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# The Relationship Between Leadership Styles and Organizational Culture within Schools of Nursing

Debra K. Vankovich Mullins

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**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLES AND  
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE WITHIN  
SCHOOLS OF NURSING**

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## **Abstract**

### **The Relationship Between Leadership Styles and Organizational Culture within Schools of Nursing**

Debra K. Vankovich Mullins

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between leadership styles and organizational culture within schools of nursing. A non-probability convenience sample (N=149) of subjects was obtained from BSN schools of nursing within the Southern Regional Education Board geographical area. Three data collection tools were utilized including a demographic questionnaire; the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio) which measures transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles; and the Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory (Cameron & Quinn) which measures four culture types including clan, market, adhocracy and hierarchy cultures. A descriptive – correlational design was used. Inferential statistics utilized included multiple regressions using analysis of variance and Pearson's correlations. Significant relationships were evidenced as follows: the main research questions demonstrated that there were statistically significant relationships between the three leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and school organizational culture. With each regression analysis, based on the significance of the beta coefficient parameter estimate, the results showed that measures for transformational leadership had a predictive value for Clan, Adhocracy, and Market Cultures. Transactional leadership was found to have significantly predictive value for Adhocracy and Hierarchy cultures. Laissez-faire leadership was found to have significantly predictive value for the Adhocracy and Market Cultures.

## DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my beloved family who has been a part of this process since the inception -- many, many years ago. My family includes my father Bill Vankovich, husband John, children – Bill, Chris, Kim and Stephen, granddaughters Chey and Jodee, and sisters, Brenda and Donna. I want to especially dedicate this dissertation to the memory of my beloved mother, Marjorie Vankovich and Brother Larry Vankovich, as well as my grandparents, Gazel and Anna Vankovich and Laurence and Cora Moore. To all of my family, but especially my dear mother, I would like to say:

*So much of what I have become*

*is because of you*

*And*

*I want you to know that I appreciate you,*

*thank you,*

*And*

*love you*

*more than words can ever express.*

*-- Susan Polis Shutz*

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To my knowledge, I am the first one in my family to complete a doctoral degree. Education was always one of our most important family values. Two of my siblings have college degrees, both in education and all four of my children graduated from the University of Charleston with bachelor degrees. My son, Bill, has earned a graduate degree in counseling from Marshall and daughter Kimberly, is pursuing a graduate degree in education. I have my parents, Bill and Marjorie Vankovich, to thank for instilling in me the desire to keep going -- to keep climbing that scholastic ladder higher and higher. Hopefully, I have passed on this family value on to my children and they will pass this on to our family -- generations into the future.

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## **CHAPTER I**

### **Introduction**

Leadership and culture have been recognized as critical concepts related to the effective function of organizations. Attempts to define and study leadership and culture began to develop and appear in the literature during the early 1970's. These preliminary works are now foundational to the expansion of leadership and cultural theory. Data extracted from this initial research demonstrates the impact of leadership and culture on organizations (Burns, 1978; Fitzpatrick, Taunton, & Benoliel, 1987; Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Hater & Bass, 1988; Bass, 1990 a & b; Dunham & Fisher, 1990; Murphy & DeBack, 1991; Meighan, 1990; Dunham & Klafehn, 1990; Redmond, 1991; Bryman, 1992; Gevedon, 1992; George & Deets, 1983; Hein & Nicholson, 1994; Bernhard & Walsh, 1990; Barker, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Deal, & Kennedy, 1982; Ouchi, 1981; Peters, & Waterman, 1982; Kilmann, Saxton, & Serpa, 1985; Frost, Moore, Louis, Lundberg, & Martin (Eds.) 1985; Schein, 1984; Ward, & Kumiega, 1990; Ott, 1989; Denison, 1990; Coeling, & Wilcox, 1988; Kramer, 1990; Cooke, & Lafferty, 1989; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass, 1998; Avolio, 2000). The summation of this data indicates that leadership and culture are forces to be reckoned with in relation to their general effects on organizations. According to the literature, leadership can transform cultures from the present to the future and create visions of potential opportunities, instill commitment to change and develop new strategies to focus energy and resources. Quality cultures are conducive to enhancing work environments and may have a positive impact with areas such as worker satisfaction, communication, effectiveness, innovation and creativity (Schein, 1996).

Relevant to the functioning of organizations is the premise that leadership quality is the key to cultures of excellence (Kramer, 1990). An early pioneer in the field of cultural research, Schein (1985), contends that the most important function of a leader is the creation and molding of organizational cultures.

There is an overall consensus that leadership is a dynamic process dependent upon the relationship between the leader and those being led (Barker, 1990; Lett, 1999). One's behavior in relation to a particular type of leadership is influenced by the attitudes and beliefs members within an organization hold about the type of leadership (Hein & Nicholson, 1994; Dixon, 1999). The type of leadership behavior or style exhibited by the leader will therefore have direct ramifications upon the organizational environment and culture (Bass, 1985; Barker, 1990). The leadership will not only transform the individual, but the relationships within the organization as well (Covey, 1990). An effective leader encourages autonomy within the organizational environment and assists in creating an organizational culture which results in both leader and follower being elevated to a higher level of motivation and morality (Burns, 1978).

### **Leadership Theory**

Leadership is an essential element in transformation of organizational culture (Penrod & Dolence, 1992). Peters and Waterman (1982) describe culture as a factor in determining the quality of organizations. Clark, Cronenwet, Thompson, & Reeves (1991) contend that culture can be viewed as a factor which influences the effectiveness of an organization. The leader who firmly establishes the corporate culture can mold and restructure that culture (Bass, 1985). Therefore, the selection and retention of an

administrator who can influence a culture in a constructive manner is a necessary task for any organization.

According to Schein (1985) leadership is intermeshed with the formation, evolution, transformation and even the destruction of culture. The organization's culture may influence employee behavior (Schein, 1985; Buskirk & McGrath, 1999; Aycan, Rabindra, Kanungo, & Sinha, 1999). Schein (1985) contends that culture is carried out by the individual and is a learned pattern of behavior. It is expressed by rituals, rites of passage, and symbols. Culture is something to which the leader must be aware of and sensitive.

Leaders within organizations such as institutions of higher education must assess and implement changes to various aspects of organizational culture ingrained in areas such as mission, statement of philosophy, personnel policies, goal planning, marketing strategy, and image-making. This is necessary to maintain credibility of the institution and meet criteria for various accrediting bodies, maintain standards of educational excellence, and acquire/retain quality faculty (Marriner-Tomey, 1993; Robles, 1998). Organizational cultures that are independent, confident, creative, and share decision-making do not rely on traditional methods of leadership such as hierarchical authority (Lowery, 1991).

Organizations as systems function within a network of interacting component parts influencing and being influenced by leaders, followers, and the environment in which they co-habitate (Jacobs, 1971; Hollander, 1979). Characteristics of the influence exerted by the environment are described through the culture of the organization. The recruitment, selection, promotion and deletion of members within an organization have great impact on cultural growth and evolution. Organizational culture perpetuates itself through the recruitment and retention of members selected by the leader. The selection

of personnel who fit in with the cultural ideals and assumptions assists in embedding and perpetuating the culture. Leaders have the power to form, transform, or destroy a particular culture. Current employees are usually retained and promoted on the basis of criteria related to cultural congruency. Understanding the relationship that exists between the leader and the culture is a mechanism for understanding the functioning of the organization (Schein, 1985; 1996).

In order to be a successful leader, one must be able to accurately assess the organization's culture and assist followers in understanding it as well. Knowledge of organizational culture may provide an important vehicle for understanding the beliefs and behaviors of individuals in an organization. When an employee's beliefs agree with the organizational culture, the culture will be perceived as good. When an employee's beliefs conflict with the culture, it will be deemed poor (Marquis & Huston, 1997). The success or failure of the culture may be determined by the leader and by the people chosen by the leader to dwell within the system. It is therefore imperative that the leader understand and recognize the complexity and importance of culture (del Bueno & Vincent, 1986).

Schein, contends (1985) that one of the most important and unique functions of a leader is to shape the culture of an organization. Strong, positive cultures provide the framework for more effective organizational performance (Bass & Avolio, 1993). The connection between leadership and organizational culture suggests that the leader does have the ability to influence culture (Lewis, 1996). Since organizational success and excellence rests upon strong, positive cultures (Peters & Waterman, 1982) then it is imperative to have a leader with the ability to cultivate quality within the culture.

The connection between leadership and culture is suggestive that a leader can transform an organization and change a culture (Lewis, 1996). The importance of studying the relationship between leadership and organizational culture, particularly the development and change in cultural ideology, is illustrated by the research of Peters and Waterman (1982). Their study revealed that well-managed companies had strong cultures and that these strong cultures were usually a consequence of leaders who created sets of cultural beliefs within the organization. Bass (1985) contends that personalities and talents of the leaders are reflected in the organization and culture that develops. In order to be successful and influential leader it is necessary to uncover the cultural indicators such as values and assumptions and make conscious decisions about transforming culture through compliance or noncompliance to the norms and values within (del Bueno & Vincent, 1986).

While Schein (1985) states that "leadership and culture are two sides of the same coin and neither can really be understood by itself" (p. 2), the dimensions of the relationship between leadership and organizational culture still have not been clearly explicated by research. Reasons for this lacking of clarity may be due to the complexity and nature of culture and the developmental nature of the instruments (Hoy & Miskel, 1991). Although numerous studies exist concerning leadership, Bass (1990) suggests that the majority of research has been set in business, government and military environments. Also, leadership and culture have been exhaustively examined as separate entities, however, lesser data exist regarding the relationship between these two variables. Even fewer studies have been conducted examining leadership, culture and schools of nursing (ERIC and the Cumulative Index for Nursing and Allied Health, 1985 - 2001). Lewis (1996) contends there is a "great gap in the documentation of leadership and culture

theory” (p.270). Although there is research available involving organizational culture in higher education, several authors have identified a paucity of research in this area (Chaffee & Tierney, 1988; Chait, 1988; Dill, 1982; Masland, 1985; Farazmand, 1999). Limited research exists relevant to transformational leadership and culture within higher education settings particularly schools of nursing. Previous studies investigating these concepts will serve as citations within this text since the elements of leadership and organizational culture may be the same within any organization (Chaffee & Tierney, 1988; Dill, 1982, Masland, 1985; Wills & Lincoln, 1999; Mulhare, 1999).

### **Culture Theory**

It was not until the beginning of the 1980’s that organizational scholars and leaders begin to realize the importance of culture on organizations. (Ouchi, 1981; Pascale & Athos, 1981; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Prior to this time, researchers had focused on documenting, explaining, and building upon pre-existing management models. Culture was totally ignored. The values, underlying assumptions, expectations, collective memories, and definitions in an organization were not considered critical components to the effectiveness of organizations. Basically, there was lack of knowledge and understanding pertaining to the impact culture has on the organization and individuals who dwell within. Researchers and scholars attempted to explain functioning or organizations from old, out-dated models. The innovator of modern management, Peter Drucker (1962) concluded that every 200 to 300 years, people do not understand the world anymore and the past is not sufficient to explain the future. The fast-paced changes that have occurred in technology and communications within the past several decades have made it alarmingly difficult for organizations to stay current, to accurately predict the future or to maintain the constancy of direction. Lack of

understanding of the impact culture has on organizations have had serious repercussions on numerous failed organizations in the past several decades (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Several studies have cited failure to change the organization's culture as reason for doom or failure of numerous corporations (CSC Index, 1994; Caldwell, 1994; Gross, Pascale, & Athos, 1993; Kotter and Heskett, 1992). Culture has been found to be an important determinant of effective organizations and has an important impact on attitudes, behavior, and function within organizations

Like leadership, culture continues to be an elusive, yet all important aspect of organizations. The onset of research into organizational culture was the idea that there was something within effective organizations that set them apart from organizations of similar function (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

Due to the abstract nature of culture, attempts to define, yet alone operationalize culture have been difficult. Many definitions of culture exist including:

“It's the way we do things around here.” (Deal & Kennedy, 1988, p.13).

“Corporate culture is the pattern of shared beliefs and values that shapes the meaning of an institution for its members and behavior in their organization provides them with the rules for on.” (Davis, 1984, p.1);

“It is a set of common understandings for organizing action and language and other symbolic vehicles for expressing these common understandings. Organizational cultures represent the collective, shared meaning of existence in the organization and how life in this setting is to proceed.” (Sathe, 1985, p. 2).

