ability and willingness levels vary, effective leaders adapt their style to match the degree of readiness for the task at hand. Hersey's model of situational leadership reflects the alignment of four leadership styles to accommodate follower readiness levels. The leadership styles necessary to address each level of follower readiness are shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Hersey's Leadership Styles and Follower Readiness Levels

Leader Style	Type	Follower Readiness Level	
S1	Telling	R1	Low readiness
S2	Selling	R2	Low to moderate readiness
S3	Participating	R3	Moderate to high readiness

S4	Delegating	R4	High readiness

Adapted from Hersey, 1984

Each of Hersey's leadership styles reflects the amount of task and relationship behavior required to address effectively the situation. For instance, style S1 (Telling) is characterized by a high degree of task (directive) behavior but a low degree of relationship (supportive) behavior in response to followers' generally high level of insecurity. Style S2 (Selling) necessitates a high degree of both task and relationship behavior to accommodate followers who are confident but need structure and guidance. To assist followers who are capable but insecure, leaders utilize style S3 (Participating), which depicts a high relationship, low task approach. Finally, in dealing with followers who are capable and willing or confident, leaders choose style S4 (Delegating), which permits a low degree of both task and relationship behaviors (Hersey et al., 2001).

Although finding value in contingency / situational leadership theories, Bolman and Deal (2003) criticize such theories for their limited conceptualization of leadership. Bolman and Deal contend that most contingency theories do not distinguish between leadership and management, treating both concepts as synonymous with manager-subordinate relationships; lack empirical support; and fail to address situational factors such as structure, politics, or symbols (p. 342-344). Bass (2008), Northouse (2007), and Yukl (1989) also cite the lack of empirical support as a weakness inherent in situational theories. Finally, Bensimon et al. (1989) suggest that because many situational approaches have been limited to organizational settings with clearly defined supervisor – subordinate roles, application to the higher education arena can be limited.

Cultural and Symbolic Theories

Cultural and symbolic approaches represent a change of venue in leadership and organizational theory. Prior theories placed leaders in a rational, predictable world in which processes, people, and structure could be analyzed and made more effective (Bensimon et al., 1989). However, cultural and symbolic theories envision leaders designing the necessary structures and processes to bring rationality and meaning to their environment. In essence, leaders are charged with creating, influencing, and managing the culture of their organizations through their interactions with others and through the mutual development of shared assumptions.

According to Schein (1993), organizational culture can be defined in terms of the pattern of those basic assumptions that have worked well enough to be considered valid and to be taught to new members as the "correct way to perceive, think, and feel" (p. 365). Culture becomes evident in the symbols, rituals, myths, and stories that give meaning to and reflect the values and beliefs of the organization (Bensimon et al., 1989). Schein contends that the concepts of leadership and culture are so closely interrelated that neither can be understood in isolation. Leaders create cultures, which in turn establish the criteria for leadership. However, the leader is responsible for protecting and preserving the organization's culture and those who participate in it: "… if the group's survival is threatened because elements of its culture have become maladapted, it is ultimately the function of the leader to recognize and do something about the situation" (p. 361).

The conclusions apparent in a 1985 study of successful leaders by Bennis and Nanus reinforce the significance of the cultural and symbolic approach. Bennis and Nanus noted two important findings from the experiences of their subjects: (1) Since all

organizations depend upon the existence of shared meanings and interpretations of reality, an essential factor in leadership is the capacity to influence and organize meaning; and (2) Because the process through which leaders convey and shape meaning varies greatly, leaders must help participants develop common interpretations of reality (pp. 39-40). Those two findings support the primary role of the leader within the cultural and symbolic approach --- the "management of meaning" through the articulation and influence of cultural norms and values (Bensimon et al., 1989, p. 21).

The development of shared visions is critical to symbolic leadership (Bennis, 2009; Bolman & Deal, 2003; Senge, 1990). Bennis lists the ability to develop a vision and persuade others to adopt it as their own as one of four essential competencies of effective leadership. Bolman and Deal emphasize the importance of shared vision as a way of addressing both the challenges of the present and the hopes for the future, stressing that it is particularly crucial in times of crisis and ambiguity. Finally, Senge depicts the essence of shared vision as "a force in people's hearts, a force of impressive power" derived from a "common caring" (p. 192). Under the direction of effective leaders and committed followers, shared visions can transform people and organizations.

The cultural and symbolic approach to leadership is especially applicable within the higher education arena in today's society. The unprecedented economic crisis calls for presidents and senior-level administrators who possess the interpersonal skills necessary to help faculty and staff endure the uncertainty that is common on most campuses and the vision necessary to navigate their institutions to a more secure future. Bolman and Deal (2006) call such leaders "wizards" whose world is the "realm of

possibility" and whose tools are "values, icons, rituals, ceremonies, and stories that weave day-to-day details of life together in a meaningful symbolic tapestry" (p. 3).

Bolman and Deal's Four-Frame Organizational Theory

To provide a more concrete understanding of organizations, as well as the practices of those who manage and lead them, Bolman and Deal (1984) synthesized the major schools of organizational theory into four perspectives, or frames: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic. Bolman and Deal define the term *frame* as a window, or image, through which individuals view the organization. Acting also as "preconditioned lenses and filters" (1991a), frames affect leaders' perceptions, determining how they define situations, gather and process information, determine courses of action, and make judgments. Additionally, frames function as tools for navigating the organization, its problems, its climate, and its culture. Since organizations are complex, unpredictable, multi-faceted entities, a single-frame perspective is not a feasible approach to management or leadership. Each frame has both strengths and limitations, is grounded in various theoretical assumptions, and should be applied in the context of the situation. Bolman and Deal caution against utilizing "myopic management" (2003, p. 18), stressing that it is important for leaders to know how to multi-frame, or use all four frames, to increase effectiveness.

Structural frame. The structural frame emphasizes the "social architecture" and design of the organization (Bolman and Deal, 2003, p. 18). Derived from the principles of scientific management and Weberian bureaucracy (1984), the structural frame is based on these assumptions: (a) Organizations exist to achieve established goals; (b) Specialization and a clear division of labor increase efficiency and improve performance; (c) An

appropriate level of coordination and control are necessary to ensure productivity; (d) Organizations function best when rationality prevails over personal preferences and external pressures; (e) Structures must be designed to fit an organization's circumstances, including its goals, technology, workforce, and environment; and (f) Problems are the result of structural deficiencies and can be resolved through restructuring (2003, p. 45). Difficulties arise within this frame when the structure of an organization does not align with the situation, when the leader exercises too little or too much control, or when the efforts to allocate work (differentiation) and to coordinate resulting roles (integration) conflict or are not productive. Since division of labor is the cornerstone of this frame (p. 49), adept structural leaders use both vertical and lateral coordination to synchronize individual, group, and organizational efforts.

Structural leaders set clear directions, value data analysis, hold others accountable for bottom-line results, and attempt to solve organizational issues through developing new policies or restructuring (Bolman and Deal, 1984). To optimize their effectiveness, leaders operating from within the structural frame also have great knowledge of their organization and its challenges; continually reexamine the relationship of structure, staff, and environment; and focus on implementation, experimentation, and evaluation (2003). The key to effectiveness for structural leaders seems to be maintaining a balanced approach to leadership so that excessive bureaucracy does not interfere with personal and organizational productivity.

Human resource frame. In contrast to the structural perspective, the human resource frame places emphasis on people instead of product, operating under the primary assumption that organizations exist for the purpose of meeting human needs (and

humans do not exist to serve organizational needs) (Bolman and Deal, 1984). Within the context of this frame, the organization is a family; and individuals are its most important resource. People and organizations need each other and can mutually benefit from their association due to the exchange of ideas, talents, and energy. However, according to Bolman and Deal, if the fit between an organization and its people is poor, one or both suffer from exploitation (2003, p. 115).

The human resource perspective is rooted primarily in the principles of Maslow (1943) and McGregor (1957). Maslow espoused that human motivation is intrinsic upon meeting a hierarchy of physiological and psychological needs. Though not supported empirically, Maslow's theory has influenced the areas of organizational behavior and management (Bolman and Deal, 1984; Shafritz, Ott, & Jang, 2005). McGregor used Maslow's tenets to address motivation in organizations, asserting this basic premise: The perspective that a manager holds about others functions as a self-fulfilling prophecy, determining how those individuals will respond. Because of their assumptions about human nature, McGregor's Theory X managers utilized either "hard" or "soft" external control over behavior. The former approach, which involved tight control, threats, and punishment, resulted in low productivity and antagonism. The latter, which utilized permissiveness to satisfy people's needs, resulted in superficial harmony and apathy (1957, p 179-180). McGregor contended that a new approach, Theory Y, which incorporated Maslow's hierarchy, was more appropriate to address human needs within the organizational environment. Theory Y managers believe that people possess the motivation and the ability to achieve organizational goals. Therefore, the task of management is to provide the conditions to align organizational and employee interests

and to help employees succeed by relying on self-control and self-direction (p. 183).

McGregor saw the comparison of his two managerial approaches in this light: "… the

difference between treating people as children and treating them as adults" (p. 183). That

difference has strongly influenced organizational behavioral theory (Bolman and Deal,

1984).

Bolman and Deal (2003) describe effective human resource leaders as possessing

certain qualities and abilities. Such leaders believe in people and communicate that belief.

They are passionate about helping employees be productive and demonstrate that passion

in word and deed. They are also accessible and visible, spending time with employees,

colleagues, and customers. Most important, effective human resource leaders empower

those who work for them, viewing employees as partners or associates and instilling in

them a sense of ownership in the organization (pp. 356-357).

Political frame. The political frame depicts organizations as "living, screaming

political arenas" characterized by scarce resources, conflict, and a "complex web of

individual and group interests" (Bolman and Deal, 2003, p. 186). The assumptions within

this frame state that to compete for scarce resources, individuals and groups form

coalitions based on different values, beliefs, and perceptions of reality. Scarce resources

and the differences inherent in the competing groups make conflict an inevitable factor in

organizational dynamics and power a necessary and coveted asset. Skills in bargaining

and negotiation are also valued abilities for success in the political frame because they

influence decisions and the establishment of goals (2003, p. 186).

Power and conflict are critical elements within the political frame. Bolman and

Deal (2003) contend that effective political leaders are realists who can distinguish

between what they want and what they can get. They are able to map the political terrain by knowing the key players, their interests, and their degree of power; and they are skilled at managing conflict and building relationships and networks with those key players. Finally, such leaders are adept at persuasion and negotiation, understanding that the judicious use of power is essential to their effectiveness (2003).

Symbolic frame. In contrast to the rational view of the world depicted by the previous perspectives, Bolman and Deal's symbolic frame addresses a world "that departs significantly from traditional canons of rational thought" (1984, p. 149). It is based on these assumptions about human behavior and organizations: (a) The importance of an event resides not in what happened but in the meaning of the event; (b) Events have multiple meanings because people's interpretations differ; (c) In response to an ambiguous world, people create meaning through symbols to resolve confusion and provide direction; (d) Events form a "cultural tapestry" of myths, rituals, ceremonies, and stories; and (e) That cultural tapestry is the force that unites people around shared values and holds the organization together (p. 243). Within the symbolic frame, where the organization assumes the identity of temple, theatre, or carnival, the leader serves as the high priest, director, or ringmaster who must involve others in creating, or recreating, the organization's culture. Symbolic leaders understand that cultural symbols influence human behavior and provide a shared sense of mission and identity (1991b).

Leaders who are skilled in the symbolic approach stress the importance of working with others to craft a vision for their organization. They lead by example, modeling the behavior they expect, communicating and espousing the vision, and taking the necessary risks to achieve success. They adroitly use symbols to give meaning to an

ambiguous world and to give value to the organization. Finally, they are transformational in their approach to leadership, attempting to elevate others to a higher level (Bolman and Deal, 2003).

Advantages of each frame. Bolman and Deal postulate that each frame has certain advantages depending upon environmental factors, such as availability of resources, degree of consensus, age of the organization, and degree of change (1984). They suggest that in a relatively young organization with high certainty, high consensus, and low rates of change, the structural frame is more appropriate. In relatively old organizations with high abundance, high consensus, and rapid change, the human resource frame offers a more practical approach. The political frame better suits older organizations experiencing declining or scarce resources, rapid change, and dissensus. Finally, in organizations plagued by high uncertainty, rapid change, and dissensus, the symbolic frame provides the most optimal avenue (1984). Though all of these scenarios may not be empirically valid, Bolman and Deal (1984) suggest that they do provide a range of conditions to serve as a guide for frame selection.

Matching frames to situations. Bolman and Deal (2003) explain that an additional guide in frame selection is understanding others' perspectives within the given situation. They offer the questions in Table 3 to suggest when each frame is likely to be successful:

Table 3

Questions to Guide Frame Selection

Question	If Yes…	If No…
Are individual commitment and	Human Resource;	Structural;

motivation essential to success?	Symbolic	Political
Is the technical quality of the decision important?	Structural	Human Resource; Political; Symbolic
Is there a high level of ambiguity and uncertainty?	Symbolic; Political	Structural; Human Resource
Are conflict and scarce resources significant?	Political; Symbolic	Structural; Human Resource
Are you working from the bottom up?	Political; Symbolic	Structural; Human Resource

Adapted from Bolman and Deal, 2003

The value of multi-framing. To address the increasing complexity of organizations, Bolman and Deal (2003) classify effective leadership in the context of multiframing, or the use of three or more frames. They emphasize that learning all four frames deepens leaders' and managers' appreciation and understanding of organizations, making leaders capable of diagnosing problems and developing strategies to resolve them. As indicated in Table 3, the applicability and practicality of each frame and of frames in combination depend upon the organizational situation.

In "Making Sense of Administrative Leadership: The 'L' Word in Higher Education," Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989) assessed the value of Bolman and Deal's four-frame approach, referring to it as "one of the most useful organizational typologies from the perspective of leadership" (p. 27). Applying the frame approach to the higher education setting, Bensimon et al. explain that the university as a bureaucracy in the structural frame necessitates leaders who can make decisions, get results, and establish management systems. As a collegium in the human resource frame, the university views leadership as participative, where the leader must demonstrate

interpersonal skills in meeting the personal and development needs of constituents. Leaders of a university as a political system must be skilled at using diplomacy and persuasion to influence a variety of stakeholders. Finally, from the perspective of the university as "organized anarchy" within the symbolic frame, leaders must understand how to manipulate symbols to overcome structural constraints (p. 66). Bensimon et al. add that higher education leaders utilizing portions of the four-frame model will understand the multiple realities of an organization, interpret events in a number of ways, and elicit more flexible responses to their initiatives. Having the capacity to use multiple lenses will enable leaders of any organization to be more effective in their roles.

Research Related to Bolman and Deal's Four-Frame Organizational Theory

Bolman and Deal conducted several studies to determine how leaders use the structural, human resource, political, and symbolic frames (1991a, 1991b). In their study of 32 college presidents, 75 senior administrators in higher education, and 15 central office administrators from school districts in a mid-western state, Bolman and Deal (1991a) used both qualitative and quantitative methods to see how leaders frame their experiences and to determine the relationship between the frames of leaders and those of their constituents. Qualitative results indicated that leaders in all three samples (less than 25%) rarely used more than two frames, with almost no respondents (less than 1%) using all four frames. College presidents used the human resource frame most frequently but were least likely to use the structural frame. Presidents also were much more likely to use the symbolic frame than were the senior administrators and school administrators (pp. 6-7). Quantitative investigations utilized Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientations Instrument (LOI), which contains 32 items with five-point response scales and measures

these eight dimensions of leadership (two per frame): Human Resource Dimensions (supportive and participative), Structural Dimensions (analytic and organized), Political Dimensions (powerful and adroit), and Symbolic Dimensions (inspirational and charismatic) (pp. 7-8). The LOI has two parallel forms, one for self-rating and one for colleagues' (superiors, peers, and subordinates) ratings. Quantitative results indicated that the four frames do predict effectiveness as a manager and as a leader. For two of the three samples, the structural frame was the best predictor of managerial effectiveness; however, in all three samples, that frame was the worst predictor of effectiveness as a leader. The symbolic frame proved to be the best predictor of effectiveness as a leader and the worst predictor of managerial effectiveness (p. 9). Additionally, the human resource and political frames were positively related to effectiveness as both a manager and leader, with the political frame serving as the more powerful predictor of success (1991a).

In an additional study, Bolman and Deal (1991b) collected data from four samples: 90 senior managers from a multinational corporation, 145 higher education administrators, two groups of school administrators (50 principals from Florida and 90 principals and central office administrators from Oregon), and 229 school administrators from Singapore. Using the LOI to provide both self-ratings and colleague ratings, Bolman and Deal found that American educators scored higher on the structural and human resource frames, corporate respondents scored very high on structural but very low on the symbolic frames, and Singapore administrators paralleled American educators with the exception of an unusually high score on the symbolic frame (p. 522). Regression analysis showed that frame orientations are associated with success as both a

manager and a leader across the four samples, indicating again that effectiveness as a manager is "most consistently associated with a structural orientation, whereas leader effectiveness is consistently associated with an orientation toward symbols and politics" (p. 524). The only exception was found within the corporate population. Bolman and Deal explained that the discrepancy was most probably due to the ceiling effect and to the special characteristics of the particular company (p. 524).

Bensimon (1987) used Bolman and Deal's framework to investigate the extent to which college and university presidents incorporate single or multiple frames in describing good presidential leadership. Using a qualitative approach, Bensimon interviewed 32 sitting presidents, 16 who had been in office three years or less and 16 who had been in office five years or more. The resulting analysis of espoused theories revealed 13 presidents reflecting a single frame; eleven, two frames; seven, three frames; and one, four frames. Most of those with a single frame orientation espoused the bureaucratic (structural) and collegial (human resource) frames, followed by the political and symbolic frames (p. 13). In addition, eleven presidents used two (paired) frames to describe good leadership, with almost 50% of the paired frames identified as collegial and symbolic. Finally, eight presidents used multiple frames, with over 50% of those frames a combination of the collegial, political, and symbolic perspectives. According to Bensimon, multiple frame usage represents the greatest frame complexity and "implies the ability to shift frames in response to situational circumstances" (p. 18).

Bensimon's (1987) exploratory empirical study suggested several important points for consideration in the study of leadership within higher education. First, multi-frame orientations appeared to be infrequent among presidents. Second, multi-frame

theories appeared to form through the integration of three instead of four frames. Third, the most distinct pattern produced from the analysis by institutional type was demonstrated by the distribution of community colleges and universities (p. 24). Universities clustered in the paired- and multi-frame categories and community colleges in the single-frame category. Bensimon attributed the single-frame approach by community colleges to their traditional alignment with the bureaucratic model of governance and to the tendency of administrators toward a closed system perspective. However, she also noted that only two of the five community college presidents with a single frame espoused a bureaucratic orientation (p. 25). A more encouraging finding was that three of the five community college presidents with a single frame were new, and none of them espoused a bureaucratic orientation. From her research, Bensimon concluded that new presidents gravitated toward a single-frame orientation; old presidents and new presidents who had held at least one other presidency, toward multi-frame orientations. Her findings suggested that more experienced presidents possessed the degree of cognitive complexity necessary to utilize multiple frames in their managerial and leadership roles. Less experienced presidents operated from frames promoting managerial success.

Bensimon's (1987) study was the first to adequately examine all possible combinations of the four-frame approach. Her work supported Bolman and Deal's contention that the complexity of organizations necessitates more than a single-frame perspective. Additionally, it raised questions about the nature of effective presidential leadership in higher education.

Other studies exist utilizing the framework and instruments of Bolman and Deal. Several studies concentrate on leadership at the community college level (Englert, 2008; Goldsmith, 2005; Greenwood, 2008; Harrell, 2006; McArdle, 2008; Mann Gagliardo, 2006; Runkle, 2004; Sullivan, 2001; Sypawka, 2008; and Tedesco, 2004). Others focus on leadership at the university level (Beck-Frasier, 2005; Cantu, 1997; Chang, 2004; Guidry, 2007; Maitra, 2007; and Welch, 2000). Several researchers analyze leadership from both the four-year and the two-year perspective (Borden, 2000; Burks, 1992; and Tingey, 1997).

Community college studies. Sullivan (2001) used Bolman and Deal's framework to compare the leadership styles of community college presidents. Sullivan classified presidents into one of four generations: the founding fathers, the good managers, the collaborators, and the millennials. The founding fathers, who pioneered the development of the community college, and the good managers, who led their institutions during a period of abundant resources and rapid growth, utilized the structural frame predominantly. Most were white males in their fifty's who had matriculated to the presidency from within the organization; many had a military background which was appropriate to the traditional style of top-down leadership. The third and current generation was found to employ the structural frame least often, operating predominantly within the human resource and political perspectives. More diverse demographically, with a larger number of women and minority presidents, and more prepared academically for leadership, this generation of collaborators "remodeled" the foundation of the two-year institution as they weathered recessions, public distrust, an increasingly unprepared student population, and the pressures of accountability (p. 561). Sullivan also found that

the collaborative generation of presidents has become more effective as they have learned to utilize the symbolic frame, demonstrating an increasing ability to lead their institutions from a multi-frame perspective. Additionally, the current presidents have demonstrated the ability and willingness to work within the team concept of leadership (2001).

Sullivan's profile of the emerging millennial presidents depicts leaders who are technologically savvy, skilled in collaboration, oriented toward workforce development, and more sophisticated and knowledgeable than their predecessors. Since the collaborative generation has been criticized for perceived weaknesses in its participatory style, Sullivan predicts that the millennials may abandon the broad participation inherent in the human resource frame and turn to a more structural and a more political approach. Whatever leadership style the millennials collectively assume, Sullivan stresses that the emerging leaders of community colleges must be capable of meeting a new era "in which higher education is recreating itself" (p. 571).

Englert (2008) examined the leadership orientations of rural community college presidents serving appointed or elected independent governing boards. Using Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation Instrument-Self (LOI-Self) and Leadership Orientation Instrument-Other (LOI-Other), Englert collected data from 164 presidents and 90 board chairs to compare presidents' reported orientations with board chairs' observed orientations. Englert also investigated possible differences in frame use between presidents serving appointed and elected boards. Significant differences were found between presidents and board chairs serving appointed and elected boards. In each group, presidents reported using the human resource frame and the symbolic frame most often; however, board chairs perceived their presidents using the structural and political frames.

Significant differences were also found between presidents serving different boards. In each group, presidents serving appointed boards rated the human resource frame higher than those serving elected boards.

Runkle's (2004) mixed methods study focused on the effect of value reflection on leadership styles among female California community college presidents. Runkle also examined the presidents' use of styles in decision-making, communication, and evaluation. Qualitative and quantitative results for decision-making showed presidents using the human resource frame most often and the symbolic frame least often. The political frame was used most often in communication; the structural frame, least often. In evaluation, presidents used both the human resource and symbolic frames. Cumulative results indicated that female presidents used the human resource frame predominantly; however, results also indicated that most presidents reported using each of the four frames, adjusting their style according to the situation and task.

In another mixed methods study, McArdle (2008) compared the leadership orientation of 18 community college presidents with that of 100 direct reports. Results from the LOI-Self identified presidents' dominant frame as human resource, followed by political, symbolic, and structural. Direct reports' dominant frame was human resource, followed by structural, symbolic, and political. No significant differences were found based on gender or years of experience. Additionally, no significant relationship was present between the dominant styles of presidents and their direct report team. Phenomenological analysis of scenario statements added to the survey indicated that presidents who used the political frame as a primary theme tended to have administrators who also used that frame as one or as a pair of primary themes. Presidents using the

symbolic frame as a primary theme tended to have administrators who used all four frames as themes within their narratives.

Goldsmith (2005) examined the relationships at two- and four-year colleges between presidents' perceived leadership styles and the perceptions of chief instructional officers (CIO's) and faculty senate presidents in the context of creating and maintaining a learning college. Presidents at both institutional levels reported their predominant leadership style as symbolic (59% at community colleges and 68% at universities) and their least preferred style as structural, with only 38% of community college presidents and 19% of university presidents using that frame. Significant differences were found between presidents' reported frames and the perceptions of both chief instructional officers and faculty senate presidents. In each case, presidents rated themselves more positively on the symbolic and human resource frames than did the CIO's. The CIO's rated the presidents more positively than did the faculty senate presidents. Presidents' self-ratings were significantly higher as well on the structural frame in relation to CIO ratings. CIO ratings were significantly higher on all frames except structural. Goldsmith determined that an underlying theme emerged from her analysis:

> Perceived leadership frame usage is vital in creating or maintaining a learning-college environment. When participants believed that their president were [*sic*] effective at using any of the leadership frames, they also tended to view their organizations' overall learning-centered practices as positive. Conversely, … when participants rated their presidents' leadership negatively, they also rated their colleges negatively … (p. 155).