“A pattern of basic assumptions, invented or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration”. (Schein, 1985,p.9);

“Sets of commonly held cognitions that are held with some emotional investment and integrated into a logical system or cognitive map that contains cognitions about descriptions, operations, prescriptions, and causes. It influences perception, thinking, feeling, and action (Sackman, 1991, p. 34).

According to Cameron and Quinn (1999) there has been a general lack of consensus related to defining culture and there has been difficulty in conducting cultural research due to abstract nature of culture. Numerous researchers contend that culture should include the total environmental qualities within an organization. Other researchers believe that culture should be measured by objective or perceptual measures. Perception depends upon previous experiences, needs and values of those studied. It has been concluded that culture is what organizational members believed it to be. However in the field of education, there continues to be a lack of consistency related to defining culture.

Cameron and Quinn (1999) contend that effective organizations are influenced by culture. The components of culture include the unique language, symbols, rules, and ethnocentric feelings. The organization's culture is reflected by what is valued, the dominant leadership styles, language and symbols, procedures and routines. Culture has a powerful effect on the performance and long-term effectiveness of organizations. Empirical research has demonstrated the importance of culture to enhancing organizational performance (Cameron & Ettington, 1988; Denison, 1990; Trice & Beyer, 1993). Kotter and Heskett (1992) interviewed 75 financial analysts. Each analyst compared the performance of twelve highly successful organizations. Only one of the 75 analysts indicated that culture was not a critical component of organizational success.

The impact of culture is not only evident to the organizational-level effect, but the impact of culture is also demonstrated on the individual pertaining to employee morale, commitment, productivity, health and well-being (Kozlowski, Chao, Smith, & Hedlund, 1993). With health care costs sky-rocketing and burnout being at an all time high, there

are literally billions of dollars spent each year in relation to illness and employee dissatisfaction. Sick days, workers compensation, employee replacement and retraining are all costly to any organization. Understanding the underlying culture may lead to culture change that would enhance and improve the overall effectiveness of organizations.

Numerous models exist that measure organizational culture. In their desire to demonstrate the importance of culture on organizations, Cameron & Quinn (1999) developed the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). This instrument identifies four distinct culture types. The Hierarchy Culture is a formalized and structured place to work. Procedures are the key to government and running of the organization. Long-term concerns are stability, predictability and efficiency. Formal rules and policies hold the organization together.

The Market Culture is a results-oriented culture. Leaders are producers and competitors. The glue of the organization is the emphasis on winning.

The Clan Culture is a friendly place to work. People share much of their-selves. Leaders are mentors. The emphasis is the long-term development of team-work and participation. Loyalty and tradition are important components.

The Adhocracy Culture is dynamic, entrepreneurial and creative workplace. People take risks. Leaders are visionary, innovative and risk oriented. Readiness and willingness for change are key aspects of this culture.

In research conducted by Cameron and Freeman (1991) using the OCAI, an examination was made of the relationship between three dimensions of culture — cultural strength, congruence, and type and organizational effectiveness. Cameron identified the

dimensions of organizational effectiveness in institutions of higher education (1991) and this study used these dimensions to investigate the extent in which strong cultures were more effective than weak cultures, congruent cultures were more effective than incongruent cultures, and the extent to which effectiveness differed between different types of organizational cultures. The study revealed that strength and congruence were not as powerful in predicting organizational effectiveness as cultural type. There were no statistically significant differences between strong and weak cultures or between congruent and incongruent cultures and various dimensions of organizational effectiveness. There were significant differences when comparing the culture types with effectiveness. The results indicated that:

- Clan-type cultures were most effective in domains of performance relating to morale, satisfaction, internal communication and supportiveness. This culture had high cohesion, collegiality in decision making and sense of identity and mission.
- Adhocracy-type cultures were most effective in domains of performance related to adaptation, system openness, innovation and cutting-edge knowledge. This culture was innovative, aggressive strategically, and initiative.
- Market-type cultures were most effective in domains of performance related to the ability to acquire resources such as revenues, good faculty, institutional viability. This culture was characterized by aggressiveness and prospector strategies.
- Hierarchy-type cultures did not excel in any performance domain. This culture was characterized by tight fiscal control.

## Conclusions

As evidenced by the literature review, empirical research has been conducted pertaining to transformational leadership and culture in corporate settings. Leadership has been researched in great detail. It has been more difficult to study culture due to the abstract nature of its being. Even fewer studies have attempted to determine the relationship that may exist between the two concepts. To a much lesser degree have either leadership and/or culture been examined within schools of nursing. The ability to extrapolate prior research findings related to transformational leadership and organizational culture to school of nursing environments is problematic and has yet to be generalized.

Bass (1998) asserts that leadership and culture are interrelated. Creating, changing, and shaping culture are all roles of effective leaders. (Deal and Peterson, 1993).

Bass and Avolio (1994) contend that effective organizations are dependent upon transformational leaders who are able to develop positive cultures. Leadership is essential in shaping the culture of any organization.

Principles of leadership and culture derived from previous research of business, military, and government could be applicable to schools of nursing. Because academic organizations must be managed just as any other organization (Dill, 1982; Masland, 1985), and since central obligation of higher education administrators is to create an environment or culture that promotes teaching effectiveness (Association of American Colleges, 1985), the organizational culture of colleges and universities should be further

investigated. This research study will strive to provide findings valuable to the extension of knowledge demonstrating a relationship between leadership and culture.

### **Research Questions**

The purpose of this study is to determine faculty perceptions pertaining to the relationship between measurements of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership and organizational culture within schools of nursing. Utilization of Bass' (1985) and Bass & Avolio's (1991) transformational and transactional leadership model and Cameron and Quinn's (1999) organizational culture model will provide the framework for this study. The results may benefit nursing education by augmenting the delivery of nursing education.

Perception is defined as the act of becoming aware through observation and detection (Nelson, 1984; Polit and Hungler, 1999). According to Burns and Grove (1997) there is an initial way of perceiving or seeing a phenomenon. This perception is based on the assumption that the way the phenomenon is being seen at the time is the one and only way of seeing what is real. This phenomenon or relationship between school of nursing leader and school of nursing culture is influenced by numerous variables within the environment which are perceptually based (Mansen, 1993) and observed through a specific frame of reference by the program coordinator. Most of the definitions of leadership in the literature are perceptions of subordinates (P. Leary, personal communication, April 3, 1995). Uncovering the relationship and the meaning of this perception will provide increased insight into the depth and complexity of the phenomenon under investigation (Burns and Grove, 1997).

This study is designed to determine the relationship between the leadership styles of nursing deans and school of nursing culture as perceived by nursing faculty. Three research questions have been posed for this study. These questions are stated as follows:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership and school culture?
2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between transactional leadership and school culture?
3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and school culture?

### **Assumptions**

The study being conducted is based on Bass' (1985) model of transformational leadership and Cameron and Quinn's (1999) model of culture. This researcher is assuming that this model is applicable to the school of nursing leader leadership style. Realistically, school of nursing leaders may identify their own leadership style. However, this may lead to a biased interpretation. It is also possible for the nursing faculty to observe and identify leadership behaviors of the NEL. Again there is a risk of bias dependent upon the relationship status of the NEL and program coordinator.

The instrument being used to study NEL leadership style utilizes perceptions of subordinates. The subordinate raters will be determined by the NEL instead of by an independent, non-biased person. This could result in inflated ratings (Seltzer and Bass, 1990).

## **Operational Definitions**

1. School of nursing department chairs will be the nurse education leader (NEL) employed by BSN (baccalaureate schools of nursing) from National League of Nursing accredited baccalaureate schools of nursing within the Southern Regional Education Board
2. Leadership style of the NEL will be the independent variable. Leadership will be defined as scores on the 45 item Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire version 5X MLQ (Bass, 1994) to obtain transformational, transactional and laissez-faire composites (Bass, Avolio, & Goodheim, 1987).
  - Transformational leadership-is the mean score of the 20 items of the transformational leadership component of the MLQ5x as reported by nursing faculty.
  - Transactional leadership-is the mean score of the 12 items of the transactional leadership component of the MLQ5x as reported by nursing faculty.
  - Laissez-faire leadership-is the mean score of the 4 items of the laissez-faire leadership component of the MLQ5x as reported by nursing faculty.
3. Organizational culture will be defined as the scores obtained from the 48 item Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).
4. Nursing faculty will be defined as those who teach nursing within school of nursing programs within National League of Nursing accredited baccalaureate degree schools of nursing located within the domain of the Southern Regional Education Board and who report to the NEL or dean of nursing.

## Significance of the Study

**Limited Research.** As early as 1989, there had been some 10,000 books and articles published on the topic of leadership (Yukl, 1989), much of which has focused on describing leadership in terms of the individual or the environment. Research into the nature of the relationship between the two has infrequently been documented (Mariner-Tomey, 1993). Researchers have concentrated their studies on selected segments of the population such as the military, business managers, and students. Only recently have populations such as nurses, women, and minorities become the subject of investigation (Mariner-Tomey, 1993). Nursing research has been primarily client-focused and deals with health and/or health care issues. Nursing leadership studies predominately have been conducted within health care institutions. According to Miller, Heller, Moore, and Sylvia (1987) there has been a lack of research in the area of higher education administration in nursing schools. Limited research exists in the area of examining schools of nursing culture as well. These authors contend that research in this area may contribute equally to the nursing profession as those who conduct clinical research. There is a recognized need for studies related to nursing administration leadership (Marquis & Huston, 2000).

In the early 1970's, Dressel and Mayhew (1974) recognized that the faculty and administration in higher education should be as much a focus of research study as the students. Yet not nearly as much research has been done concerning faculty and their leaders as is necessary to determine conditions under which they exist in colleges and universities. The research on the transformational paradigm was derived from observations of top managers in business organizations (Bryman, 1992). Few studies examine the middle and lower level managers such as deans and department

coordinators. Bass (1997) reported his initial assumption, that TFL (transformational leader) was limited to the upper management of organizations may have too narrow a focus. This assumption persuaded him to collect his first interview and survey data from and about senior executives and US Army colonels describing their leaders.

During the most recent literature search for this study, information was obtained regarding the amount of published literature pertaining to transformational leadership, organizational culture and schools of nursing. Electronic/internet searches dating back to the early 1980's to the present date (4-22-01) yielded the following data:

	CINALH	ERIC	INFO TRACT
Transformation Leadership	90	184	830
Organizational Culture	118	760	630
Transformational Leadership and Organizational Culture	14	8	21
Transformational Leadership/Culture And School of Nursing	0	2	0

Theory and research have a relationship that is reciprocal and mutually beneficial. Theory guides and generates ideas for research (Polit & Hungler, 1999; Fain, 1999). The fact that organizational culture is an abstract concept and is difficult to quantify will be evidenced through the literature review of this study. The research questionnaire, Culture Assessment Inventory (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) that will be used in examining organizational culture is relatively new and has not been used extensively. Since concepts and relationships that become validated empirically through research become

the foundation for theory development (Polit & Hungler, 1999), then findings of this study may further enhance the credibility of the tool and also contribute in some small way to expanding the theoretical base of leadership and culture.

### Organizational Change

The only thing that is constant in this world is change. Oliver Wendall Holmes stated “I find the great thing in this world is not so much where we stand as in what direction we are moving” (Strauss, 1968, p.462). Successful leaders have to be able to adapt and move in synchrony and harmony with an ever changing environment (Warden, 1997). Complexity is the nature of change in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. According to the Pew Health Commissions Report (O’Neil, 1993) the evolving health care system will focus on meeting challenges related to such areas as intensive use of information, focus on the consumer, knowledge of treatment outcomes, economics constrained resources, coordination of services, consideration of human values, accountability and growing interdependence. As the health care system changes, so must nursing. Nursing education will have to address these issues related to health care as well as the evolving world of student demographics, economics and technological advances (Sullivan, 1997; Hart, 1999; Starck, Warner, & Kotarba, 1999). Survival skills necessary in higher education include the ability to focus on serving society’s needs (Triolo, Pozehl, & Mahaffey, 1997; Sullivan, 1997).

New environments and technologies must be utilized in order to evolve with the rest of the world. Restructuring and reinventing organizations is a reality that has come. Change within organizations involves human beings and the human response has to be taken into consideration. The leader has the potential to direct members of a particular

culture toward change (Connell, 1999; Cartwright, Andrews, & Webley, 1999). It is the responsibility of the leader to assist the members to unlearn dysfunctional values and assumptions that have been formulated within the culture. An increased awareness into the various characteristics of culture and leadership style may assist in understanding personnel behavior, identifying necessary organizational changes and developing a more efficient organization (Bass & Avilio, 1990; Harris & Ogbonna, 1999).