Goldsmith's results suggested that positive leadership in any of the four frames strongly influences the perceptions of creating or maintaining a learning college.

In a study of Iowa community college presidents and superintendents, Tedesco (2004) compared reported leadership styles with ideal styles as perceived by board

presidents at community colleges and K-12 districts. Tedesco's research involved 13

community college presidents, 11 community college board presidents, 234 K-12

superintendents, and 171 K-12 board presidents. Findings showed a significant difference

between the community college presidents and the K-12 superintendents regarding the

symbolic leadership style. Two demographics (enrollment and the number of direct report

supervisors) positively associated with symbolic leadership; position negatively

associated, indicating that K-12 superintendents were less likely to use the symbolic

style. In the comparison of ideal style preferences between community college board

presidents and K-12 board presidents, Tedesco noted no significant results in any of the

four styles. In addition, data analysis suggested that the community college presidents

aligned with their board presidents' image of the ideal leader, while K-12 superintendents

did not match their board presidents' image.

Mann Gagliardo (2006) and Greenwood (2008) have contributed to the research

involving community college Chief Academic Officers (CAO's). Mann Gagliardo

explored the relationship between temperament types and leadership styles of North

Carolina CAO's, using the Keirsey Temperament Sorter II and Bolman and Deal's LOI-

Self. Most of the 57 participants preferred the human resource frame, and most exhibited

the sensing-judgers temperament type. Mann Gagliardo reported no statistically

significant differences in mean leadership styles scores between the temperament

categories, indicating that temperament type does not influence leadership style. In

comparing CAO's self-perceptions of their leadership preferences with the perceptions of

deans and faculty chairs, Greenwood did discover significant differences. Deans and

chairs indicated that COA's placed significantly less emphasis on the structural and

symbolic frames than CAO's reported. No significant differences were found in how chairs, deans, and CAO's described their own leadership orientations on all four frames. However, CAO's scored higher than deans on the human resource frame.

Sypawka (2008) and Russell (2000) focused on analyzing deans' leadership orientations. Sypawka found that community college deans in North Carolina adhered to the human resource frame, along with a paired orientation with the structural frame, as their dominant orientation. Education level, prior years of business experience, and number of years as a dean had no significant influence on leadership orientation. Russell researched a possible relationship between community college leadership style preference and work-related stress and job satisfaction. Again, results showed that overall deans aligned with the human resource frame. Deans showing single leadership orientations reported higher stress levels, less satisfaction, and higher role-conflict than those showing multiple orientations.

Harrell's (2006) study of senior student affairs officers' leadership orientation and the work satisfaction of their professional subordinates added another dimension to research on community college leadership within the Bolman and Deal framework. Harrell's results revealed that primary leadership frame and differential use of frames were significantly related to extrinsic work satisfaction. Senior student affairs officers' use of the symbolic frame and multiple frames was associated with the highest levels of subordinates' overall work satisfaction.

Community college and university studies. Burks (1992) used Bolman and Deal's framework to investigate the need for leadership development training in the Tennessee Board of Regents (TBR) system. Respondents represented two- and four-year institutions

and included (1) administrators selected by institutional executives and (2) peers, subordinates, and superiors selected by the administrators. Findings did not indicate significant differences between male and female participants or between institutional types.   Results did indicate a significant difference in the current and ideal leadership profiles in all frames, suggesting a need for a formal leadership program in the TBR.

Tingey (1997) compared the leadership orientation of two- and four-year college and university presidents, attempting to predict style preference based on institutional type. Results supported the situational nature of college leadership and indicated a relationship between institutional type and leadership style. Presidents of public doctorate-granting institutions identified with the political frame of leadership. Presidents of private doctorate-granting, public comprehensive, public Liberal Arts, and public two-year institutions espoused the human resource frame. Leaders of private Liberal Arts and private comprehensive colleges and universities reported in the symbolic frame, while those overseeing private two-year colleges reported in the structural frame.

DeFrank-Cole (2003) gathered data to determine possible gender differences in the self-perceptions of presidential leadership styles at twenty-one West Virginia colleges and universities. No significant differences based in gender were determined. However, women indicated more frequent use of the human resource frame; and men, the political frame. Over one third of the presidents reported using multiple frames, and 20% reported using paired frames.

Borden (2000) studied leadership orientations of administrators in Florida's state university and community college systems. Borden attempted to determine if a relationship existed between frame orientation and variables such as campus size, campus

type, highest level of coursework offered, highest level degree program, years in current position, education level, gender, and age. She also examined self-ratings of managerial and leadership effectiveness. Results indicated that administrators' primary orientation was the human resource frame, followed by the symbolic, structural, and political frames. Almost one-half used multiple frames. Frame usage was not affected by campus size, years in current position, years of experience as an administrator, or gender. Administrators rated themselves higher on managerial than on leadership effectiveness.

University studies. Studies by Beck-Frasier (2005), Cantu (1997), Guidry (2007), Maitra (2007), Welch (2002), and Chang (2004) reflect the use of Bolman and Deal's four-frame organizational theory within the context of the university setting. Beck-Frasier, Cantu, and Guidry studied academic deans' leadership orientations, with the former comparing deans' self-perceptions to those of their department chairs and the latter comparing the perceptions of randomly selected deans with deans nominated as exceptionally effective. Beck-Frasier found deans' primary leadership behavior to be in the human resource frame, followed by the structural, political, and symbolic frames. However, department chairs perceived deans' primary behavior as structural, followed by human resource, political, and symbolic. Collectively, deans did not display multi-frame behavior. Beck-Frasier suggested leadership development programs to enhance deans' concepts of the four frames. Cantu's findings concerning deans' frame orientation were identical to Beck-Frasier's. Cantu's effective deans had a significantly higher political orientation than randomly selected deans, and Cantu found significant differences based on academic discipline. Finally, Guidry's investigation of female deans yielded similar results. Female deans gave preference to the human resource frame. However, that

preference was followed by no frame, and then the symbolic, structural, and political frames. The majority of female deans reported using paired frames (27.6%) or multiple frames (41.4%). Single-frame usage was reported by 20.7% of deans and no frames, by 10.3% (p. 103). No significant differences were found in perceived orientations due to race/ethnicity, time in position, marital status, or discipline area background. However, significant differences were noted based on educational background.

In a mixed methods study, Maitra (2007) examined leadership styles of university women in administrative vice-presidencies and found that her subjects used multiple frames, with the human resource frame being the dominant preference, followed by the structural, symbolic, and political frames. Welch (2002) found a similar pattern among female university presidents. Welch's presidents espoused the human resource frame as primary and then the symbolic, structural, and political frames. Maitra also compared the results of Bolman and Deal's LOI with those of Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). Results indicated a positive correlation between LOI styles and LPI practices, with the human resource and symbolic frames yielding significant correlations with most of the LPI practices.

Chang (2004) compared leadership styles of department chairs in the college of education and faculty utilization of instructional technology. Department chairs used the structural frame most often. However, the majority of chairs were more likely to use no frame. Chairs' use of all four frames significantly correlated with faculty utilization of technology.

The above research literature adequately explores some aspects of Bolman and Deal's four-frame theory as it can be applied within the higher education setting.

However, the majority of studies focus on an analysis of *self-perception* of leadership style. Few studies explore leaders' behavior, orientation, and effectiveness from the perspectives of others; and none address those leadership dimensions from the perspective of superiors, colleagues, and subordinates. The current research initiative proposes to utilize a true 360-degree approach toward the analysis of leadership at the community college level.

Summary

Chapter Two presented an overview of the current leadership crisis, a review of the related literature on leadership theories, and a description of both Bolman and Deal's four-frame theory of organizational leadership and the research related to that theory. Data on retirement trends, the availability of qualified replacements to replenish upper level administrative positions, and the lack of programs designed to prepare future leaders verify the existence of a severe leadership crisis within higher education and particularly within community colleges (AACC, 2006; Dembicki, n. d.; Fulton-Calkins and Miller, 2005; Hockaday & Puryear, 2008; Shults, 2001; Vaughn & Weisman, 1998; Wallin, 2002; Wallin, 2006). Although various programs to address this crisis are in existence, those specializing in two-year institutions are insufficient to meet the national needs (Duvall, 2003).

A review of related literature reflected the continual controversy inherent in establishing a universally accepted definition of leadership (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978; Stogdill, 1974: Yukl, 1989). It also reflected the evolution of six primary approaches to the study of leadership from the 1940's through the present era (Bass, 2008). Examination of the trait, behavioral, power and influence, transactional and

transformational, contingency, and cultural and symbolic approaches to the study of leadership illustrated the influence of major theorists (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Blake & Mouton, 1964; Burns, 1978; Fiedler, 1967; French & Raven, 1959; Gardner, 1990; Goldberg, 1990; Goleman, 2006a; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2004; Hersey, 1984; House, 1976; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Mann, 1959; McCrae & Costa, 1987; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Stogdill, 1974; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; Vroom & Yetton, 1973).

Exploration of Bolman and Deal's four-frame theory of organizational leadership revealed a more integrative approach to the study of leadership. Use of the structural, human resource, political, and symbolic frames provides leaders a perspective, or lens, through which they may assess each situation, enabling them to select the most appropriate response. Numerous research studies supported Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum's (1989) assessment of the four-frame theory as one of the most useful typologies in the study and analysis of leadership. Review of that research was divided into three sections: leadership at the community college level (Englert, 2008; Goldsmith, 2005; Greenwood, 2008; Harrell, 2006; McArdle, 2008; Mann Gagliardo, 2006; Runkle, 2004; Sullivan, 2001; Sypawka, 2008; and Tedesco, 2004); leadership at the university level (Beck-Frasier, 2005; Cantu, 1997; Chang, 2004; Guidry, 2007; Maitra, 2007; and Welch, 2000); and leadership from both the four-year and the two-year perspective (Borden, 2000; Burks, 1992; and Tingey, 1997).

Chapter Three describes the methodology and procedures utilized in this study. Specifically, this chapter addresses the purpose of the research, the research questions to be investigated, and the hypotheses to be tested. It also provides a description of the

participants, setting, data collection procedures, research design, and data analysis.

Additionally, Chapter Three produces a description of the instruments used in the study,

Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation Instrument – Self and Leadership Orientation

Instrument – Other.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Overview

This chapter details the methodology used in this research initiative. In addition to a statement regarding the purpose of the study, this chapter describes the research participants, the setting, and the procedures used to explore the problem. It also includes a description of the associated procedures, design, and data analysis.

The purpose of the research was to investigate the leadership orientation, style, and effectiveness of selected administrators at a North Carolina community college. Specifically, this study compared community college leaders' perceptions of their own leadership orientation, style, and effectiveness with the perceptions expressed by their supervisors, colleagues, and subordinates. Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation Instrument – Self was used to assess leaders' self-perceptions. Their companion assessment, the Leadership Orientation Instrument - Other, was used to determine the perceptions expressed by leaders' supervisors, colleagues, and peers. The purpose of the study was to determine whether significant differences exist between the perceptions of self and others and, if so, the implications of those differences for those in leadership positions.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Numerous studies reflected the seriousness of the current leadership crisis in higher education (Fulton-Calkins & Milling, 2005; Hockaday & Puyear, 2008; Shults, 2001) and

the importance of theoretically based leadership preparation programs to address that crisis (Berry, Hammons, & Denny, 2001; Piland & Wolf, 2003; Vaughn & Weisman, 1998; Wallin, 2002). Additionally, an increasing body of research addressed the need to redefine the nature of leadership in the education arena (AACC, 2002; AACC, 2005; Amey, 2004; Eddy, 2004; Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006; Goff, 2003; Sullivan, 2001; Weisman & Vaughn, 2007). Much of that research stressed a particular focus on leadership as a relationship (Bennis, 1959; Bolman & Deal, 2003; Burns, 1978; Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and on leadership as self-study enhanced by the perception of others (Chappelow, 2004; Facteau & Facteau, 1998; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2004; Hancock, 1999; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004; Yammarino & Atwater, 1997). A review of the previously mentioned research informed the direction of this study and led to the formulation of the research questions listed below.

This study investigated perceptions of leadership orientation, style, and effectiveness from the perspectives of the individuals being rated and the perspectives of their supervisors, peers, and subordinates. Specifically, it addressed the following questions and tested the corresponding hypotheses:

Research Questions

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their <u>supervisors</u>?

   Null Hypothesis (H_{O1}): There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_{A1}): There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors.

$H_{O2:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership orientation and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors.

$H_{A2:}$ There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership orientation and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors.

$H_{O3:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors.

$H_{A3:}$ There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors.

2. Is there a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their peers?

$H_{O1:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions expressed by their peers.

H_{A1}: There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions expressed by their peers.

H_{O2}: There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership orientation and the perceptions expressed by their peers.

H_{A2}: There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership orientation and the perceptions expressed by their peers.

H_{O3}: There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their peers.

H_{A3}: There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their peers.

3. Is there a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their <u>subordinates</u>?

H_{O1}: There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates.

$H_{A1:}$ There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates.

$H_{O2:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership orientation and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates.

$H_{A2:}$ There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership orientation and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates.

$H_{O3:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates.

$H_{A3:}$ There is a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates.

Participants and Setting

This study was conducted at a North Carolina community college. Participants included all members of the President's Cabinet, the governance unit and policy-making body of the institution. Excluding the President, who was a non-participant in the study, 10 men and 6 women comprised the Cabinet: the Vice-President of Business Affairs; the Vice-President of Student and Technology Services; the Vice-President of Institutional Advancement; the Vice-President of Workforce Development and Instruction; the Executive Director of the College Foundation; the Executive Director of the Office of

Multicultural Affairs; the Executive Director of the Office of Accountability, Effectiveness, and Efficiency; the Executive Officer of Student Services; the Executive Officer of Technology; the Dean of Instructional Programs; the Interim Associate Dean of the School of Health Services; the Associate Dean of the School of Academics, Fine Arts, and Education; the Associate Dean of the School of Business, Industry , and Technology; the Associate Dean of the School of Public Safety; the Director of Community Relations; and the Executive Assistant to the President. Four of those individuals had been in their current position for five years or longer. All others were new to their current positions. Five Cabinet members were in their first administrative position. Participant selection was restricted to members of the Cabinet as part of a leadership training initiative originating in the Spring of 2009. Participants served as the initial cohort in that Leadership Institute.

<div align="center">Instrumentation</div>

Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation Instrument – Self (LOI-Self) and Leadership Orientation Instrument – Other (LOI-Other) was used to collect data for this study. Those instruments have identical questions posed from the view point of the rater's role. Cabinet members completed the LOI-Self to indicate their perceptions of their leadership orientation, style, and effectiveness. Cabinet members' supervisors (superiors), peers (colleagues), and subordinates (direct reports) completed the LOI-Other to provide their perceptions of the individual leader's orientation, style, and effectiveness.

Numerous research studies have determined that the LOI is a reliable and valid instrument (Beck-Frasier, 2005; Borden, 2000; Burks, 1992; Cantu, 1997; Chang, 2004; Englert, 2008; Goldsmith, 2005; Greenwood, 2008; Guidry, 2007; Harrell, 2006;

McArdle, 2008; Maitra, 2007; Mann Gagliardo, 2006; Runkle, 2004; Sullivan, 2001; Sypawka, 2008; Tedesco, 2004; Tingey, 1997; and Welch, 2000). Based on information provided by Bolman (2008), Table 4 indicates internal consistency of the instrument.

Table 4

Internal Consistency of Bolman and Deal's LOI (Bolman, 2008)

	Structural (Section I)	Human Resource (Section I)	Political (Section I)	Symbolic (Section I)
Split-half correlation	.875	.867	.837	.882
Spearman-Brown Coefficient	.933	.929	.911	.937
Gutman coefficient	.933	.929	.911	.936
Coefficient Alpha (All items)	.920	.931	.913	.931
Coefficient Alpha (Odd items)	.856	.902	.839	.846
Coefficient Alpha (Even Items)	.834	.843	.842	.887

The LOI is divided into three sections. Section I contains 32 questions to profile leaders' behaviors. Those questions reflect behavior within each of the four frames (structural, human resource, political, and symbolic). Each frame consists of two subscales: Structural – Analytic and Organized; Human Resource – Supportive and Participative; Political – Adroit and Powerful; and Symbolic – Inspirational and Charismatic. Individuals rate themselves or are rated by others on a 5-point Likert scale: "1" indicating that the behavior is never demonstrated; "2", occasionally; "3",

sometimes; "4", often; and "5" always. The highest mean score for the eight subscale questions determined the primary leadership behavior. Mean scores were derived by adding item scores for each of the eight frame-oriented items and dividing by eight. Table 5 indicates the thirty-two questions in Section I as they apply to each frame.

Table 5

LOI Section I: Leader Behavior Items by Frame

Frame and Subscales	Questions
Structural Frame	1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25, 29
Analytic Subscale	1, 9, 17, 25
Organized Subscale	5, 13, 21, 29
Human Resource Frame	2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, 30
Supportive Subscale	2, 10, 18, 26
Participative Subscale	6, 14, 22, 30
Political Frame	3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23, 27, 31
Adroit Subscale	7, 15, 23, 31
Powerful Subscale	3, 11, 19, 27
Symbolic Frame	4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28, 32
Inspirational Subscale	4, 12, 20, 28
Charismatic Subscale	8, 16, 24, 32

Section II of the LOI contains six forced-choice items designed to indicate the individual's primary leadership orientation/style. Each choice under each question is indicative of one of the four frames: Each "a" response indicates the Structural Frame; each "b" response, the Human Resource Frame; each "c" response, the Political Frame; and each "d" response, the Symbolic Frame. Ratings were assessed on a four-point scale, with responses ranging from "1" – least like the individual to "4" – most like the individual. The highest mean score for the questions determined the primary leadership style. Mean scores were derived by adding item scores for the frame category in each

item and dividing by six. Table 6 shows the alignment of each item response to the four

frames.

Table 6

LOI Section II: Leader Style Items by Frame

Item	Frame
1a, 2a, 3a, 4a, 5a, 6a	Structural Frame
1b, 2b, 3b, 4b, 5b, 6b	Human Resource Frame
1c, 2c, 3c, 4c, 5c, 6c	Political Frame
1d, 2d, 3d, 4d, 5d, 6d	Symbolic Frame

Section III contains two one-item measures: effectiveness as a manager and

effectiveness as a leader. Ratings range from1 to 5. Along that continuum, ratings place

the leader in the bottom 20%, middle 20%, or top 20% of other leaders that the rater has

known.

Procedures for Data Collection

Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation Instrument – Self (LOI-Self) and

Leadership Orientation Instrument – Other (LOI-Other) were used to collect data. As

stated earlier, each instrument has identical questions posed from the view point of the

rater's role. Cabinet members completed the LOI-Self to indicate their perceptions of

their leadership orientation, style, and effectiveness. Cabinet members' supervisors

(superiors), peers (colleagues), and subordinates (direct reports) completed the LOI-Other

to provide their perceptions of the individual leader's orientation, style, and effectiveness.

In addition, ten customized questions pertaining to the positional roles of the Cabinet

members were used to evaluate the degree of leadership effectiveness from the perspectives of self and others.

The dependent variables in this study were the perceptions of leader behavior, style / orientation, and effectiveness. The independent variables were the groups, including supervisors / superiors, peers / colleagues, and subordinates / direct reports.

The LOI-Self and LOI-Other was administered to all persons via inter-office mail. Confidentiality of all responses was maintained throughout the research process. Responses were anonymous and were kept in a locked cabinet within the researcher's office.

<div align="center">Design and Data Analysis</div>

This study utilized a quantitative research methodology. The design entailed cross-sectional survey research through the use of structured-response questionnaires (LOI-Self and LOI-Other) constructed by Bolman and Deal and the use of ten customized questions constructed by the researcher.

Analysis of the data was performed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. Descriptive statistics were compiled to show the frequency of responses for each variable as well as the means and standard deviations. Descriptive statistics were also used to determine frame preference of the Cabinet members and frame perceptions of others. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test for differences in perception, for significance in frame orientation, and for use of single, paired, or multiple frames. Repeated Measures ANOVA was used to test for differences between self- perception and the perceptions of supervisors, peers, and direct reports on

each of these items: Leader Behavior (Section I), Leadership Style/Orientation (Section II), and Leader Effectiveness (Section III).

Summary

Chapter Three described the methodology utilized in this study. It included a review of the purpose of the study as well as a description of the participants and setting. This chapter also delineated the data collection and analysis process.

The primary purpose of this study was (1) to examine and compare leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behavior, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors, colleagues/peers, and direct reports/subordinates; (2) to determine whether significant differences exist between the views of self and others; and (3) to identify the implications of any differences for those in leadership positions. A secondary purpose was to examine the dynamics of a team profile based on frame orientation (structural, human resource, political, and symbolic) and leadership effectiveness and to explore the implications of significant differences on team performance. This research will be valuable to community colleges as they attempt to identify new leaders and to assess current ones.

The present study utilized Bolman and Deal's LOI-Self and LOI-Other to complete cross-sectional survey research of area community college administrators. The LOI-Self was administered to the sixteen-member President's Cabinet at a North Carolina Community College. In some cases, Cabinet members also completed the LOI-Other if they were engaged in a supervisory, collegial, or subordinate relationship to another Cabinet member. The LOI – Other was also administered to Cabinet members' supervisors, colleagues, and peers.

Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software (SPSS). Descriptive statistics determined the frequency and distribution of leadership frame preferences from the perspective of Cabinet members and others (supervisors, peers, and direct reports). Differences between self- perception and the perceptions of supervisors, peers, and direct reports regarding leaders' behavior, orientation, and effectiveness were determined through Repeated Measures ANOVA.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

Overview

This chapter contains outcomes of analyses used to answer research questions related to comparison of leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behavior, orientation, and effectiveness with the perceptions of others. Data were from a cross-sectional survey of sixteen selected administrators serving on the President's Cabinet at a North Carolina community college. Leaders' self-perceptions were assessed through Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation Instrument – Self (LOI -Self). The perceptions of leaders' behavior, orientation, and effectiveness expressed by supervisors, peers, and subordinates were assessed through Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation Instrument – Other (LOI-Other). Perceptions revealed in the LOI-Self and LOI-Other were described and analyzed to address each of the following research questions: (1) Is there a significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors? (2) Is there a significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their peers? (3) Is there a significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates?

Results

Descriptive Comparisons

Means and standard deviations were compared within each of the four frames to analyze perceptions of leadership behavior and leadership orientation. To describe leadership behavior, raters evaluated 32 questions using a 5-point Likert scale: "1" indicating that the behavior was never demonstrated; "2", occasionally; "3", sometimes; "4", often; and "5" always. The highest mean score for the eight subscale questions reflecting each frame determined the primary leadership behavior. The range for leadership behavior scores was 8 – 40. To identify leadership orientation, raters ranked responses to six questions, assigning values from "1" – least like the individual to "4" – most like the individual. Each choice under each question was indicative of one of the four frames. The highest mean score for the questions determined the primary leadership orientation. The range for leadership orientation scores was 6 – 24. Raters assessed managerial effectiveness and leadership effectiveness separately, placing the subject in the bottom 20%, middle 20%, or top 20% of other leaders that raters had known. The range for leadership effectiveness scores was 1 – 5.

Leadership Behavior. An analysis of self-perceptions revealed that leaders considered the human resource frame as their frame of preference, followed by the structural, symbolic, and political frames. Almost half (43.75%) of the Administrative Cabinet indicated that their behaviors reflected predominantly the human resource frame; 37.5%, the structural frame; 6.25%, the political frame; and 6.25%, the symbolic frame. Supervisors' perceptions of leaders' frame behaviors were identical to leaders' self-perceptions. However, both peers and subordinates ranked leaders' frame preferences as

structural, human resource, symbolic, and political. It is interesting to note that across all responses, the symbolic and political frames were ranked third and fourth respectively as frame preferences. Bolman and Deal stress that those two frames are strong predictors of success as a *leader*, whereas the human resource and structural frames (ranked as either first or second preference across all responses) predict success as a *manager*. Table 7 presents a ranking of frame preferences among all respondents.