Understanding the norms and values of the culture can assist the leader with positively influencing them to benefit the organization and participation in changing those which negatively affect organizational performance (Barker, 1990). Leaders act as social architects who restructure the cultural networks within a system. The wisest approach in dealing with OC (organizational culture) is to work with and through the existing culture (Clement, 1994; Racine, 1999). By restructuring communication channels, the flow of information is realigned and change is facilitated (Mariner-Tomey, 1993).

The 19<sup>th</sup> century university model is obsolete, as are the leaders who still reside within the confines of its archaic walls. Societal changes are demanding that higher education become more accountable. In order to be successful, leaders within higher education must be able to create new visions, clearly see the future, and energize efforts to implement the vision. Leaders have to redefine higher education and decide how to meet society's needs in both the present and future (Sullivan, 1997).

**Employee Recruitment.** Identification of leadership style in relation to organizational culture is important for several reasons. By providing a method of assessing the environment cultural and leadership analysis would be one means of

screening, preparing, and recruiting potential leaders for consideration of employment (Schein, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Parker, 1995; Marquis & Huston, 2000) as well as constructing job descriptions (American Organization of Nurse Executives, 1993).

**Decision-making.** Increasing awareness of how leadership behaviors influence organizational cultures will enable the leader to enhance the participation of personnel in decisions that affect work and environment (Mariner-Tomey, 1993; Hein & Nicholson, 1998; Hawks, 1999; Marquis, 2000). One important role of leadership is to educate and instill confidence in people (Grohar & Dicroce, 2003). The knowledge of the employee is one of the most valuable assets of an organization. Knowledgeable and confident employees will be more likely to assume the role of shared decision-making (Porter, 1997) and move past the locus of control from hierarchical control to sharing of power. The leader must encourage employees to learn and grow. According to Schein (1996) in order for an organization to succeed, there will have to be more shared leadership. A shared leadership would benefit the NEL in determining the type of decision-making warranted such as by consensus, participative management, or use of consultants (del Bueno & Vincent, 1986).

**Employee Retention/Promotion/Transfer.** A positive culture is related to high morale, productivity, and employee retention (Ward & Kumiega, 1990; Hein, 1998). Retention of high quality faculty members contributes to the organization by reducing costs of personnel search and orientation. Bass and Avolio (1990) contend that leadership assessment will also benefit the organization in matters of identifying employees worthy of promotion or transfer.

**Organizational Effectiveness/Achievement of Goals.** Analysis of organizational culture is the newest and least developed method in assessing organizational effectiveness and goal achievement (Quinn & McGrath, 1995). According to Etzioni,(1964) organizations are rational systems that exist to accomplish stated goals and are effective only to the degree that identifiable goals are achieved.

Identification of factors associated with student success in the National Council Licensure Examination-Registered-Nurses is critical for schools of nursing (Albert, 1988). The ultimate goal of nursing schools is to achieve at least the national average of 92 percent passage rate on the National Council Licensure Examination for Registered Nurses (NCLEX, 2000). America's first interstate compact for education, the Southern Regional Education Board, is a nonprofit, nonpartisan organization that helps government and education leaders in its 16 member states work together to advance education and improve the social and economic life of the region. The nation and all 16 SREB member states face an acute shortage of nurses that is expected to grow as the population ages and health care needs expand. Goals for the SREB include both increasing the quality and quantity of nursing graduates.

To help meet these goals, the SREB Council on Collegiate Education for Nursing has become a leader in cooperative planning and activities that strengthen nursing education in colleges and universities in the South (SREB, 2007). The council serves as a regional resource center for nursing education in Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia and the District of Columbia.

The SREB Council on Collegiate Education for nursing reports the following statistics related to the number of graduates and passage rates for NCLEX-RN for 2005 (SREB, 2007) include:

	<b>Candidate Number</b>	<b>Number Passed</b>	<b>% Passed</b>
<b>SREB</b>	13,481	11,849	87.90
<b>Non-SREB</b>	22,015	18,941	86
<b>ALL</b>	35,496	30,770	86.70

Candidate numbers and passage rates clearly indicate both a need for more qualified nursing candidates and higher passage rates to meet the national average standards.

According to Hoy and Miskel (1987), Travis & Higgins (1994) and Marquis & Huston (2000) the environment of the organization influences the achievement of the goals and effectiveness of both the individual and the organization. Organizations are effective if the dimensions of the culture facilitate organizational goal achievement (Dennison, 1990).

It is important to understand the employee's adaptability, identification with mission, level of involvement, consistency with shared meaning and values. Values within a culture that provides meaning leads to effective behavior congruent with the mission and goals of the organization (Casey, 1999; Suzuki, 1997). Analysis of effectiveness and goal achievement begins with identifying the basic underlying assumptions about mission, operations and the future; performing an assessment of shared meanings with the environment; and relating these factors to goal achievement (Baker, Reising, Johnson, Stewart, & Baker, 1997). Therefore, understanding and identifying characteristics of culture within school of nursing may assist in promotion of

improved student outcomes and achievement of organizational goals (Baker, Reising, Johnson, Stewart, and Baker, 1997) such as successful NCLEX scores.

**Training Administrators.** Currently there is a health care crisis in the United States. Coupled with the current reduction in health care resources and funding, there is also a critical nursing shortage. Schools of nursing have to set the direction for changes in which to meet the current health care dilemma. Current and future leaders of nursing school's must remain proactive in regards to defining nursing role in health care (Shugaars, O'Neil, & Bader, 1991).

There has been a high turnover rate of NEL's retiring or moving back to faculty positions. Forty four percent of the NEL's report their ages to be in the range of 55 to 64 years. This age range may indicate the near eminence of retirement of the majority of NEL's which may result in a critical shortage of NEL's (AACN, 1999). Bamberg (2000) examined future turnover rates in NEL's. One hundred deans were surveyed from schools affiliated with the Association of Schools of Allied Health Professions. The response rate was 88%. Of those responding, 58% plan to retire in the next decade; 28% were unsure of their plans. In order to enhance change and transform schools of nursing, it will be necessary to train new visionary leaders and encourage the development of leadership, communication, and organizational skills among existing leaders (DeYoung, 2000; Short, 1997).

Individual consideration, charisma, and intellectual stimulation underlie the effective transformational leader. According to Bass (1990; 1994) these dimensions of leadership can be learned and therefore, have implications for schools which train education administrators. Also, in-service training for those administrators already on the

job may prove beneficial in changing pre-set notions and learned administrative behaviors.

According to Lundberg (1996) the field of organizational culture has recently emerged into the curricula and courses in higher education. OC is the basic source and vehicle of organizational meanings and is the “reservoir of solutions to the ongoing and recurring issues and fundamental tasks of all organizations.” (p. 11). The very survival of organizations is dependent upon culture. Therefore it behooves organizations and higher education institutions to become more cognizant of the importance of educating future leaders in the ways and means of OC.

**Insight/Awareness** The findings from this study may provide NEA with information to consider in examining ways of structuring their relationships with their faculty. In the presence of declining financial resources, reduced staffing levels and consumer demand for high quality nursing care, NEL must demonstrate insight into the organizational culture. An awareness of the underlying forces can help the NEL understand personnel behavior, identify necessary organizational changes, and help develop the organization to function more efficiently (Thomas, Ward, Chorba, & Kumiega, 1990). Developing a better understanding through increased knowledge of OC and provide better insight into strategies which an organization can undertake to improve it’s overall quality (Hodges & Hernandez 1999).

**Reward.** Allocation of resources and rewards can be acquired by a particular culture if the leader is able to demonstrate the value to the organization. This can only be accomplished if the leader has a thorough knowledge and understanding of the culture (del Bueno & Vincent, 1986). Much of an organization’s culture has a direct impact on

the quality of work life. People who feel high self-esteem consistently outperform the mean. Fostering a quality culture whereby recognition, appreciation, and other non-tangible rewards are deemed important assists in creating a quality workplace. (Penrod & Dolence, 1992; Marquis & Huston, 2000).

**Increased Knowledge.** Contemporary nursing science stresses holistic understanding of human beings who are in constant interaction with their environment (Murray & Zentner, 2000). Presently there is limited information regarding the interaction between school of nursing leaders and the school's culture. There is a great need for the production and distribution of knowledge that will enable nurse leaders to better understand the characteristics of leadership and the influence leaders have on the organization. This study will add to the research literature on the nursing leadership and organizational culture. Increased knowledge related to these concepts has important implications for the organization in relation various aspects of it's function including evolution and change, enhanced leader effectiveness and goal achievement, and the identification, selection and training of leaders (Mariner-Tomey, 1993).

### **Limitations**

A purposeful action process within the realm or research is the process of boundary setting or bounding. The selection of subjects, setting, concepts, events, proceedings or other phenomena may influence the results of the study and thereby taint the quest for knowledge development. The results of boundary setting or bounding is also referred to as limitations Deploy & Gitlin, 1998). Limitations of this study include the questionnaire, respondent bias, sample/population, and research tool.

**Questionnaire.** Studies conducted using the survey method for gathering data are dependent upon the respondent to answer factually and accurately. Questions are closed-ended. Alternatives are fixed. The opportunity for subjects to express their true feelings and thoughts are obliterated. Questions are open to the interpretation of the research subjects. Scope is emphasized over depth and there is some degree of measurement error which can affect the explanation of the results (Kerlinger, 1986). Respondents may also decline to answer lengthy and in-depth questionnaires.

**Bias.** Respondents' bias may result in tendencies to respond in "set patterns which have little relation to the reality or content of the research" (Oyster, Hanton & Llorens, 1987, p. 124). As previously mentioned, the NEL will distribute the questionnaire to the faculty. The present relationship between the two could result in a biased response.

**Population Generalizability.** The study will be limited to data collected from nursing education leaders and faculty from baccalaureate schools of nursing, which may limit generalizability of findings to other organizations.

### **Summary**

Presented in this chapter were the subject, focus and background of this study. The theoretical concepts of leadership and organizational culture were examined. This study will delve into the relationship of NEL and nursing faculty as related to perceptions of leadership style and organizational culture. The proposed relationship between transformational leader, transactional leader, laissez-faire leader and culture within schools of nursing will be explored. Due to the changing economy and evolution of the health care system, nursing education is on the threshold of becoming critically ill. Nursing education programs are bombarded with demands from the public as well as

accrediting institutions to improve effectiveness, control costs, increase accountability and produce competent, well-trained nurses. Numerous challenges face schools of nursing including budget constraints, a health care system in crisis, a critical shortage of nurses, and new technological/scientific advances in medicine, all of which have an impact on the nature in which nursing programs function. Schools of nursing have to evolve and adapt to change in order to meet these challenges in order to remain viable organizations. Leadership is a key component related to the success or failure of organizations. Transformational leadership has been empirically associated with improved performance, enhanced effectiveness and productivity.

## **Chapter 2**

### **Review of The Literature**

#### **Introduction**

Having leadership that promotes cultures of quality is important to any institution. With the problems faced by higher education and schools of nursing today, it is particularly important to have leaders who assist in the creation of cultures of excellence. Transformational nurse leaders design work environments that satisfy the needs of nurses and enhance the quality of the work place (Marquis & Huston, 2000). Davidhizar (1993) contends that the nurse leader combines a focus on nursing's "heritage of caring with redesigning the nursing organizations both to facilitate team work and to recognize and allow the individual to achieve their full potential" (p. 675). The purpose of this research is to investigate the relationship between the leadership styles of NEL and culture within schools of nursing. This chapter will present theoretical and research literature related to the evolution of transformational leadership (TFL), transactional leadership (TRL), and organizational culture (OC).

For simplification of writing this paper, certain abbreviations for key concepts will be stated as:

**TFL** – transformational leader or leadership;

**TRL** – transactional leader or leadership;

**OC** – organizational culture;

**NEL** – nursing education leader or dean;

**NF** – nursing faculty;

**MLQ** – Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire;

## **OCAI - Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory**

### **Leadership and Culture Connection**

The term leadership was not devised until the first half of the nineteenth century (Mariner-Tomey, 1993, Marquis & Huston, 2000). The empirical study of leadership formally began in the early 1930's (Metcalf & Metcalf, 2001). Since the onset of leadership studies began, there has been a quest to adequately define the concept. Leadership has numerous meanings dependent upon the purpose for which it is to be utilized. Leadership is often confusing and ambiguous and researchers have attempted for years to define it (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). The difficulty to arrive at a concrete definition is related to the use of imprecise terms used to describe the phenomena such as power, authority, control, management, administration, and supervision. There is no single definition broad enough to encompass the magnitude of the leadership process. The work of Burns (1978) was one of the earliest recognized writings on transformational leadership. Bass (1985) later expanded upon Burns' work and applied it to business organizations.

Tichy and Devanna (1986), Bennis and Nanus (1985), and Kouzes and Posner (1987) have also researched successful leaders and found that the leaders they studied possess characteristics that are represented in the transformational leadership theory developed by Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1990, 1994). Burns (1978) states "leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth" (p. 2). In order to assist in defining leadership for the purpose of this study, it will be viewed as a concept that has the potential to influence the culture of an organization. Innovative

leadership is needed to create the vision and culture necessary in the delivery of excellence within an organization (Coeling & Wilcox, 1988; Dunham, 2000).

According to Schein (1985) the "only thing of real importance that leaders do is to create and manage culture" (p. 2). Blake and Mouton (1989) report that leaders shape culture by projecting corporate vision, establishing values, setting reward systems, establishing policies, influencing information flow, and stimulating involvement and teamwork. Previous studies have attempted to demonstrate the relationship between the leader and various groups. These studies are relevant to the understanding of how cultures form and evolve (Bass, 1981; Schein, 1978; Thomas, Ward, Chorba, & Kumiega, 1990; Ortiz & Hendrick, 1987; Suzuki, 1997; Langan-Fox, 1997). Peters and Waterman (1982) express the importance of shaping values. Cultural values are key to the ultimate success of an organization. According to Peters and Waterman, great organizations are those constructed around values and vision of the future communicated by the leader.

### **Leadership Theory**

One such enterprising leadership style is transformational leadership (TFL) (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985). The discussion in this chapter regarding TFL theory will be centered on the work of Burns (1978, Bass (1985), Bass and Avolio (1990), Avolio and Bass (1988), Bass and Avolio (1994), and other individuals who utilized Bass's model and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The works of Bass (1985) rely on the work of Burns (1978); therefore, Burns plays an integral role in the development of TFL theory.

Within leader-follower relationships, the transformational leader (TFL) "brings out the best of the followers" (Barker, 1990, p. 43). Leader and subordinates communicate the values and the end goals of the system or organization (Bass, 1985). Transformational leadership as a theoretical concept was first defined by Burns (1978) and further expanded upon by Bass (1985). The transformational leader (TFL) is an individual possessing the ability to create visions and have an impact on the organization. The effectiveness of organizations is related to the leader's ability to consistently demonstrate specific leader behaviors that are introduced into the culture of the organization (Bass, 1994). The effective TFL possess the behaviors of individual consideration, charisma, and intellectual stimulation (Bass, Waldman, Avilio, & Bibb, 1987). TFL focuses attention on specifics, risk taking, communication, trust, concern for the self-worth and empowerment of others (Sashkin, 1987; Dixon, 1999). Goals and behaviors which promote growth in individual employees are supported by the TFL (McDaniel, 1992). Access to achievement of the individual and organizational goals is facilitated through the process of leadership (Bass, 1985).

These leaders are able to get employees to aspire higher goals (Sashkin, 1987). According to Burns (1978) there are certain results that one would expect to see exhibited in an organization under the leadership of a transformational person including high morale. Bass (1985) describes the TFL as "one who motivates us to do more than we originally expected to do" (p. 20). This can be achieved by raising the followers' level of awareness and consciousness related to the importance of outcomes, transcending self-interest for the sake of the organization,

and by altering the level of hierarchical needs (Maslow, 1954). According to Barker (1990) the TFL provides stimulation to attempt new behaviors, problem solve creatively, facilitate inquiry and curiosity. The central task of the leader is to "unfold a vision and to create a social architecture or culture that provides meaning for it's members" (Barker, 1991. p. 15).

Transformational leadership is critical for establishing a culture of excellence (Kramer, 1990; McClure, Pulin, Sovie, & Wandelt, 1983). Transformational qualities are more congruent for professionals and for work requiring high levels of decision-making and independence. This style of leadership is related to work satisfaction and higher productivity among employees (Bass, 1987; Medley, 1987).

Transactional leadership (TRL) qualities contrast that of TFL. Burns (1978) defines the TRL as one who is more like the traditional manager concerned with day-to-day operations. This person is a caretaker role and has no vision of what could be. There is little or no inspiration conveyed to others, but, instead, the TRNL makes an exchange or trade off with followers to meet stated goals. Shared values are not identified. According to Burns (1978) TRL occurs "when one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of exchange of valued things" (p. 19). The TRL relies on contingent rewards and management by exception. This type of leadership lacks creativity, vision and long-term goals (Bass, 1985). TRL emphasizes an exchange between the leader and followers. This exchange may be economic, political or psychological and will result in the needs of both leader and follower being sustained. Within this leadership interaction, there is no sharing or pursuit of common goals (Burns, 1978).

For Burns (1978) the TRL motivates followers by exchanging with them rewards for services rendered. This was distinguished from leadership that motivates followers to work for transcendental goals and for aroused higher level needs for self-actualization rather than for immediate self-interest. TRL deal with followers by use of an exchange system, such as goods for services or pay for work.

The TRL works within the culture as it exists while the TFL, providing a broader perspective, takes into account the complexity of the culture and changes it. (Bass, 1985). The TRL accepts and uses the rituals, stories, and role models belonging to the organizational culture to communicate its values; the TFL invents, introduces, and advances the cultural forms. The TFL changes the social essence of culture (Bass, 1985). Transformational qualities are desirable among leaders, however, Bass (1987) contends that they need to be coupled with TRL qualities. Both sets of characteristics need to be present within the same individual in varying degrees in order to be a successful leader.

Burns (1979) emphasizes the interaction between leaders and followers and the importance of leadership effectiveness. The administrator who understands culture and its vital importance for success works to mobilize members to provide effectiveness and quality within the organization. The TFL "looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower" (Burns, 1979, p.4). Leadership as the impetus for creating culture is based on the principles of transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership's emergence as a supportive and developmental leadership approach toward group members has been identified as being useful for organizational leaders in successfully transforming or restructuring businesses to achieve

greater productivity (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Bass' model of TFL has offered a range of leader behaviors shown to promote change and desired outcomes in varied settings (Bass, 1985). Educational leaders have also been identified as TFL (Leithwood, 1993; Sergiovanni, 1990).

Burns (1978) examined political leaders and claimed that transformational 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 TFL and the follower have the same purpose and share the same values and goals. The leader and follower are fused with collective purpose and unity. This enables the leader to create groups that are extremely innovative, motivated and successful (Burns, 1978). The followers are committed to the leader and the leader's vision. The TFL is concerned with the day-to-day operations and makes exchanges with the followers to achieve the goals of the group. The TFL and followers may not necessarily share the same values or goals. (Burns, 1978).

Bass (1985, 1988, 1990, 1997, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1997, 1998, 1999), as previously mentioned, expanded transformational leadership theory developed by Burns (1978) and applied his version of TFL theory to business organizations. The basic definition of TFL is similar to Burns (1978). Transformational leaders attempt to raise the needs of the followers and promote changes in the individuals, the group and the organization. Bass' work differs from Burns (1978) in several areas. The first is that Bass (1985) recognizes the needs and desires of the follower. This difference is part of his definition of TFL. Transactional leaders attempt to satisfy the current needs of the followers through the exchange process (Bass, 1985).

The second difference between Bass (1985) and Burns (1978) is that Burns views TFL as a moral leadership that promotes good over evil. Bass (1985) contends that individuals, such as Hitler, who have evil ideations were transformational because Hitler transformed an entire country even though his motives were considered immoral.

The last area in which Bass (1985) differs with Burns (1978) is that Burns believes individuals are either TFL or TRL. Bass (1985) contends that persons can display both TFL and TRL leadership qualities and TFL is not effective if it exists without TRL (Bass, Avolio, & Goodheim, 1987). The TFL augments the qualities of the TRL, enabling followers to be more satisfied and transcend self-interests for the benefit of the organization (Bass, Avolio, & Goodheim, 1987).

Bass (1985) began his study on TFL with military organizations and conducted qualitative research that was later developed into a quantifiable survey tool. He explained the meaning of TFL to 70 senior executives. Then he asked the subjects to describe a TFL they had encountered. With this date, he developed the first form of the MLQ that was comprised of 73 items using a Likert scale. The questionnaire was then completed by 176 Army Officers (Bass, 1985a, 1985b). The survey revealed five leadership factors, two transactional factors and three transformational factors. The two transactional factors were contingent reward and management by exception. The three transformational factors were charisma, individual consideration and intellectual stimulation (Bass, 1985a).

With contingent reward, which is one of the transactional factors, followers receive rewards for complying with the leaders goals. This is the exchange process where rewards are exchanged for accomplishing assigned goals. Since the initial work of

Bass (1985a) the transactional factor management by exception has developed into two forms; active management by exception and passive management by exception. With the active form, the leader actively watches for deviations from the rules. The passive form of management by exception is when the leader intervenes only if standards are not met (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

The transactional process relies upon the follower's perception that the leader can reward the follower for completing the assigned goal successfully. The TRL helps followers to recognize the role and task requirements to reach desired outcomes. By recognizing follower's needs and clarifying how these needs are met, the motivational level of the follower should be enhanced (Avolio & Bass, 1988).

Contingent reward reduces job role uncertainty, especially by the novice employee. This method of reward, contingent on reinforcement for some followers is an extrinsic motivator for increasing effort and performance. The problem with this leadership approach is that it is not fully utilized. Lack of management skills, poor appraisal methods, time pressures and the inability of the manager to deliver rewards are responsible for the lack of utilizing the contingent reward to its fullest. When leaders are unable to fulfill the self-interested expectations of the followers, leaders lose their reputations for being able to deliver pay, promotion, and recognition. TRL's are less effective than those who are transformational, especially when TRL utilize management by exception (Bass, & Avolio, 1988; 1994).

The difference between leaders who rely for the most part on transactional factors rather than transformational factors is in the way the leader assists the followers achieve organizational goals. The TFL identifies goals for the follower and then clarifies ways to

achieve these goals. The TFL persuades the follower to reorder self needs to the needs of the organization. The TFL builds the confidence of the follower and gives consideration to the follower in exchange for high level performance. It is the level of the exchange to achieve organizational goals that differentiates the transactional from the transformational leader (Gasper, 1992).

Extra effort is exerted on behalf of TFL to create an arousal of higher level needs which transcends beyond self- interest of followers and produces extraordinary effort. Since the early work of Bass (1985a), the three transformational factors have been further developed into five factors. TFLs achieve superior results from followers by engaging in any of the five transformational leadership behaviors: idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Idealized attributes are the emotional factors of TFL where the leader provides a vision and a sense of mission to the followers. Through the vision the leader instills pride and gains respect and trust.

Idealized behavior is defined in terms of followers' reactions to the leader's behavior. TFL's behaviors lead them to become respected and trusted role models with whom followers wish to emulate. The leader is considerate of the needs of others, shares risks with followers, is consistent rather than arbitrary, demonstrates high standards of ethical and moral conduct, possesses and uses referent power, and sets challenging goals for followers (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Inspirational motivation is displayed by the transformational leader when he or she motivates and inspires those around them by providing meaning and challenge to

work. The leader arouses team spirit, enthusiasm, and optimism and involves followers in envisioning attractive future states. The leader communicates expectations clearly and personally demonstrates commitment to goals and the shared vision of the organization (Bass& Avolio, 1994).

Intellectual stimulation is demonstrated as TFLs support followers to become innovative by questioning their own values, beliefs, and expectations, as well as those of the leader and organization. The TFL enhances creative problem solving and encourages new approaches without fear of public criticism because of mistakes made (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Individualized consideration is displayed by the TFL in paying attention to each individual's needs for achievement and growth as a coach or mentor resulting in the person's development to successively higher levels of potential. The leader provides new learning opportunities within a supportive environment. The leader recognizes and accepts individual differences in terms of needs and desires. A two-way exchange in communication which is personalized is encouraged. The delegation of tasks is intended to develop followers (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

The TFL who utilizes individualized consideration attends to followers differently but equally. Individual differences in the way of needs and desires are recognized and the leader demonstrates an acceptance of them. The leader coaches, advises and gives personal attention to the follower (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

By contrast, the TRL exhibits behavior consistent with the two factors: contingent reward and management-by-exception. Contingent reward involves the leader and followers engagement in a positively reinforcing interaction which typifies and exchange

facilitating the achievement of objectives agreed upon by both parties. Management-by-exception occurs only when the leader intervenes to make some correction.