Table 7

Ranking of Frame Preferences Among All Respondents

Rank	Ratings				
	Self	Supervisor	Peers	Subordinates	All
1	Human Resource	Human Resource	Structural	Structural	Structural
2	Structural	Structural	Human Resource	Human Resource	Human Resource
3	Symbolic	Symbolic	Symbolic	Symbolic	Symbolic
4	Political	Political	Political	Political	Political

Means and standard deviations for each of the four organizational frames are recorded in Table 8. In the structural frame, subordinates rated leaders higher than leaders rated themselves; supervisors and peers, lower. In the human resource frame, leaders' self-perceptions were higher than the perceptions of subordinates, supervisors, and peers respectively. Subordinates allotted leaders the highest ratings in the political frame, followed by leaders' perceptions and the perceptions of peers and supervisors.

Direct reports also recorded the highest ratings for leaders in the symbolic frame,

followed by supervisors, leaders, and peers.

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations for Self-Perceptions and Others' Perceptions by Frame

Frame	Self		Supervisor		Peers		Subordinates		All	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Structural	33.13	3.61	32.06	4.15	32.04	5.59	33.89	5.71	33.02	5.41
Human Resource	33.81	3.83	32.13	3.69	30.77	5.17	33.80	6.84	32.63	5.96
Political	30.31	3.38	29.19	4.05	30.25	5.36	31.64	6.67	30.82	5.81
Symbolic	31.00	4.31	31.44	7.81	30.28	5.66	32.04	7.44	31.29	6.67

Note: Score range = 8 – 40

Leadership Orientation. Self-perceptions denoted the human resource frame

(43.75%) as leaders' primary orientation or style, followed by the structural (37.5%),

symbolic (12.5%), and political (6.25%) frames. Supervisors indicated that leaders'

orientation resided equally in both the structural <u>and</u> human resource frames (87.5%),

with only 6.25% of the administrators demonstrating an orientation in the political and

symbolic frames. Peer ratings depicted the human resource frame as the primary

orientation (46.67%), followed by the structural (40%) and political (13.33%) frames.

Subordinates perceived leaders' style/orientation as predominantly structural (43.75%),

followed by human resource (20%), symbolic (18.75%), and political (12.5%). As in the

previous analysis of leader behaviors, Cabinet members and those assessing them agreed

that the majority of administrators reflect leadership styles/orientations within both the human resource and structural frames.

Effectiveness. Ratings were divided into the following categories to reflect individuals' effectiveness as a manager and as a leader: Top 20%, Next to top 20%, Middle 20%, Next to bottom 20%, and Bottom 20%. One-half of all leaders rated themselves in the top 20% of all managers they had known; however, supervisors identified only 37.5% in that category. Peers and subordinates noted a larger discrepancy, placing 6.67% and 18.75% respectively in the top 20% of all previously known managers. Concerning effectiveness as a leader, 43.75% of the self-perceptions fell in the top 20%. In contrast, supervisors and subordinates indicated that only 18.75% reflected leadership effectiveness in the top 20% category, with peers identifying 6.67%. Table 9 reveals all categories of the effectiveness ratings by self, supervisors, peers, and subordinates.

Table 9

Managerial and Leader Effectiveness Ratings

Rating Category	Self	Supervisor	Peers	Subordinates
Manager				
Top 20%	50%	37.5%	6.67%	18.75%
Next to Top 20%	43.75%	50%	53.33%	68.75%
Middle 20%	6.75%	12.5%	40%	12.5%
Next to Bottom 20%	0%	0%	0%	0%

Bottom 20%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Leader				
Top 20%	43.75%	18.75%	6.67%	18.75%
Next to Top 20%	37.50%	50%	53.33%	68.75%
Middle 20%	12.5%	31.25%	40%	12.5%
Next to Bottom 20%	6.75%	0%	0%	0%
Bottom 20%	0%	0%	0%	0%

Inferential Comparisons

A series of nine two-factor Analyses of Variance with Repeated Measures (ANOVR) was used to analyze the data for each of the three research questions. Perceptions of raters (i.e., self or either supervisor, peer, or subordinate) and types of ratings were within-subject factors. Main effects for raters and ratings and interaction effects for raters by ratings were analyzed.

Research Question 1: Perceptions of Leaders and Supervisors. Is there a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors? Three Null Hypotheses were tested to answer this research question.

$H_{O1:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their *leadership behaviors* and the perceptions expressed by

their supervisors. Means and standard deviations for perceptions of leadership behavior by community college leaders and their supervisors are shown in Table 10. Results of statistical analysis revealed a non-significant main effect for rater, $F(1,15) = 1.49$, $p > .01$, a significant main effect for rating, $F(3,45) = 7.61$, $p < .01$, and a non-significant rater by rating interaction effect, $F(3,45) = 0.10$, $p > .01$. Follow-up pairwise comparisons for leader and supervisor behavior perceptions (using Bonferroni adjustment) indicated that ratings for the political frame of leadership behavior ($M = 29.75$) were statistically significantly different from those for the structural frame ($M = 32.59$) and the human resource frame ($M = 32.97$); ratings for the symbolic frame ($M = 30.28$) were statistically significantly different from those for the human resource frame ($M = 32.97$); and all other differences were not statistically significant.

Table 10

Perceptions of Leadership Behavior: Leader and Supervisor

Rater	Leader and Supervisor Behavior Ratings by Frame							
	Structural		Human Resource		Political		Symbolic	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Self	33.13	3.61	33.81	3.85	30.31	3.38	31.00	4.31
Supervisor	32.06	4.16	32.13	3.69	29.19	4.05	29.56	3.33
Combined	32.59		32.97		29.75		30.28	

Note: Range = 8 - 40

$H_{O2:}$ There is no significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their *leadership orientation* and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors. Means and standard deviations for perceptions of leadership orientation for community college leaders and their supervisors are detailed in Table 11. Results of statistical analysis revealed a non-significant main effect for rater, $F(1, 15) = 3.00$, $p > .01$, a significant main effect for rating, $F(3, 45) = 5.45$, $p < .01$, and a non-significant rater by rating interaction effect, $F(3, 45) = 3.98$, $p > .01$. Follow-up pairwise comparisons for leader and supervisor orientation perceptions (using Bonferroni adjustment) indicated that ratings for the human resource frame of leadership orientation ($M = 17.60$) were statistically different from those for the symbolic frame ($M = 12.22$) and all other differences were not statistically significant.

Table 11

Perceptions of Leadership Orientation: Leader and Supervisor

Rater	Leader and Supervisor Orientation Ratings by Frame							
	Structural		Human Resource		Political		Symbolic	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Self	16.88	5.48	17.94	4.34	11.31	4.30	13.88	4.30
Supervisor	17.50	6.09	17.25	4.99	14.94	2.96	10.56	5.24
Combined	17.19		17.60		13.13		12.22	

Note: Range = 6 - 24

H_{O3}: There is no significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their *leadership effectiveness* and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors. Means and standard deviations for perceptions of leadership effectiveness for community college leaders and their supervisors are listed in Table 12. Results of statistical analysis revealed a non-significant main effect for rater, $F(1, 15) = 1.03$, $p > .01$, a significant main effect for rating, $F(1, 15) = 5.95$, $p < .01$, and a non-significant rater by rating interaction effect, $F(1, 15) = 0.273$, $p > .01$. Follow-up pairwise comparisons for leader and supervisor effectiveness perceptions (using Bonferroni adjustment) indicated that ratings in managerial effectiveness ($M = 4.34$) were significantly different from those in leadership effectiveness ($M = 4.03$).

Table 12

Perceptions of Leadership Effectiveness: Leader and Supervisor

Rater	Leader and Supervisor Effectiveness Ratings by Frame			
	Manager		Leader	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Self	4.44	0.629	4.19	0.911
Supervisor	4.25	0.683	3.88	0.719
Combined	4.34		4.03	

Note: Range = 1 - 5

Research Question 2: Perceptions of Leaders and Peers. Is there a significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their peers? Three Null Hypotheses were tested.

$H_{O1:}$ There is no significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their *leadership behaviors* and the perceptions expressed by their peers. Means and standard deviations for perceptions of leadership behavior by community college leaders and their peers are included in Table 13. Results of statistical analysis revealed a non-significant main effect for rater, $F(1, 14) = 0.778$, $p > .01$, a significant main effect for rating, $F(3, 42) = 5.38$, $p < .01$, and a non-significant rater by rating interaction effect, $F(3, 42) = 4.17$, $p > .01$. Follow-up pairwise comparisons for leader and peer behavior perceptions (using Bonferroni adjustment) indicated that ratings for the structural frame of leadership behavior ($M = 32.73$) were statistically different from those for the political frame ($M = 30.36$) and all other differences were not statistically significant.

Table 13

Perceptions of Leadership Behavior: Leader and Peers

Rater	Leader and Peer Behavior Ratings by Frame							
	Structural		Human Resource		Political		Symbolic	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Self	33.00	3.70	33.93	3.96	30.13	3.42	31.33	4.24

Peer	32.45	3.71	30.80	3.87	30.59	2.92	30.51	3.34
Combined	32.73		32.37		30.36		30.92	

Note: Range = 8 -40

$H_{O2:}$ There is no significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their *leadership orientation* and the perceptions expressed by their peers. Means and standard deviations for perceptions of leadership orientation by community college leaders and their peers are in Table 14. Results of statistical analysis revealed a non-significant main effect for rater, $F(1, 14) = 1.10$, $p > .01$, a significant main effect for rating, $F(3, 42) = 4.99$, $p < .01$, and a significant rater by rating interaction effect, $F(3, 42) = 7.32$, $p < .01$. Follow-up pairwise comparisons for leader and peer orientation perceptions (using Bonferroni adjustment) indicated that ratings for the human resource frame of leadership orientation ($M = 17.36$) were statistically different from those for the symbolic frame ($M = 12.78$). Interaction effects are illustrated in Figure 1. Leader and peer perceptions were similar for the structural and human resource frames, with leaders rating themselves slightly lower in the structural and higher in the human resource frame. Leader and peer perceptions were lower and reversed for the political and symbolic frames, with leaders rating themselves lower in the political and higher in the symbolic frame.

Table 14

Perceptions of Leadership Orientation: Leader and Peers

Rater	Leader and Peer Orientation Ratings by Frame

	Structural		Human Resource		Political		Symbolic	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Self	16.47	5.41	17.93	4.49	11.27	4.49	14.33	4.03
Peer	17.21	4.58	16.78	3.14	14.78	3.09	11.22	2.34
Combined	16.84		17.36		13.02		12.78	