Despite the behavioral distinctions made by Bass (1985, 1990) he noted that both TFL and TRL are interrelated and most leaders display strategies of both styles to varying degrees. This emphasizes a central point in Bass' (1985) leadership model which is "transactional leadership provides a basis for effective leadership, but a greater amount of effort, effectiveness and satisfaction is possible from employees by augmenting transactional with transformational leadership" (Bass & Avolio, 1990, p.31). The transformational leader strives to change the organization's core values, basic philosophy, and its technical, financial, and humanistic concerns while the transactional leader is satisfied to work within the status quo of the existing system (Bass, 1985).

Transformational leaders are also considered to be the best leaders in a time of crisis (Roberts, 1985) because they emerge when organizations must face new problems (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). TFL is an important mechanism for energizing and redirecting energy in an organizational system as it is the impetus needed for system renewal (Roberts, 1985).

### **Transformational Leadership Research**

The guru of transformational leadership studies, Bernard Bass (1985; 1988) developed the MLQ to obtain measurements on the components of TFL and TRL. The MLQ is conceptually and empirically derived and confirmed (Bass, 1985 & 1988). For the past 20 years the MLQ has been the principle method of distinguishing between highly effective and ineffective leaders. Bass and his cohort, Avolio (1993a) conducted research in a variety of settings including the military, government, volunteer,

educational, manufacturing, technology, church, correctional and hospital settings. The MLQ has been utilized to examine leadership in over 1,000 firms in the United States and numerous foreign countries (Bass, Avolio, & Goodheim, 1987; Hater & Bass, 1988, Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1995; Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996). Avolio, Waldman, and Einstein (1988) examined the relationship between TFL and TRL upon team performance. Active TRL ratings are significantly and positively correlated with team performance. The largest variance of financial performance is accounted for by TFL ratings

Bass' conceptualization of TFL and TRL offers an important vehicle by which to study leadership in educational settings. Although the study of TFL as conceived and operationalized by Bass (1985; 1990) in education is "still in its infancy" (Leithwood, 1993, p.39), studies report findings supportive of critical components of Bass' leadership theory applicable to education (Lecher, 1996). Since the inception of transformational leadership by Bass and his cohorts, the body of research has continued to grow and test the TFL and TRL theory (Bass, Avolio & Goodheim, 1987; Singer, 1985; Singer & Singer, 1990; Waldman, Bass, & Einstein, 1987; Hoover, 1988; Avolio & Howell, 1992; Keller, 1992; Hater & Bass, 1988; Bass & Yammarino, 1991; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Dunham & Klafehn, 1990; Gottlieb, 1990; McDaniel & Wolf, 1992; Avolio & Bass, 1995). Gasper (1992) conducted an integrative literature review of TFL and TRL and concluded all the research to date did support the original work of Bass and weren't a chance occurrence (1985a). Qualitative research conducted by Bennis and Nanus (1985), Tichy and Devanna (1986) Peters and Waterman (1982) and Kouzes and Posner (1987) also supports concepts of TFL with successful organizations. Whenever the MLQ was

utilized to test TFL factors in a variety of settings, a positive association was demonstrated with individuals who had high TFL factors and high levels of satisfaction and effectiveness (Deluga, 1988; Hater & Bass, 1988; Hoover, 198; Keller, 1992).

Avolio, Waldman, and Einstein (1988) examined the relationship between TRL and TFL upon team performance. Active TRL ratings are significantly and positively correlated with team performance. The largest variance of financial performance is accounted for by TFL ratings. Active TRL and TFL leadership is also positively correlated with organizational performance.

Deluga (1988) examined leadership effectiveness and employee satisfaction in a manufacturing firm in relation to TFL and TRL factors using the MLQ. With a sample of 117 employees (41 males and 76 females) who were a mixture of upper-level managers, middle managers and manual laborers he conducted research using a multiple regression analysis. The hypothesis that TFL would be more closely associated with leader effectiveness and employee satisfaction was supported.

Male and female leadership styles, organizations, work-family issues and personal characteristics were examined by Rosener (1990). He determined that women were more likely to use the TFL style of motivating others, transforming self-interest into the goals of the organization and using power based on charisma as opposed to positional power. Rosener's findings are important when considering the majority of NEA are women.

Seltzer and Bass (1990) examine the variance of outcome measures for initiation and consideration during their 1990 investigation of the TFL scales. These two dimensions of leadership behaviors positively correlate with the TFL scales and explain and 8 – 28% variability in the outcome measure.

Studies which sought to measure transformational leadership and the relationship to organizational success in 1990 include the works of Grover, Howell & Higgins, and Spangler, et al. Evidence from the research of Grover (1990) indicates that employee commitment is influenced by the leader who inspires a shared vision and motivation to perform. Studies of research and development teams indicated that TFL promote innovation and quality as well as greater team satisfaction and autonomy (Howell & Higgins, 1990). The idea the TFL is positively associated with organizational success is further supported by Spangler (et al 1990).

Data presented by Bass (1990) derived from research conducted on an engineering firm compares the effect that FRL and TRL have upon employee effort. The leadership scores were obtained from the MLQ. The study reveals the TFL who ranked in the top 25% on the leadership factor score have employees who exert extra effort on their jobs. The TFL can further contribute to the firm's performance was one indication of this. Enhanced performance is obtained when a leader is a source of inspiration to others. Inspiration is derived through their commitment to those who work with them, their strong desire to achieve, propensity for risk taking, and ability to diagnose, meet and elevate others through individualized consideration (Yam & Bass, 1990; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Lowe et al., 1996).

Yammarino and Bass (1990) examined 186 Naval Officers on active duty assignment. The purpose of this research was to determine whether TFL was based on individual, paired or group differences in the follower's perception of the leader. Individual differences of the follower's perceptions were found to be significant. This indicates that the leader-follower interactions can be considered unique. This is of

particular significance because it indicates that individual consideration is an important component of leadership and strengthens the importance of a relationship between the leader and the follower. Because the relationship between the leader and the follower has been found to be important, it is important to examine the leader and follower relationship between the NEA and nursing faculty.

Gasper (1992), Lowe, Kwoeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996) and Patterson, Fuller, Kester, and Stringer (1995) have confirmed through meta-analyses significant correlations of the transformational leadership with effectiveness, satisfaction and extra effort perceived by the followers. These findings are important to this study because effectiveness, satisfaction, and extra effort are all components of quality cultures and are incorporated in Bass' (1994) ODQ questionnaire which will be used in this study.

Yammarino, Spangler, and Bass (1993) performed a longitudinal investigation on the same sample of naval officers in the study cited above. Their purpose was to examine the transformational theory longitudinally and to determine predictors for TFL in naval officers. Academic performance was not found to be a predictor, but military midshipman performance was found to be a predictor of officer leadership. TFL was associated with performance appraisals completed by superiors and followers of the sample group. This finding is important because early identification of high performance can be useful in identifying effective leaders for the future. This research suggests TFL theory has the potential to be useful in developing individuals to utilize the TFL style. Academic performance didn't prove to be a predictor for TFL. Further study on educational preparation and academic standing with TFLs is warranted.

Howell and Avolio (1993) studied 78 managers in a financial institution to determine whether charismatic leadership based on intellectual stimulation and individual consideration would predict the performance of a work unit over one year period. The transformational factors were found to improve unit performance significantly over the one-year interval. These findings are significant because they lend credence to the notion that TFL will enhance the performance of an organization.

Research by Bass and Avolio (1993) confirms a connection between leadership, performance and organizational culture using the ODQ. This research associates leadership behavior (transformational, transactional, laissez-faire and organizational culture typology (Bass & Avolio, 1994). The ODQ is studied in terms of TFL and TRL behaviors. OC transformation is the way for some organizations to manage the growing complexities of their environment.

Behling and McFillen (1996) support the idea that charismatic TFL is a conglomerate of learnable and teachable attributes and behaviors that can be measured and assessed both in terms of individual training needs and leadership training results. Avolio and Howell (1992) reported that charismatic leaders who use control and manipulation are less effective to work with than other TFL and TRL leaders.

The work of Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) further examine the variables that intervene between leader behavior and follower effect. Identified within this study are three core components of TFL including vision, vision implementation, and charismatic communication style. Their individual effects were tested on follower outcomes. Vision was discovered to affect follower performance through its impact on follower goals and

self-efficacy. Servant leadership suggests leadership exists to serve those led and fulfill the needs of those served.

Rainey and Watson (1996) promote TFL as the new leadership paradigm which effectively addresses the modern day challenges of organizations. These challenges are perceived as lack of vision and commitment, diminished leadership credibility and increased complexity. The results of this study indicate that the concepts and practice of TFL may result in heightened commitment and performance by followers.

Steyer (1996) examined the measure of the relationship of TFL to specific organizational outcomes using the MLQ. In a study of 120 Austrian banks, the results indicated that banks that achieve greater market share and improve customer satisfaction have bank managers rated as TFL by their subordinates. The TFL rating of bank managers also serves as a predictor of better long-term performance for the bank. Sales personnel who met their quotas receive generally higher TFL as rated by others and also scored higher in the charismatic, inspirational, and intellectual stimulation components. Another study using the MLQ demonstrated that charisma is associated with objective measures of organizational performance, specifically, profitability and stock returns, and subjective measures such as executive ratings (Angle & Soonnenfeld, 1994).

This literature review has given some credence to the importance of transformational leadership. With the business and industry economy becoming increasingly unstable in this country, the tax base that subsidizes higher education may become markedly decreased. This will have a drastic impact on the financing of higher education. There already have been programs that have ceased to exist (Hart, 1999) due to the fact that their productivity, effectiveness and reason for being could not be

justified. Downsizing and reduction in force are a common occurrence in most institutions of higher education. The TFL who responds positively and actively to change will be needed. Bass and Avolio (1992) suggest that the development of TFL training may be the anecdote to meet the challenges of the changing workforce. The TFL has a great impact on both organizational and individual performance (Hater & Bass, 1988). A TFL orientation to leadership development and training is a recommendation for future leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1992). In a rapidly changing world the continuous development of TFL skills and competencies is a precursor to organizational survival.

### **Nursing Education Leadership**

Registered nurses are the largest segment of the health care work force in the United States. Registered nurses constitute the largest health care occupation, with 2.3 million jobs (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2004).

The leader of schools of nursing are key players in relation to the influence they have over both the direction of nursing schools and the profession of nursing. Their influence spans an immense territory. The NEL are posed in an influential and powerful position when it comes to both faculty and nursing graduates. The scope of influence extends beyond their own organization by way of their networking through professional organizations, research and publication. The NEL is in the position to influence the future of the nursing profession (Short, 1997).

Over the past years there has been ongoing concern demonstrated related to the need for the preparation of qualified nursing education leaders (NEL) Hall, Mitsunga, and de Tornyay, 1981; George and Deets, 1983). It is imperative that schools of nursing have leaders who have a vision, can share values and are able to inspire and empower others

(Dunham & Klaffen, 1990). The very future of nursing may depend on the development of leaders who can meet future change and demanding challenges. Coupled with this information is the fact that nursing education is at a critical point and time in relation to its development.

There is a current nursing shortage and although enrollment in nursing program is currently rising (National League of Nursing, 2003), in the 1990's, there was a decline in enrollment in all nursing programs. The number of individuals attending bachelor degree programs has decreased for the past several years. In 1997 the numbers were down by 6.6% (AACN, 1997b). With fewer students entering the nursing programs, there are fewer graduates to replace the nursing force of retirement age. The average age of an RN in 1998 was 42 and will increase to 45 by 2010 (Buerhaus, 2001). The supply is not likely to keep up with the demand of current trends such as increasing geriatric population. By the year 2020, there will be 78 million baby boomers enrolling in Medicare. The RN workforce at this time will be 20% below the projected requirements (Buerhaus, 2001). Fiscal restraint has forced deans and faculties of schools of nursing to defend the existence of their programs by demonstrating that their productivity and effectiveness (quality and quantity of teaching, student success, research and service) are comparable to other programs in the academic community (AACN, 1997a; personal communication, S. Bowles, EdD., 2001). In order to be successful, schools of nursing have to continuously undergo change in order to meet the future health care demands. It is necessary to facilitate changes and transform nursing schools. The Pew Health Professions Commission (Shugars, O'Neil & Bader, 1991) contend that it is of utmost importance that those in charge of health profession schools be visionary leaders who are

proactive in defining nursing education's role in the ever-changing health care system.