Note: Range = 6 -24

Figure 1

Self and Peer Perceptions of Leadership Orientation Interaction Effects
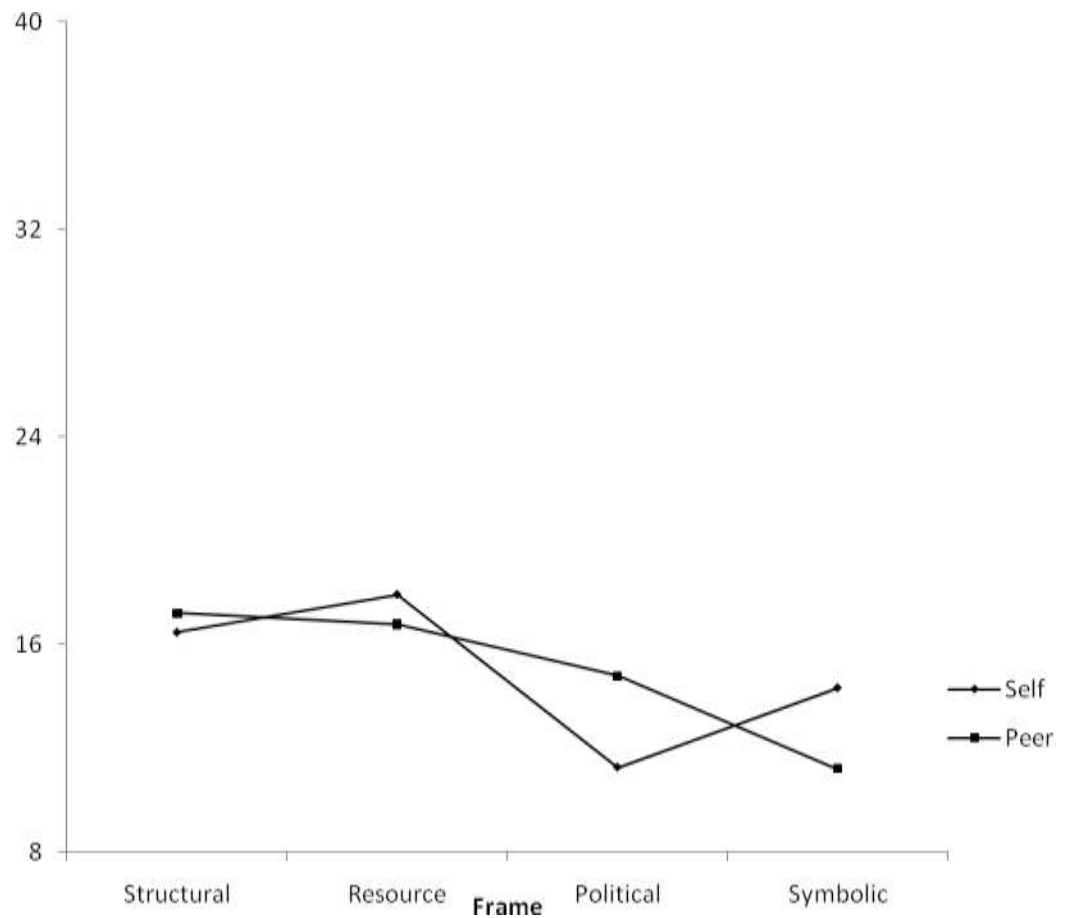
$H_{O3:}$ There is no significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their *leadership and managerial effectiveness* and the perceptions expressed by their peers. Means and standard deviations for perceptions of leadership effectiveness by community college leaders and their peers are in Table 15. Results of statistical analysis revealed a non-significant main effect for rater, $F(1, 14) = 1.72$, $p >$

.01, a non-significant main effect for rating, $F(1, 14) = 3.91$, $p > .01$, and a non-significant rater by rating interaction effect, $F(1, 14) = 0.319$, $p > .01$.

Table 15

Perceptions of Leadership Effectiveness: Leader and Peers

Rater	Leader and Peer Effectiveness Ratings by Frame			
	Manager		Leader	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Self	4.47	0.640	4.27	0.884
Peer	4.09	0.541	3.99	0.598
Combined	4.28		4.13	

Note: Range = 1 - 5

Research Question 3: Perceptions of Leaders and Subordinates. Is there a significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates? Three Null Hypotheses were tested.

$H_{O1:}$ There is no significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their *leadership behaviors* and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates. Means and standard deviations for perceptions of leadership behavior by community college leaders and their subordinates are delineated in Table 16. Results of statistical analysis revealed a non-significant main effect for rater, $F(1, 15) = 0.262$, $p >$

.01, <u>a significant main effect for rating, $F(3, 45) = 7.01$, $p < .01$</u>, and a non-significant rater by rating interaction effect, $F(3, 45) = 1.78$, $p > .01$. Follow-up pairwise comparisons for leader and subordinate behavior perceptions (using Bonferroni adjustment) indicated that ratings for the human resource frame of leadership behavior ($M = 33.42$) were statistically different from those for the political frame ($M = 31.12$) and the symbolic frame ($M = 31.55$); ratings for the structural frame ($M = 33.53$) were statistically significantly different from those for the political frame ($M = 31.12$); and all other differences were not statistically significant.

Table 16

Perceptions of Leadership Behavior: Leader and Subordinates

Rater	Leader and Subordinate Behavior Ratings by Frame							
	Structural		Human Resource		Political		Symbolic	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Self	33.13	3.61	33.81	3.85	30.31	3.38	31.00	4.31
Subordinate	33.94	3.55	33.03	5.36	31.92	3.96	32.11	5.22
Combined	33.53		33.42		31.12		31.55	

Note: Range = 8 - 40

$H_{O2:}$ There is no significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their *leadership orientation* and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates. Means and standard deviations for leader and subordinate perceptions of

leadership orientation are depicted in Table 17. Results of statistical analysis revealed a non-significant main effect for rater, $F(1, 15) = .068$, $p > .01$, a non-significant main effect for rating, $F(3, 45) = 4.06$, $p > .01$, and a significant rater by rating interaction effect, $F(3, 45) = 4.72$, $p < .01$. Interaction effects are illustrated in Figure 2. Leader and subordinate perceptions were similar for the structural, human resource, and symbolic frames, with leaders rating themselves higher in each frame. For the political frame, those perceptions were reversed, with subordinates rating leaders higher.

Table 17

Perceptions of Leadership Orientation: Leader and Subordinates

Rater	Leader and Subordinate Orientation Ratings by Frame							
	Structural		Human Resource		Political		Symbolic	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Self	16.88	5.48	17.94	4.34	11.31	4.30	13.88	4.30
Subordinate	16.76	2.82	15.41	4.14	15.06	3.26	12.80	3.30
Combined	16.82		16.68		13.19		13.34	

Note: Range = 6 - 24

Figure 2

Self and Subordinate Perceptions of Leadership Orientation Interaction Effects
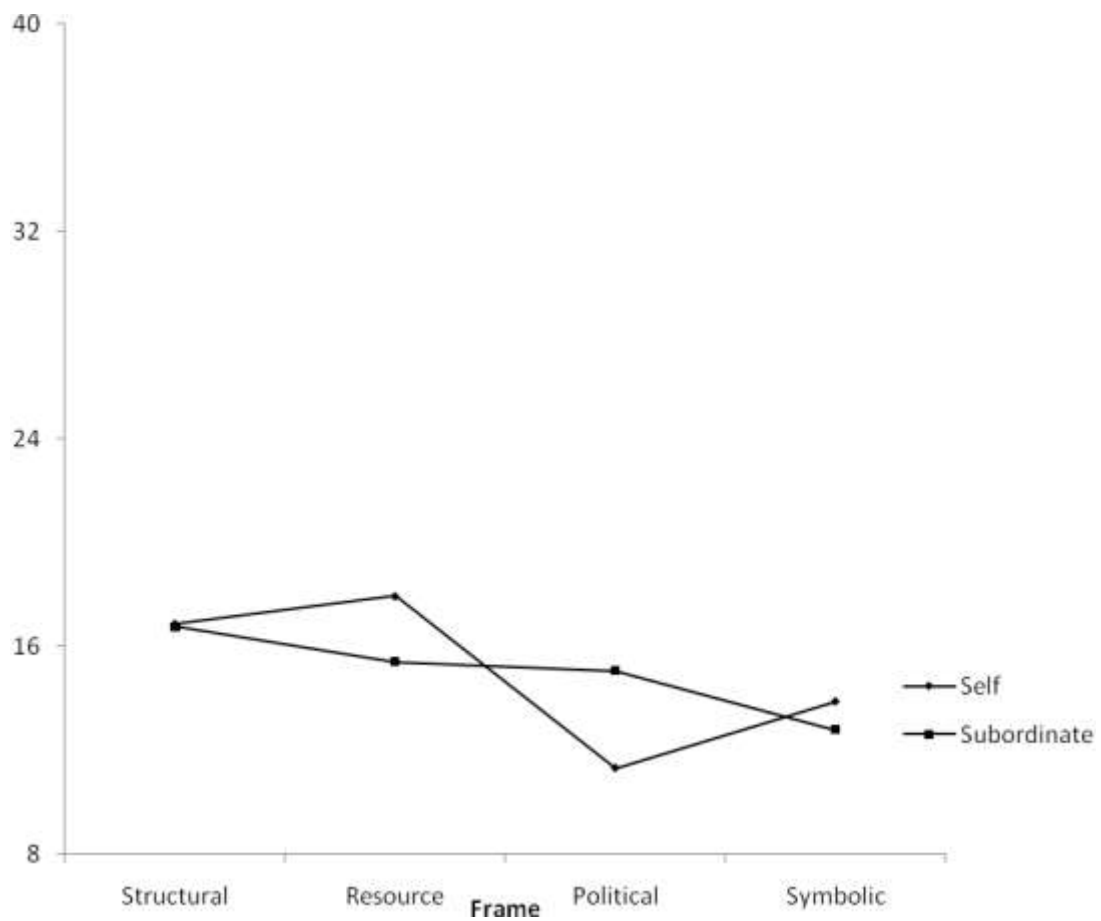
$H_{O3:}$ There is no significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their *leadership and managerial effectiveness* and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates. Means and standard deviations for leader and subordinate perceptions of leadership effectiveness are shown in Table 18. Results of

statistical analysis revealed a non-significant main effect for rater, $F(1, 15) = .017$, $p >$ .01, a non-significant main effect for rating, $F(1, 15) = 3.47$, $p > .01$, and a non-significant rater by rating interaction effect, $F(1, 15) = 2.23$, $p > .01$.

Table 18

Perceptions of Leadership Effectiveness: Leader and Subordinates

Rater	Leader and Subordinate Effectiveness Ratings by Frame			
	Manager		Leader	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Self	4.44	0.629	4.19	0.911
Subordinate	4.31	0.539	4.26	0.551
Combined	4.37		4.22	

Note: Range = 1 - 5

Summary of the Findings

The purpose of this study was to compare leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behavior, orientation, and effectiveness with the perceptions of their supervisors, peers, and subordinates. Data were extracted from a cross-sectional survey of sixteen selected administrators at a North Carolina community college. Leaders' self-perceptions were assessed through Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation Instrument – Self (LOI -Self). The perceptions of leaders' behavior, orientation, and effectiveness

expressed by supervisors, peers, and subordinates were assessed through Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation Instrument – Other (LOI-Other).

The dependent variables in this study were the perceptions of leader behavior, style / orientation, and effectiveness. The independent variables were the groups, including supervisors, peers, and subordinates. A series of nine two-factor Analysis of Variance with Repeated Measures (ANOVA) design was used to analyze the data for each of the three research questions. Perceptions of raters (i.e., self or either supervisor, peer, or subordinate) and types of ratings were within-subject factors. Main effects for raters and ratings and interaction effects for raters by ratings were analyzed.

Results indicated that statistically significant differences did exist between leaders' self-perceptions of their behavior, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by others. Those differences are enumerated under each research question and its corresponding hypotheses. Main effects for raters determined whether perceptions averaged across ratings (scores in each frame) were different across raters (self, supervisor, peers, or subordinates). Main effects for ratings determined whether perceptions averaged across raters were different among ratings in each of the frames. Main effects for rater and ratings (interaction effects) determined whether perceptions were different when averaged across raters and ratings.

Research Question 1: Perceptions of Leaders and Supervisors. Is there a statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their <u>supervisors</u>?

Null Hypothesis (H_{O1}): There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their <u>leadership behaviors</u> and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors. This Null Hypothesis was rejected. A significant main effect for ratings was determined, with follow-up pairwise comparisons revealing significant differences in the ratings for the political ($M=29.75$) and structural ($M=32.59$), political ($M=29.75$) and human resource ($M=32.97$), and symbolic ($M=30.28$) and human resource ($M=32.97$) frames. Combined ratings were highest in the human resource frame, followed by the structural, symbolic, and political frames. Leaders rated themselves higher in all four frames than did their supervisors.

$H_{O2:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their <u>leadership orientation</u> and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors. This Null Hypothesis was rejected. A significant main effect for ratings was determined. Follow-up pairwise comparisons revealed a statistically significant difference between ratings in the human resource ($M=17.60$) and symbolic ($M=12.22$) frames. Leaders rated themselves higher than did their supervisors in those frames.

$H_{O3:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their <u>leadership effectiveness</u> and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors. This Null Hypothesis was rejected. A significant main effect for ratings was determined, with follow-up pairwise comparisons revealing statistically significant differences in the ratings for managerial ($M=4.34$) and leadership ($M=4.03$) effectiveness. Leaders rated themselves

higher than did their supervisors in managerial effectiveness and in leadership effectiveness.

Research Question 2: Perceptions of Leaders and Peers. Is there a significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their peers?

$H_{O1:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions expressed by their peers. This Null Hypothesis was rejected. A significant main effect for ratings and a significant rater by rating interaction effect were determined. Follow-up pairwise comparisons revealed significant differences between ratings in the structural (*M*=32.73) and political (*M*=30.36) frames. Leaders rated themselves higher than did their peers in the structural frame; peers rated leaders higher in the political frame.

$H_{O2:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership orientation and the perceptions expressed by their peers. This Null Hypothesis was rejected. A significant main effect for ratings and a significant rater by ratings interaction effect were determined. Pairwise comparisons revealed statistically significant differences between the ratings in the human resource (*M*=17.36) and symbolic (*M*=12.78) frames. Leaders rated themselves higher than did their peers in both frames.

$H_{O3:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their peers. This Null Hypothesis was retained; no significant

differences in leaders' self-perceptions and the perceptions of their peers concerning leadership effectiveness were determined.

Research Question 3: Perceptions of Leaders and Subordinates. Is there a significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates?

$H_{O1:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates. This Null Hypothesis was rejected. A significant main effect for ratings was determined. Pairwise comparisons revealed significant differences between the ratings for the human resource ($M=33.42$) and political ($M=31.12$) and symbolic ($M=31.55$) frames and between the structural ($M=33.53$) and political ($M=31.12$) frames. Leaders rated themselves higher than did their subordinates in only the human resource frame.

$H_{O2:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership orientation and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates. This Null Hypothesis was rejected. A significant rater by rating interaction effect was determined. Leaders rated themselves higher in the structural, human resource, and symbolic frames and lower in the political frame.

$H_{O3:}$ There is no statistically significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates. This Null Hypothesis was retained. No

statistically significant differences were determined in leaders' self-perceptions of

their effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This final chapter of the dissertation consists of a synopsis of the research, review of the findings, discussion of the conclusions and implications, and recommendations for further study. The synopsis includes a review of the research problem, purpose, questions, and methodology.

Synopsis

A review of the research literature indicated an increasing need for a more situational and transformational approach to inform a new leadership style and perspective among community college presidents and upper level administrators (Bassoppo-Moyo & Townsend, 1997; Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004; Piland & Wolf, 2003). Additionally, the literature revealed that there is value in the use of Bolman and Deal's four frame model of organizational leadership in the determination of leadership styles (Beck-Frazier, 2005; Goldman & Smith, 1991; Guidry, 2007; Miatra, 2007; Sullivan, 2001; Sypawka, 2008; Thompson, 2000) and value in the use of 360-degree assessments, such as the Bolman and Deal model (Chappelow, 2004; Yammarino & Atwater, 1997). Finally, the literature also emphasized that community colleges face a severe leadership crisis due to high rates of administrative retirements inevitable over the next seven to ten years (Fulton-Calkins & Milling, 2005; Shults, 2001; Weisman & Vaughn, 2007), an insufficient number of qualified replacements to compensate for those retirements (Amey, VanDerLinden, & Brown,

2001; Patton, 2004), and a scarcity of available programs for developing future leaders (Piland & Wolf; Wallin, 2006).

The primary purpose of this research study was to examine and compare community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behavior, orientation, and style with the perceptions expressed by their supervisors, peers, and subordinates. The study's secondary purpose was to determine from those comparisons whether statistically significant differences existed between the views of self and others and to identify the implications of such differences for those in leadership positions.

The research questions were as follows:

1. Is there a significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors?

2. Is there a significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their peers?

3. Is there a significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their subordinates?

The researcher used extant data obtained from administration of the LOI-Self and LOI-Other to sixteen members of the President's Cabinet at a North Carolina Community College. Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation Instrument – Self (LOI-Self) and Leadership Orientation Instrument – Other (LOI-Other) were used to record the data. Those instruments contained identical questions posed from the view point of the rater's

role. The LOI-Self assessed leaders' own perceptions of their leadership behavior, orientation, and style. The LOI-Other assessed the perceptions of the individual's behavior, orientation, and style expressed by the leader's supervisor, peers, and subordinates.

Bolman and Deal's instruments analyzed leaders' and others' perceptions within four frames: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic. Each frame served both as a lens, or window, through which individuals view their leadership role and as a tool for navigating that role in the larger arena. Therefore, frame analysis provided insight into the behavior and orientation, or style, of the leader.

Descriptive comparisons were analyzed to examine leadership behavior and orientation within each of the four frames. A series of nine two-factor Analyses of Variance with Repeated Measures (ANOVR) was used to analyze the data for each of the three research questions. Perceptions of raters (i.e., self or either supervisor, peer, or subordinate) and types of ratings were within-subject factors. Main effects for raters and ratings and interaction effects for raters by ratings were analyzed.

Review of the Findings

 Leaders identified the human resource frame as their leadership behavior frame of preference, followed by the structural, symbolic, and political frames. Supervisors' perceptions of leaders' frame preference were identical to leaders' self-perceptions. However, both peers and subordinates indicated that leaders' behaviors reflected a preference for the structural frame, followed by the human resource, symbolic, and political frames. Across all responses, the symbolic and political frames were ranked third and fourth respectively as frame preferences.

Individual frame analysis indicated that subordinates rated leaders higher than leaders rated themselves in the structural frame, while peers and supervisors rated leaders lower. In the human resource frame, leaders' self-perceptions were higher than the perceptions of each of the other groups of respondents. Subordinates also rated leaders higher than leaders rated themselves in the political and symbolic frames. In the political frame, both peers and supervisors rated leaders lower. However, in the symbolic frame, supervisors gave leaders higher ratings than leaders allotted themselves. Peers consistently rated leaders lower in all four frames.

Leaders indicated the human resource frame as their frame preference regarding leadership orientation, or leadership style, followed by the structural, symbolic, and political frames. However, supervisors' ratings revealed leaders' orientation to be overwhelmingly in both the structural and human resource frames. Peer ratings showed leaders' orientation as primarily human resource, followed by structural, political, and symbolic. Subordinates perceived leaders' orientation as predominantly structural, followed by human resource, symbolic, and political. Generally, ratings by leaders and others supported the human resource and structural frames as the major indicators of leadership orientation.

Leadership effectiveness was assessed in two categories – as a manager and as a leader. One-half of the leaders rated themselves in the top 20% of effective managers that they had known, and almost 44% saw themselves in the next 20%. However, others' ratings differed, with over one-third of the supervisors, less than 7% of the peers, and less than 20% of the subordinates placing leaders in the top 20%. One-half of the supervisors and over one-half of peers and subordinates assessed leaders as in the next 20% of

effective managers. Leaders' self-perceptions of their managerial effectiveness were not reinforced by the perceptions of their supervisors, peers, and subordinates.

Similar discrepancies were noted in leadership effectiveness. Almost 44% of leaders depicted themselves in the top 20% of effective leaders they had known. Ratings totaled among supervisors, subordinates, and peers indicated that 44% of the leaders belonged in the top 20%. Over one-half of all supervisors, peers, and subordinates described leaders as in the next to top 20%, while almost 38% of leaders believed that they fit into that category. Finally, 40% of peer ratings labeled leaders as in the middle 20% of both the effective managers and the effective leaders they had known.

Research Questions and Hypotheses.

(1) Is there a significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors? Significant differences were found in leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behavior, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions of their supervisors. In assessing their own leadership behavior, respondents rated themselves higher than did their supervisors in all four frames. Combined ratings for the political frame were significantly different from those for the structural and human resource frames. Combined ratings for the symbolic frame were significantly different than those for the human resource frame. In assessing their leadership orientation, respondents rated themselves higher than did their supervisors in the human resource and symbolic frames; and combined ratings for those frames were significantly different. In assessing their leadership effectiveness,

respondents rated themselves higher both as mangers and as leaders; and combined ratings in managerial and leadership effectiveness were statistically significant.

(2) Is there a significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their peers? Significant differences were found in leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behavior and orientation and the perceptions of their peers. In assessing their leadership behavior, leaders rated themselves higher in the structural, human resource, and symbolic frames than did their peers. Combined ratings for the structural frame were significantly different from those for the political frame. In assessing their leadership orientation, leaders rated themselves higher in the human resource and symbolic frames. Combined ratings for those two frames were significantly different. A significant rater by rating interaction effect depicted similar leader and peer perceptions in the structural and human resource frames, with self-ratings slightly lower in the form and higher in the latter frame. Both leader and peer perceptions were lower and reversed for the political and symbolic frames, with self-ratings lower in the former and higher in the latter frame. In assessing their leadership effectiveness, leaders rated themselves higher both as managers and as leaders; however, no statistically significant differences were determined.

(3) Is there a significant difference between community college leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behaviors, orientation, and effectiveness and

the perceptions expressed by their <u>subordinates</u>? Significant differences were found in leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behavior and orientation and the perceptions of their subordinates. <u>In assessing their leadership behavior</u>, leaders rated themselves higher only in the human resource frame than did their subordinates. Combined ratings for the human resource frame were significantly different from those for the political and symbolic frames, and combined ratings for the structural frame were significantly different from those for the political frame. <u>In assessing their leadership orientation</u>, leaders rated themselves higher in the structural, human resource, and political frames. A significant rater by rating interaction effect depicted similar leader and peer perceptions in the structural, human resource, and symbolic frames, with self-ratings higher in each frame. Both leader and subordinate perceptions were reversed for the political frame, with subordinate ratings higher. <u>In assessing their leadership effectiveness,</u> leaders rated themselves higher as managers and lower as leaders than did their subordinates; however, no statistically significant differences were determined.

<div align="center">Conclusions and Implications</div>

The researcher concluded that significant differences did exist in leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership behavior, orientation, and effectiveness and the perceptions expressed by their supervisors, peers, and subordinates. Although agreeing that leaders' preferred frame was the human resource frame, leaders and supervisors held significantly different perceptions of leadership behavior within the political, structural, and human resource frames and between the symbolic and human resource frames. They

also held significantly different perceptions of leadership orientation within the human resource and political frames and of effectiveness between the domains of manager and leader. Leaders and peers expressed similar differences regarding leadership behavior and orientation. Leaders viewed their behavior as more strongly reflective of the structural, human resource, and symbolic frames than did their peers. Leaders also described their orientation as stronger in the human resource and symbolic frames, whereas peers rated leaders' orientation higher in the structural and political frames. Finally, leaders and subordinates also expressed significantly different views of leadership and orientation within the four frames. Subordinates rated leader behavior higher in the structural, political, and symbolic frames and leader orientation higher in the political frame. Overall, subordinates tended to rate leaders higher and peers tended to rate leaders lower than leaders rated themselves.

Examination of the above discrepancies in leaders' and others' perceptions revealed implications concerning the nature of organizational leadership within Bolman and Deal's four frames. Bolman and Deal (1991a) emphasized that the frames not only affect leaders' perceptions, determining how they define situations, process information, and design courses of action, but also serve as tools to help leaders navigate the organization and all aspects of its operations. They also stressed that each frame has both advantages and disadvantages and that any frame relied upon in the extreme or without a balanced application does not provide a feasible approach to management or leadership. Finally, Bolman and Deal (1984) identified effectiveness as a manager with the structural and human resource frames and effectiveness as a leader with the political and symbolic frames. All respondents indicated that leader behavior and orientation showed a

preference for the structural and human resource frames over the political and symbolic

frames. Those preferences may be reflective of the lack of administrative experience on

the Cabinet: Almost one-third of the members had had no prior administrative

experience, and only one-fourth had had five or more years in an administrative role at

the college. However, regardless of the reason behind the preferences, adherence to the

structural and human resource frames predicts success as managers, not as leaders.

Many of the individuals assessed in this study held significantly different

perceptions of their frame behavior and orientation and of their managerial and leadership

effectiveness than did those evaluating them. Those differences in perception are

especially important when examined within the context of the four frames. For instance,

leaders consistently rated themselves higher than did their supervisors, peers, and

subordinates in the human resource frame. That rating indicates that leaders perceive that

they are more people- than product-oriented, focusing on collaboration and human needs.

However, peers saw leaders as more politically inclined, which signals a proclivity for

competition, coalitions, and conflict. Subordinates also viewed leaders as more political,

structural, and symbolic in their behavior.