The nursing profession is in dire need of leaders who can influence the direction of nursing.

The Council for Aid to Education (1997) conducted a two-year study on the state of higher education. The final report was titled, *Breaking the Social Contract: The Fiscal Crises in Higher Education*. Within the context of this report, numerous significant findings and recommendations were cited. The main finding was that the current state of higher education is unsustainable due to the sky-rocketing costs and increasing demands which are far out-surpassing funding. A critical need to increase public funding was emphasized; however, the report indicated that public support for this will only materialize after higher education undergoes reform and restructuring. Finding nursing educator leaders who can influence a culture that fosters change necessary to enhance productivity and effectiveness is critical to the future of schools of nursing.

Over the past 30 years there have been approximately 90 research articles published and reviewed on nursing leadership (Altieri & Elgin, 1994). However, only a small number of research projects have examined nursing leadership within schools of nursing. Historically, research related to academic nursing leadership has primarily focused on individual administrators instead of organizational and environmental factors. This has been detrimental to the development of new knowledge in nursing education leadership (Miller, et. al, 1987; Baker, et. al, 1997). Nursing leadership research has followed many of the same patterns of general leadership research in that it has studied

traits, behaviors, and the situational factors of nursing leadership. There is a need for theory-driven research to guide practice in nursing education leadership

A review of nursing leadership research was conducted by McCloskey and Molen (1987) and Altieri and Elgin (1994). Nursing leadership research was classified into one of four categories: defining leadership, predicting leadership, leadership development, and leadership effectiveness. Case study analysis was the method utilized in the early nursing research and assisted in defining nursing leadership. Predicting leadership was classified as the determination of personality characteristics and qualities desirable for nursing leaders. This is also similar to the trait theories. Leadership development research examined the skills leaders needed in specific situations similar to situational theories. Leadership effectiveness research emphasized the relationship of leadership style to outcomes. There has been few studies since the last performed by Altieri and Elgin (1994) which reviews and summarizes the type of nursing leadership as it exists today. This lack of data demonstrates the need for the further investigation of nursing leadership.

Maintaining excellence within schools of nursing is one challenge which the school of nursing leader must address (Fralic, 1993; Travis & Higgins, 1994; Bamberg & Layman, 2000). The dean or nursing education leader (NEL) is the leader of the faculty in a college or school of nursing. According to Lamborn (1991) the NEL controls the critical balance of protecting the academic health of the faculty. As chief academic administrators, the NEL of collegiate schools of nursing are in a position to influence the culture of the school, the growth and development of the faculty, organizational effectiveness, and the type of education that the students receive (Travis, Higgins, &

Mathews, 1994; Feldman, 2000). In essence, the nurse leader influences the present and future profession of nursing and how the profession will impact the health care of the people of this country (Lamborn, 1991; Byham, 1999; Dunham, 2000; Huber, 1996; Jones, 1997). Currently there is a critical shortage in nurses in this country. It has been estimated by the National League of Nursing (2001) that within the next five to ten years, the number of nurses retiring will far exceed the number of nurses in the workforce. Also, the number of students applying to schools of nursing has declined over the past five years. It is crucial that schools of nursing have leaders who will be able to create environments which will be conducive to attracting both quality students and the faculty who will train them.

The person who occupies the position of NEL observes the realm of university life perhaps more clearly than any other member of academia (Kibrick, 1980; Lewis, 1991; Robles, 1998). Within the academic arena of nursing, no one person is more important than a creative, administratively strong NEL because of his/her influence on the culture of the school, the growth and development of the faculty and the learning process of the coming generations of nurse practitioners (Lamborn, 1991).

TFL theory provided the framework for identifying the leadership style of nurse executives identified as exceptional (Dunham & Llafehn, 1990). In this study the TFL style of 80 nurse executives were identified. The exploratory study used a convenience sample of 80 nurse leaders and 214 immediate managerial staff members. The nurse executives and staff members completed the MLQ. Dunham & Klafehn (1990) found that nurse executives are transformational as perceived by their immediate staff. This research is important because it establishes the presence of transformational nurse

executives. Can the transformational leader move followers within a culture to transcend their own self-interest for the good of the group or organization? Increased awareness and the arousal of higher-level needs which transcend self-interests can assist the organization with achievement of goals. While both transactional and transformational leadership involve sensing followers felt needs, it is the transformational leader who raises consciousness about higher considerations through articulation and role modeling. Transforming leaders provide the high standards of performance and accomplishment and the inspiration to reach high standards. To the degree their followers become self-actualizing, the achievements become self-reinforcing (Bass, 1985; Cassidy & Koroll, 1994; DiRienzo, 1994; Barker & Young, 1994; O'Grady, 1992).

Gevedon's (1991) research involved the study of 35 deans of top-ranked schools of nursing to describe self-reported leadership behaviors. The deans were surveyed using the Multifactor College Leadership Questionnaire which identified TFL behaviors. The findings indicated that values were the most important transformational leadership theme identified by the top-ranked nursing deans.

The influence and scope of the administration in these schools were described as were the ways in which these endeavors are pursued and supported. Faculty had encouragement and support from the dean in areas of professional development including financial support to attend conferences, present papers and pursue doctoral education. Faculty members were encouraged by the dean to conduct research and publish and were rewarded for their endeavors. There was a commitment within the programs to support the development of new faculty. Deans worked with new nursing faculty to support their adjustment to the schools environment and assisted in planning their work schedule so

they had time for research and scholarly endeavors. The environments within these schools of nursing were supportive (Gevedon, 1991).

Faculty participating in the study responded that the role played by the dean was a significant factor in their top ranking. While deans in top ranked schools used different administrative styles, they based their selection of style on the same criterion: what best suited their own strengths while being consistent with the mission of the parent institution. The dean essentially guided the program. The deans in top ranked schools of nursing had national prominence and were considered leaders in nursing. The leadership abilities of the deans enabled them to attract leaders in research and education to their nursing programs. They sought out qualified persons for administrative and faculty positions and supported them to use their talents creatively and productively (Gevedon, 1991).

The deans in top ranked schools of nursing were accessible to faculty and students. Deans were described as caring, sensitive and receptive to input from faculty and student. Communication was open and faculty members were encouraged to pursue their professional goals. Excellence and productivity were rewarded. Deans were not threatened by excellent faculty but actively recruited and supported them. There was an overall atmosphere of freedom and challenge that facilitated learning and professional growth. The environment was challenging and encouraged creativity and innovation and laid the foundation for learning and productivity. These top ranked schools have been pace setters in various areas of nursing education, research and practice. The environment was a continuous stimulus for individual and collective professional growth and development and contributed to an exciting and stimulating atmosphere. The

individual faculty had a positive attitude and felt respected. The environment was stimulating and challenging not only to faculty, but to students as well. Attention was directed toward assisting students fulfilling their individual potential. There was an element of flexibility for both students and faculty. Both reported their interests and concerns were listened to (Gevedon, 1991).

Being on the faculty of a top ranked school of nursing was reported to be a development and growth job, not just a maintenance job. There was a leeway of risk taking and trying out new ideas which was encouraged by the leadership of the deans. Faculty retention was high due to support from administration for faculty development and growth. Students described the environment as positive and challenging. Administration was viewed as open and flexible. The environment fostered professional growth and independence on the part of the students (Gevedon, 1991).

Another factor often mentioned by faculty and students within top ranked schools of nursing was honesty and trust. Students trusted faculty and administration. There were good working relations between faculty and their administrators. They worked together toward common goals and there was mutual trust. Faculty members were trusted by administration to carry out their responsibilities which promoted creativity and productivity of faculty. Conflicts were confronted openly, utilizing input from those concerned. Overall, the most frequently cited characteristic, and the most significant, was the role of the dean which was viewed as a single element while recognizing that it promoted all other administrative elements and processes of the school of nursing (Gevedon, 1991).

King's (1994) unpublished doctoral dissertation research examined leadership in school of nursing deans. There were 264 full time faculty members in this study who described the leadership styles of the dean of their school of nursing. The purpose of the investigation was to determine a relationship between leadership style and perceived dean effectiveness, faculty satisfaction, and faculty willingness to put forth extra effort. The MLQ (Bass, 1985) was utilized. Descriptive statistics and ANOVA were used to analyze data. Results indicated that TFL behaviors were associated with higher levels of perceived dean effectiveness, faculty satisfaction, and greater willingness on the part of the faculty to put forth extra effort.

Alteri (1995) conducted a descriptive correlative study which examined transformational and transactional leadership in nurse executives as perceived by staff nurses. Relationships among TFL and TRL style and staff nurse satisfaction, willingness to exert extra effort, and staff nurse perception of nurse executive leadership effectiveness, nurse executive education preparation and mentorship were analyzed. There were 57 nurse executives and 178 staff nurses. TFL, TRL, staff nurse satisfaction, staff nurse willingness to exert extra effort and staff nurse perception of nurse executive leadership effectiveness was measured by the MLQ Self-5X and Rater-5X. Educational preparation and mentorship was determined through the investigator's demographic questions. The findings suggested that hospital nurse executives are TFL and to a lesser extent TRL as perceived by nurse executives and staff nurses. There was a statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ) difference between the nurse executive self-ratings and the staff nurse ratings of the nurse executive. One of the recommendations of this study was to examine various nursing environments and compare leadership with the culture, decision-making

and patient outcomes. Findings and recommendations from this study could be applied to schools of nursing (King, 1994).

Short (1997) examined administrators of schools of nursing to determine the perceived importance of various resources in their goal achievement. Deans and directors of the American Association of Colleges of Nursing member schools were included in this study. Resources important to the NEL included communication skills, interpersonal skills, creativity in thinking, the ability to mobilize groups and intellectual ability. Communication skills are the most important resource in relation to goal achievement (Vance, 1977; Kinsey, 1986). According to Short (1997), emphasis needs to be assigned to development and enhancement of communication skills.

Starck, Warner, and Kotarba (1999) conducted a qualitative study of deans of forty top-ranked graduate nursing schools. The deans (number = 40) were interviewed in order to examine how they are approaching leadership issues in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Variables included managing change, communication, leadership styles, models of governance, and expectations of faculty.

Common themes emerged from this study. These themes were similar in nature to the description of a transformational leader. In regards to managing change, the deans indicated that that change would be the norm. The focus would be more on the external environment, there would have to be more fundraising and partnership formation. The faculty would be encouraged to take on more responsibility in regards to internal matters.

In their response to questions about governance, the deans identified that the *we-versus-they* mentality was destructive. There needed to be a collective ownership of responsibilities and problems.

The main themes regarding communication revealed that effective communication is built on a culture of trust. It is necessary to strive for open communication. Finally, it is often necessary to confront as well as dialogue.

The deans described three predominant leadership styles or skill-sets, described by the authors as director, sensor, and negotiator. Deans described future styles and skills that would be needed in the future. These included consensus builder, risk taker and interactive empowerer. The consensus builder helps faculty understand the larger picture and optimizes participation in decision-making. The risk taker is flexible and able to deal with ambiguity and the unknown. The interactive empowerer is a facilitator and advocate. Involving others is a key behavior.

The general view developed from this study was that deans have to be able to see objects and events from different perspectives. Also, it was indicated that deans have to be able to react based on numerous points of vision and have to be able to adapt to change within the environment rapidly to maintain areas of excellence related to the goal attainment.

The ultimate goal for schools of nursing is to have the graduates successfully pass the National Council Licensure Examination (NCLEX). The NCLEX exam may be considered relevant outcome measures of student learning (Landry, 1997). The NCLEX exam is one instrument that evaluates the quality of nursing educational programs and ensures minimal competency of its new graduates (NCLEX, 2007). Nursing graduates must be successful on the NCLEX-RN in order to practice nursing. School of nursing faculty and administrators are concerned about high failure rates. A high failure rate in the regional, state, or national arena decreases the number of graduates available to the

workforce. A high failure rate also reflects poorly on the nursing program at institutions of higher education and may ultimately result in a reduction in budget or even program closure. Potential nursing students often chose to attend nursing programs because the schools are properly accredited by the National League of Nursing and for programs with high NCLEX passage rates (Moccia, 1990). It is therefore imperative that schools of nursing have effective leaders who can create cultures of excellence.

### **Leadership and Culture Connection**

The review of leadership literature demonstrates the importance of transformational leadership within organizational settings. Bass (1998) cites evidence from a wide variety of studies that were conducted from around the world. This citation affirms that transformational leadership has a strong positive relationship with a range of outcome variables including objective measures of organizational productivity, job satisfaction, commitment, and even lower levels of stress (Bass, 1997).