Although the vast majority of the literature does not address Bolman and Deal's

four frames specifically, researchers have investigated the importance of self-awareness

(Bolman & Deal, 2003; Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002;

and Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and the implications of differences between the perceptions

of self and others within a 360-degree, or multi-rater, assessment (Chappelow, 2004;

Facteau & Facteau, 1998; Hancock, 1999; and Yammarino & Atwater, 1997). Realistic

self-awareness is a vital component in the building of personal relationships that support

organizational effectiveness and a critical element in the development of emotional intelligence (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Goleman, 2006a; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Differences in self--other perceptions may emanate from a lack of self-awareness --- specifically from over-estimation of self due to one's ignorance of others' perspectives or from under-estimation of self due to one's failure to recognize areas of strength (Yammarino & Atwater). In either case, the implications for the individual leader and for human resource management are obvious: The greater such differences, the greater the distortion between self-awareness of one's behavior and how that behavior is perceived by others; and the greater that distortion, the greater the possibility of a negative impact on one's relationships with others and on one's overall effectiveness.

<div align="center">Recommendations for Further Study</div>

Several recommendations for further study should be noted. First, a more organized, aggressive, and theoretically-based approach to community college leadership needs to be developed at the national, state, and local levels to address the leadership crisis. That approach should be transformational and situational in its philosophy, enabling leaders to bring about positive and lasting change in themselves, in their followers, and in their institutions. As part of that initiative, individual community colleges should design site-based programs to identify and train potential upper-level administrators and managers. Second, community college administrators need to be familiar with Bolman and Deal's four frame theory of organizational leadership as a tool for analysis of leadership behavior, orientation, and effectiveness and as a component of professional development programs for current and aspiring leaders. Understanding and

use of the four frames will better prepare individuals to be effective in their roles. Third, more research should be devoted to the area of community college leadership and particularly to the use of Bolman and Deal's four frames. That research needs to be more comprehensive in nature. Most of the literature reviewed for this dissertation consisted of studies devoted to frame preference within a restricted community college administrative population, such as presidents (Englert, 2008; Goldsmith, 2005; McArdle, 208; and Runkle, 2004) or academic deans (Greenwood, 2008; Russell, 2000; and Sypawka, 2008). University studies were similar in nature, focusing on academic deans (Beck-Frasier, 2005; Cantu, 1997; Guidry, 2007), vice-presidents (Maitra, 2007; Welch, 2002), or department chairs (Chang, 2004). Studies in the leadership behavior, orientation, and style of certain elements of the community college administrative sector would prove most helpful in understanding and developing the total perspective of those in leadership positions. Studies offering a 360-degree comparison of leaders' self-perceptions with the perceptions of their supervisors, peers, and subordinates would especially inform the culture of research in community college leadership. Fourth, a follow-up study with the same population should be conducted after subjects have received training in the application of Bolman and Deal's theory of organizational leadership. A study of this nature would enhance the body of knowledge concerning the possibility and degree of growth within and among the four frames. Finally, the current study should be replicated using subjects at more than one institution to address the limitation of generalizability.

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APPENDIX A: LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO USE LEADERSHIP
ORIENTATION INSTRUMENT

From: Dianne Little <dlittle@cvcc.edu>
Date: Thu, 23 Apr 2009 12:42:44 -0400
To: Lee Bolman <BolmanL@umkc.edu>
Subject: Request for Permission to LOI-Self and LOI-Other

Dr. Bolman,

I am requesting your permission to use the LOI-Self and LOI-Other for research in two capacities: (1) as the Director of the Phillips Leadership Institute at Catawba Valley Community College in Hickory, NC and (2) as a doctoral candidate at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte. In the first capacity, I will be using your instrument to assess the leadership orientation and effectiveness of the President's Administrative Cabinet. In the second capacity, I will be using the LOI-Self and Other as the primary research tool for my dissertation, which will explore the relationship between community college administrators' self-perceptions of their leadership styles and effectiveness and the perceptions held by their supervisors, peers, and direct reports.

Dr. Bolman, I have served in leadership roles for over 30 years; and I deem your research to be among the most significant of all those that I have studied because of its realistic connection to what effective leaders actually do, how they interact with and treat others, and who they are on a consistent basis. I would be honored to be able to use your instrument in my work with the President's Cabinet and in my doctoral studies.

I look forward to hearing from you at your earliest convenience.

Sincerely,
Dianne Little

 College Tech Prep, Teaching Scholars, and Leadership Institute Director
Catawba Valley Community College
2550 Hwy. 70E
Hickory, NC 28602
(828) 327-7000 x 4411
dlittle@cvcc.edu

APPENDIX B: LETTER GRANTING PERMISSSION TO USE LEADERSHIP
ORIENTATION INSTRUMENT

Dear Dianne,

Thanks for your interest in the Leadership Orientations instrument.

I am pleased to offer you permission to use the instrument in your research in return for your
agreeing to the following conditions: (a) you agree to provide us a copy of any publication,
dissertation or report that uses data based on the instrument, and (b) you agree to provide, if
we request it, a copy of your data file.

The instruments and information about their use, including data on internal reliability, and a list
of research using the Bolman and Deal Four Frames Model, can be found at:

http://www.leebolman.com/leadership_research.htm

Best wishes in your research.

Sincerely,

Lee G. Bolman

From: Bolman, Lee G.
Sent: Thursday, April 23, 2009 1:22 PM
To: Bretz, Sandra J.
Subject: FW: Request for Permission to LOI-Self and LOI-Other

APPENDIX C: LEADERSHIP ORIENTATION INSTRUMENT - SELF

LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS (SELF)

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

Section I: Behaviors

You are asked to indicate *how often* each of the items below is true of you. Please use the following scale in answering each item:

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always

So, you would answer "1" for an item if it is never true of you, "2" for an item that is occasionally true, "3" for an item that is sometimes true of you, and so on.
Be discriminating! Your results will be more helpful if you think about each item and distinguish the things that you really do all the time from the things that you do seldom or never.

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

_____ 26. Give personal recognition for work well done.
_____ 27. Develop alliances to build a strong base of support.
_____ 28. Generate loyalty and enthusiasm.
_____ 29. Strongly believe in clear structure and a chain of command.
_____ 30. Am a highly participative manager.
_____ 31. Succeed in the face of conflict and opposition.
_____ 32. Serve as an influential model of organizational aspirations and values.

Section II: Leadership Style

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

1. My strongest skills are

  _____ a. Analytic skills

  _____ b. Interpersonal skills

  _____ c. Political skills

  _____ d. Ability to excite and motivate

2. The best way to describe me is

  _____ a. Technical expert

  _____ b. Good listener

  _____ c. Skilled negotiator

  _____ d. Inspirational leader

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

  _____ a. Make good decisions

  _____ b. Coach and develop people

  _____ c. Build strong alliances and a power base

  _____ d. Energize and inspire others

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

  _____ a. Attention to detail

____ b. Concern for people

____ c. Ability to succeed in the face of conflict and opposition

____ d. Charisma

5. My most important leadership trait is

____ a. Clear, logical thinking

____ b. Caring and support for others

____ c. Toughness and aggressiveness

____ d. Imagination and creativity

6. I am best described as

____ a. An analyst

____ b. A humanist

____ c. A politician

____ d. A visionary

Section III: Overall Rating

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

1. Overall effectiveness **as a manager:**

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

2. Overall effectiveness **as a leader:**

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

APPENDIX D: LEADERSHIP ORIENTATION INSTRUMENT – OTHER

NAME of PERSON BEING RATED:

_____
POSITION of RATER: I am the above person's (circle one) …

Supervisor   Peer   Direct Report   Other

LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS (OTHER)
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This questionnaire asks you to describe the person that you are rating in terms of his/her leadership and management style.

Section I: Behaviors

You are asked to indicate *how often* each of the items below is true of the person that you are rating. Please use the following scale in answering each item:

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always

So, you would answer "1" for an item if it is never true of the person you are describing, "2" for an item that is occasionally true, "3" for an item that is sometimes true, and so on. **Be discriminating!** Your results will be more helpful to the person you are describing if you think about each item and distinguish the things that he/she really does all the time from the things that he/she does seldom or never.

_____1. Thinks very clearly and logically.
_____ 2. Shows high levels of support and concern for others.
_____ 3. Has exceptional ability to mobilize people and resources to get things done.
_____ 4. Inspires others to do their best.
_____ 5. Strongly emphasizes careful planning and clear time lines.
_____ 6. Builds trust through open and collaborative relationships.
_____ 7. Is a very skillful and shrewd negotiator.
_____ 8. Is highly charismatic.
_____ 9. Approaches problems through logical analysis and careful thinking.
_____ 10. Shows high sensitivity and concern for others' needs and feelings.
_____ 11. Is unusually persuasive and influential.
_____ 12. Is able to be an inspiration to others.
_____ 13. Develops and implements clear, logical policies and procedures.
_____ 14. Fosters high levels of participation and involvement in decisions.
_____ 15. Anticipates and deals adroitly with organizational conflict.
_____ 16. Is highly imaginative and creative.
_____ 17. Approaches problems with facts and logic.
_____ 18. Is consistently helpful and responsive to others.
_____ 19. Is very effective in getting support from people with influence and power.
_____ 20. Communicates a strong and challenging sense of vision and mission.

_____ 21. Sets specific, measurable goals and holds people accountable for results.
_____ 22. Listens well and is unusually receptive to other people's ideas and input.
_____ 23. Is politically very sensitive and skillful.
_____ 24. Sees beyond current realities to generate exciting new opportunities.
_____ 25. Has extraordinary attention to detail.
_____ 26. Gives personal recognition for work well done.
_____ 27. Develops alliances to build a strong base of support.
_____ 28. Generates loyalty and enthusiasm.
_____ 29. Strongly believes in clear structure and a chain of command.
_____ 30. Is a highly participative manager.
_____ 31. Succeeds in the face of conflict and opposition.
_____ 32. Serves as an influential model of organizational aspirations and values.

Section II: Leadership Style

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

1. The individual's strongest skills are

   _____ a. Analytic skills

   _____ b. Interpersonal skills

   _____ c. Political skills

   _____ d. Ability to excite and motivate

2. The best way to describe this person is

   _____ a. Technical expert

   _____ b. Good listener

   _____ c. Skilled negotiator

   _____ d. Inspirational leader

3. What this individual does best is

   _____ a. Make good decisions

   _____ b. Coach and develop people

   _____ c. Build strong alliances and a power base

_____ d. Energize and inspire others

4. What people are most likely to notice about this person is his/her

_____ a. Attention to detail

_____ b. Concern for people

_____ c. Ability to succeed in the face of conflict and opposition

_____ d. Charisma

5. This individual's most important leadership trait is

_____ a. Clear, logical thinking

_____ b. Caring and support for others

_____ c. Toughness and aggressiveness

_____ d. Imagination and creativity

6. This individual is best described as

_____ a. An analyst

_____ b. A humanist

_____ c. A politician

_____ d. A visionary

Section III: Overall Rating

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

7. Overall effectiveness as a **manager:**

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

8. Overall effectiveness as a **leader:**

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

ADDENDIX E: PROTOCOL APPROVAL

UNC CHARLOTTE

Compliance Office / Office of Research Services

9201 University City Boulevard, Charlotte, NC 28223-0001
t/ 704.687.3311 f/ 704.687.2292 www.research.uncc.edu/comp/complian.cfm

Institutional Review Board (IRB) for Research with Human Subjects

Approval of Exemption

Protocol #	10-02-43		
Title:	Perception or Reality? A Frame Analysis of Leadership Behavior, Style, and Effectiveness Among Selected Community College Administrators		
Date:	2/24/2010		
Responsible Faculty	Dr.	John	Gretes	Educational Leadership
Investigator	Ms.	Susan Dianne	Little	Educational Leadership

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) certifies that the protocol listed above is exempt under category 4 .

Research involving the collection or study of existing data, documents, records, pathological specimens, or diagnostic specimens, if these sources are publicly available or if the information is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that subjects cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.

Please note that it is the investigator's responsibility to promptly inform the committee of any changes in the proposed research, as well as any unanticipated problems that may arise involving risks to subjects. Amendment and Event Reporting forms are available on our web site: http://www.research.uncc.edu/comp/human.cfm

Dr. M. Lyn Exum, IRB Chair   2/26/10
                                              Date

The UNIVERSITY of NORTH CAROLINA at CHARLOTTE