Bass and Avolio (1994) contend that the organization's culture develops in large part from its leadership. Transactional leaders work within their organizational cultures following existing rules, procedures and norms; transformational leaders change their culture by first understanding it and then realigning the organization's culture with a new vision and revision of its shared assumptions, values and norms" (p. 542). The experiences of successful organizations authenticate the positive results of the interplay between leadership and culture (Peters & Waterman, 1982; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Nanus, 1989; Cormack & Porter, 1997).

## **Organizational Culture**

Organizational culture has its roots in several disciplines including psychology (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959; Katz & Kahn, 1966; Allport, 1967), sociology (Parsons, 1949 & 1951; Homans, 1958; Loomis & Loomis, 1961; Levi-Straus, 1969; Nye, 1982; Chemers, 1984; White & Green, 1989), anthropology (Pettigrew, 1979) systems theory (von Bertalanffy, 1968) and management (Frost, Moore, Louis, Lundberg, & Martin, 1985; Racine, 1999). The beginnings of formal exploration on the concept of organizational culture (OC) are readily identifiable in the literature. Early articles tended to concentrate on explaining the concept. Much of the literature published in the 1980's was repetitive and was lacking in originality. Pettigrew first published an article on culture in *Administrative Science Quarterly* in 1979. The anthropological roots of culture in relation to the organization were introduced. Pettigrew (1979) described concepts such as symbolism, myth, ritual, etc. and discussed how these terms could be useful with organizational analysis. Dandridge, Mitroff, & Joyce (1980) stressed the importance of studying myths and symbols in order to reveal the structure of organizations. Ouchi (1982) contended that Japan's economic success was largely due to its strong corporate cultures. Deal and Kennedy (1982) expanded upon Pettigrew's and Ouchi's ideas and popularized the concept of OC. In 1983 there was a dramatic increase in the amount of literature generated from the fallout of Deal & Kennedy's work. Jelinek, Smircich, and Hirsch (1983) further explored and attempted to define the concept of culture. Martin and Siehl (1983) published one of the first critiques on culture. Numerous articles were published in 1983 and basically attempted to describe this relatively new concept. Authors of these 1983 articles include: Jelinek, Smircich, & Hirsch; Smircich; Gregory;

Smith & Simmons; Barley; Riley; Martin, Feldman, Hatch, & Sitkin; Jones; Broms & Gahmberg; Sathe; Wilkins; Koprowski; Pondy, Frost, Morgan, & Dandridge; Martin & Siehl; Wilkins & Ouchi; and Schein (1983). From this group of neo-cultural-phytes spouted the outpouring of cultural data. Two of the best known of which are Schein and Wilkins & Ouchi. Schein (1983) provided an extensive definition of culture, describing its etiology and transmission. He further expounded upon his work in 1984 with further exploration of the concept. Wilkins & Ouchi (1983) explored the conditions that give rise to strong cultures and described ways in which culture may contribute to efficiency.

Kilmann (1984, 1988) proposed a five-step model for managing and changing OC. He developed the Kilmann-Saxton Culture-Gap Survey (Kilmann & Saxton, 1983). This survey measured the gap between what the current culture is and what it should be. Frost, Moore, Louis, Lundberg & Martin (1985) published *Organizational Culture* which included a series of chapters focusing on definitions of culture and on issues related to managing culture, studying culture, and linking organizational culture to societal culture. Sathe (1985) defined OC as a set of important assumptions that members of a community share in common. He adapted a three level model of culture based on Schein's (1985). The three levels consisted of behaviors, cultural communication and justification of behavior. Other works in 1985 include: Morey & Luthans review and critique of the concept of culture and its use in organizational studies; Schein's in-depth discussion of the nature of culture and the role of the leader in cultural exchange; Sathe's authored textbook which focused on a cultural perspective in solving organizational problems; and Nicholson & Johns' research that provided insight into the degree of absence rates and the relationship to varying culture types. Barney; Harris & Sutton; Kets De Vries &

Miller all contributed to the cultural literature in 1986. Schriber & Gutek (1987) authored an article demonstrating a relationship between time management and culture. Tierney (1988) provided a framework for diagnosis of OC within universities with the intent that decisions can be made and distinct problems overcome. The framework focused on six areas to be studied: environment, mission, socialization, information, strategy, and leadership. Tierney (1988) stated that the current lack of understanding about the role of OC in improving management and institutional performance inhibits our ability to address challenges that face higher education today. Nahavandi & Malekzadeh (1988) discussed the success of mergers and the degree of congruence between two organizations' cultures.

Cooke and Lafferty (1989) developed instrumentation which identified several cultural types within organizations. One cultural type was described as positive or constructive. This culture promotes high motivation. Organizations value members who set and accomplish their own goals. Members are expected to set challenging but realistic goals, establish plans to reach goals and pursue them with enthusiasm and interact among each other working to achieve tasks in a proactive way in order to meet mutual needs or goals. This culture emphasizes members' satisfaction needs such as higher-order needs for achievement and affiliation. The positive or constructive style of culture promotes cultural behaviors of achievement, self-actualization, humanism, and affiliative norms. The self-actualizing culture values creativity, quality over quantity, and both task accomplishment and individual growth. Members are encouraged to gain enjoyment from their work, develop themselves, and take on new and interesting activities. This style promotes the security needs of members such as the lower-order

needs for acceptance and avoiding failure. Three cultural behaviors exist within this style including approval, conventional, dependency, and avoidance. Humanistic cultures are managed in a participative and person-centered way. Members are expected to be supportive, constructive, and open to influence in their dealings with one another. Good relations and interaction with others are facilitated. With the affiliative cultures there is high priority on constructive interpersonal relationships. Members are expected to be friendly, open, and sensitive to the satisfaction of their work group. Teamwork and coordination are encouraged. Approval cultures demonstrate avoidance of conflicts and interpersonal relationships are superficially pleasant. Members feel that they should agree with, gain the approval of and be liked by others.

Conventional cultures are conservative, traditional, and bureaucratically controlled. Members are expected to conform, follow the rules, and make a good impression. Dependent cultures are hierarchically controlled and non-participative. Centralized decision making in such organization leads members to do only what they are told and to clear all decisions with superiors. Avoidance cultures fail to reward success but nevertheless punish mistakes. This negative reward system leads members to shift responsibilities to others and avoid any possibility of being blamed for mistakes. The oppositional culture has confrontation prevailing and negativism being rewarded. Members gain status and influence by being critical and thus are reinforced to oppose the ideas of others and work long hours to attain narrowly defined objectives (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989). Power culture promotes non-participative organizations structured on the basis of the authority inherent in members positions. Members believe they will be rewarded for taking charge, controlling subordinates and being responsive to the demands

of superiors. Within the competitive culture, winning is valued and members are rewarded for outperforming one another. Members operate in a win or lose framework and believe they must work against their peers to be noticed.

The perfectionistic culture values perfectionism, persistence, and hard work. Members feel they must avoid any mistakes, keep track of everything, and work long hours and work long hours to attain narrowly defined objectives (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989).

Finally, rounding out the 1980's cultural knowledge base, Ott (1989) published *The Organizational Culture Perspective* in which he explores various definitions and defining attributes of culture as well as the formation, management and change of culture.

Since the term corporate culture was first coined, the literature pertaining to organizational culture (OC) has concentrated on defining the concept, describing methods of study and measurement, and recommending methods of evaluation (Lewis, 1996). OC is a complex and pervasive part of any working environment. While there is no single accepted definition of culture, there is a consensus within the literature that it is a major component affecting both leader and follower. OC continues to remain somewhat of an ill-defined mystery and enigma which defies concrete definition in both research and application. There exists an astonishing array of OC definitions. From this review of literature some of the most respected and published authors' definitions are as follows:

“It's the way we do things around here.” (Deal & Kennedy, 1988, p.13).

“Corporate culture is the pattern of shared beliefs and values that shapes the meaning of an institution for its members and provides them with the rules for behavior in their organization.” (Davis, 1984, p.1);

“It is a set of common understandings for organizing action and language and other symbolic vehicles for expressing these common understandings.

Organizational cultures represent the collective, shared meaning of existence in the organization and how life in this setting is to proceed.” (Sathe, 1985, p. 2).

“A pattern of basic assumptions, invented or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration”. (Schein, 1985, p.9);

“Sets of commonly held cognitions that are held with some emotional investment and integrated into a logical system or cognitive map that contains cognitions about descriptions, operations, prescriptions, and causes. It influences perception, thinking, feeling, and action (Sackman, 1991, p. 34).

The literature of the late 1980’s and 1990's tends to focus on explaining the practicality and usefulness of the concept. It addresses the infamous question "So what?" The literature addresses the effects of culture on the organizations performance (Whipp, et al.,1989; Croft, 1990; Nicholson et al., 1990; Petcocks, 1990; Arogyaswamy & Brown, 1992; Van Donk & Sanders, 1993) and how culture can be manipulated or changed to increase organizational effectiveness (Bettinger, 1989; Poupart & Hobbs, 1989; Hayes & Lemon, 1990; Critchley, 1993; Saraph & Sebastian, 1993; and Smith et al.,1994; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Culture is a broad concept that denotes members' shared perceptions related to the distinctive identity of the workplace. These diverse perspectives add to the richness of the concepts, but also to conflicting approaches in defining it as well (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Hofstede, 1998). It is seen as a system of cognition, symbols, and unconscious interactions (Peters & Waterman, 1982; Burke, 1997). Culture is viewed as a vehicle which assists in determining why people behave as they do in organizations (Schein, 1985 Hofstede, 1998).

Culture is increasingly developing as a valuable resource related to the understanding of organizational systems (Weick, 1985; Mulhare, 1999; Wills, 1999; Aycan & Kanungo, 1999). It is among the organizational variables thought to contribute to the quality of work and success within organizations (Coeling & Wilcox, 1988; Gregory, 1983; Louis, 1985; Riley, 1983; and Van Maanen & Barlely, 1985; Kilmann, 1985; Boxeman & Kingsley, 1998;). Van Maanen and Barlely (1985) and Langan-Fox and Tan (1997) emphasize the importance of analyzing the work group in order to discover aspects of organizational life.

The key issue associated with organizational culture is its relationship with organizational performance. Connections between OC and performance have been well established. An increasing body of evidence supports a relationship between an organization's culture and its performance. In business, evidence has revealed that companies which put increased focus in key managerial components, such as customers, stakeholders and employees, and leadership, outperform those that do not have these cultural characteristics (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Wagner & Spencer, 1996).

Culture is shared by diverse individuals doing things together in both old and new ways (del Bueno, & Vincent, 1986; Silvester, Anderson, & Patterson, 1999). It is the collective understandings that develop among members of a group and as such cannot be separated from the people who carry it (Van Naanen & Barley, 1985; Boxeman & Kingsley, 1998). Culture further has been defined as the essence of thoughts, behaviors, and beliefs related to commonalties members within a system share (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Silverster, Anderson, & Patterson, 1999; Casey, 1999). It describes the learned

behaviors, norms and expectations of an organization or system (Allen & Kraft, 1982). These norms or expectations reflect the notion that the sum of the system is greater than the individuals who dwell within the system (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989). According to Casson (1991) and Delaney & Huselid (1996) cultures which emphasize trust and cooperation among members enhance both performance and productivity within the organization. Leaders interact with members of an organization and must be able to understand and communicate symbols, rituals, and rites of passage. Common, daily routines need to be evaluated for cultural design and creation of new visions. As the leader discovers the connection between belief and behavior within cultures, new and desired visions can be created and integrity of the organization can be maintained (Mariner, 1993). Calhoun (1989) states that "a strong, cohesive culture promotes good performance and high job satisfaction. When organizations find ways of articulating shared values, norms, and beliefs, employees are guided in similar directions" (p. 112).

Kilmann (1989) proposes that to manage culture successfully it is necessary to know how cultures form and remain intact. He states that culture affects the quality of decision-making and action-taking, and in turn affects work group morale and performance. He contends that the success of the organization depends upon the degree of success to which the cultural leader is able to implement changes within the culture. Kilmann (1991) developed a Culture-Gap Profile which measures cultural norms in relation to task support, task innovation, social relationships and personal freedom.

Bass entered the organizational culture arena in 1991. He has identified culture as the "glue that holds an organization together" (Bass, 1998, p. 62). Bass contends that shared values persist over time, shaping the group norms and behaviors. Culture remains

even after members leave the group. The founders of cultures and their successors' leadership shape the beliefs and values. Personal beliefs of leaders may constrain the culture. The viability of the culture is dependent upon how well these leader beliefs mesh and interweave with the true culture. Bass (1998) envisions leadership and culture as a continuous interaction. Leaders shape the norms and reinforce behaviors within cultures.

Bass (1998) also contends that the culture affects the leadership. If the culture has increased autonomy within the lower levels of the organization, then the leader will have diminished personal power. Leaders will have difficulty increasing their own autonomy. Decisions concerning everyday operations may be affected by the values and norms of the culture. The pre-existing cultural norms may hinder progression of the organization toward the evolution of change. Bass (1991) and Bass and Avolio (1993) further developed cultural theory by describing culture as transformational or transactional. Transformational cultures emit a general sense of purpose and feeling of family. There is a mutual sharing of purpose and interest. Long-term commitments and interdependence are evidenced throughout the culture. The leadership role includes that of mentor and coach. New members are assisted with their assimilation into the new culture. The group norm is geared towards adapting to the changing environment. Expanding vision and meeting challenge are highly valued. The focus of the transactional culture includes adhering to explicit and implicit contractual relationships. There is a "price set on everything" (Avolio & Bass, 1993, p. 116) including conditions of employment, discipline and reward systems. Motivation to work is decided by what price is set for the particular action. There is a high level of self-interest and commitments are short-term. Employees, for the most part, do not identify with the organizations' mission or vision.

Few behaviors are determined by group norms. Innovation and risk taking are not valued. Management-by-exception and contingent reward are evidenced within the culture. Through the creation of these transformational and transactional models of culture, the Organizational Description Questionnaire (ODQ) was developed. The ODQ examines cultural elements related to assumptions, processes, and expectations. It is a 28-item survey questionnaire. Fourteen items are related to transformational elements of culture and fourteen items deal with transactional elements in the culture.

In 1999 Cameron and Quinn developed an approach to studying culture which they referred to as “competing values”. Their perspective is that OC can and does change. This model identifies four “models” of culture and six essential dimensions of culture. These models and dimensions are listed and discussed as follows:

The Hierarchy Culture is based on Weber's theory of bureaucracy and values tradition, consistency, cooperation, and conformity. The Hierarchy model focuses more on internal than external issues and values stability and control over flexibility and discretion. This is the traditional command and control model of organizations. This works well if the goal is efficiency and the organizational environment is stable and simple and if there are very few changes in customers, customer preferences, competition, technology, etc.

The Market Culture also values stability and control but focuses more on external (market) rather than internal issues. This culture tends to view the external environment as threatening, and seeks to identify threats and opportunities as it seeks competitive advantage and profits

The Clan Culture focuses on internal issues and values flexibility and discretion rather than seeking stability and control. The goal is to manage the environment through teamwork, participation, and consensus.

The Adhocracy Culture focuses on external issues and values flexibility and discretion rather than seeking stability and control; key values are creativity and risk taking. Organizational charts are temporary or nonexistence; roles and physical space are also temporary.

The six key dimensions of organizational culture, according to Cameron and Quinn (1999), are Dominant Characteristics, Organizational Leadership, Management of Employees, Organizational Glue Strategic Emphasis, and Criteria for (judging) Success. Further description of the OCAI will be revealed during discussion of cultural research studies in this chapter and during methodology description in chapter 3 of this dissertation.

Although difficult to define and operationalize, the concept of culture is an important tool for understanding the beliefs and behavior of individuals in organizations or systems (Coelling & Simms, 1993; Kilmann, 1989; Cartwright & Webley, 1999; Harris & Ogbonna, 1999; Robles, 1998). Since the early 1980s, knowledge about organizational culture has gained momentum as a predictive and explanatory construct in organizational behavior.

### **Organizational Culture Studies**

The true culture of an organization is not readily recognized and requires in-depth analysis to discern underlying patterns and assumptions (del Bueno & Vincent, 1986; Buskirk & McGrath, 1999; Farazmand, 1999). The lack of quantitative research

suggests a need to further investigate the culture of a large, homogenous sample of higher education organization using quantitative methods in order for the findings to have greater applicability. During this literature review of organizational culture, data concerning the relationship between culture and higher education was determined to be less than abundant. As early as the mid- 1980's, Masland (1985) reported that organizational culture (OC) may effect faculty, student life, curriculum and administration. However, the research is limited and little is known about how OC influences administration and faculty behaviors.

While numerous studies exist which describe faculty perception of the less complex and related concept, organizational climate, (Oyeleye, 1992; Collins, 1992; Lewis, 1991; Lubbert, 1990; Grigsby, 1991; Collins, 1988; Elliott, 1987; Haussler, 1988; Donohue, 1986; Pollock, 1986) there were no studies related to faculty perception of school of nursing leadership and culture at this writing. As a result, analysis of this concept has revealed only speculation and further research is needed to explain the interplay between culture and the variables influencing it (Decker & Sullivan, 1992; Cartwright, Andrews, & Webley, 1999; Langan-Fox & Tan, 1997). There is a need to study the culture of education administration and its predictors (Leininger, 1991; P. Leary, personal communication, April 3, 1995).

The way one views culture will have a direct impact on the way one studies it (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984; Hofstede, 1998) and ultimately how one attempts to change it (Allen & Kraft, 1984; Sathe, 1983; Schein, 1983; Burke, 1997). Some theorists view culture as intangible shared meanings and basic assumptions. Others view culture as more tangible and observable. For the most part researchers define culture as a mixture

of forms and meanings (Lewis, 1996; Mahler, 1997). The overall confusion as to the definition, nature and usefulness of culture has led to inconsistency within the cultural literature.

Almost without exception, a study of behavior has been included in the methods utilized during the assessment of culture. While behavior is one aspect of culture, culture is not the only determinant of behavior. Behavior is not always an effective indication of values and underlying assumptions (Lewis, 1995). Methods with the greatest chance of discovering a culture are those that attempt to uncover the underlying assumptions of the culture.

Overall, it was thought the qualitative methods presented by Louis (1981), Schein (1983, 1984) and Sathe (1983, 1985) provided a suitable method of obtaining information required for studying culture. These methods were broad enough to encompass the numerous facets of culture and delve into the basic assumptions that are the core of culture. Louis (1981) contends that culture needs to be examined as a whole utilizing methods such as phenomenological and ethnographic methods. Sathe (1985) believes that a culture consists of underlying assumptions and uses shared sayings, things, doings and feelings as cultures manifestations. Schein (1984) provides a list of categories for studying assumptions as well as ten mechanisms that founders and management use to embrace and transmit values and assumptions.

Hofstede (1986) made one of the first attempts to measure culture quantitatively and made the point for the strong need for less speculation as to what culture is and emphasized the importance of accurate measurement. Others include Amsa (1986), Desatnik (1986), Reynierse (1986), Reynierse & Harker (1986), Reynolds (1986) Barnett

(1988), Cooke & Rousseau (1988) and Wiener (1988). Reynierse and Harker (1986) utilize a combination of quantitative and qualitative measurement and provide managers with feedback. Their justification for their method is that in order to manage culture, one must be able to measure it. Cooke and Rousseau (1988) state that quantitative approaches serve more practical approaches for the purposes of analyzing data-based change in organizations.

Scholarly literature pertaining to the quantitative study of culture since 1989 has not been overly abundant. The quantitative measurement of culture remains problematic due to the abstract nature of the concept. Hofstede et al. (1990; 1998) have made efforts to overcome the problems associated with quantitative research regarding culture. They use a combination of in-depth interviews and questionnaire surveys and report. Their findings and conclusions lend encouragement for future researchers (Lewis, 1995).

Freedman (1979) used ethnographic methods to complete a qualitative analysis of faculty culture in three institutions of higher learning: University of California, Berkeley; Stanford University; and Mulls College. Faculty (n=70) were interviewed using predetermined questions in order to describe each OC. Using specific criteria, the results were compared with findings from the other two institutions in order to arrive at conclusions related to faculty development. The results indicated that organizations that had a shared vision, valued students and faculty, and maintained an environment that was encouraging, supportive and cooperative placed the most emphasis on faculty development

Deal and Kennedy (1982) used pre-established, open-ended questions to interview employees and managers in 80 American companies. Methods for data analysis were not

described. Only 25 companies were outstanding performers with clearly articulated beliefs and values. Of those 25 companies, 18 had beliefs and values related to quality, were classified as strong culture companies, and were further investigated via interviews, document review, and observation.

Companies with strong cultures had clear visions and beliefs, used rituals and ceremonies to promote teamwork and reward success, were in touch with the world around them, had a long-term focus, used two-way communication, focused on personnel development and job security, and practiced mutual decision-making. Components of culture were the business environment, shared values, heroes, rites and rituals, and two-way communication (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). The findings lend preliminary support to communication, mutual decision-making, and personnel development as important elements of organizational culture.

Peters and Waterman (1982), in a descriptive study, surveyed employees and managers in 62 companies ranging from service to consumer and industrial goods to resource-based companies, in order to determine how big companies prosper. The companies were selected based on past financial success. The most successful companies financially were characterized by cultures that were customer-oriented, action focused, promoted autonomy and entrepreneurship, used informal, two-way communication, used participative management and fostered family-sized units for small groups as the building blocks of the organization.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) conducted an exploratory study to determine the qualities of a successful leader. Observation and unstructured interviews with 60 successful executives and 30 outstanding leaders from the public sector were conducted. The

researchers concluded that a successful leader is a transformational one who creates and communicates a vision to construct a successful OC. The OC promotes creativity, trust, two-way communication, mutual decision-making, and personnel development.

Koberg and Chusmir (1987) examined the relationship between three types of OC (bureaucratic, supportive, innovative) and other job-related variables in a descriptive-correctional study. The convenience sample consisted of 165 managers of large business in a Western metropolitan area. The Organizational Culture Index (OCI) by Wallach (1983) measured OC. The items on the OCI describe culture in three subscales: authoritarian/bureaucratic compromise/supportive and performance/ innovative. Additional valid and reliable instruments were used to measure each of the other variables: job satisfaction; job involvement; propensity to leave; need for achievement; need for power; and need for affiliation. The researchers reported that there were positive correlations for subjects with a need for power and bureaucratic culture, need for affiliation and supportive culture, and need for achievement and innovative culture. Values for these correlations were not provided.

Rice and Austin (1988) reported on a descriptive study completed by the Taskforce on the Future of the Academic Workplace in Liberal Arts Colleges. Over 4000 faculty in 140 colleges were surveyed with open-ended questions to investigate the culture of liberal arts colleges. The survey instrument, methods of data collection, and specific findings were not reported. Ten liberal arts colleges characterized by excellence, were further explored and found to have a distinctive OC. Excellence was not defined in the investigation report. Although the means of determination were not discussed, the important elements of culture were listed as: commitment to students and community;

equal consideration to customers and employees; faculty development and policies to sustain morale and satisfaction of faculty; clearly articulated mission; faculty involvement in all decisions; broad definition of scholarship; environment of collaboration and collegiality; and faculty and administration working together and harder to keep organizational momentum going during hard times. The data from which these conclusions were drawn were not reported; therefore, generalizability of the findings is limited.

Schweitzer (1988) used a Likert-type instrument in a descriptive study to survey 49 mass communications faculty with high research productivity. The purpose was to determine if productive researchers would be found in institutions that had an OC conducive to research and supported faculty research in various ways. Mean values for the survey questions were calculated from the 39 returned questionnaires.

Personal motivation was the most important dimension of success. An OC that included the stimulation and encouragement of colleagues, mentorship, support from department chairs, time for research and the availability of resources was an important dimension of success. The findings support a relationship between organizational culture and research productivity.

Chaffee and Tierney (1988) used qualitative and quantitative methods to study organizational culture in a descriptive study of seven colleges and universities. The Institutional Performance Survey (IPS) was used to collect data. Mean values were provided for each institution concerning questions about shared mission, decision-making practices, innovation, morale, administration, conflict, external factors, students, resources, communication and faculty. Data were collected in 1983 and 1985, but no

statistical analyses beyond reporting means for each year were performed since the study was descriptive. Qualitative data about OC were gathered using an interview protocol that identified elements of leadership and culture. Communication emerged as an element of culture in all seven settings. Additional elements were congruence of values and structure, clear identity of the institution and socialization mechanisms.

Qualitative and quantitative approaches were used in a descriptive study of OC by Denison (1990) in 34 business organizations. An undisclosed number of managers and employees were surveyed with researcher-developed instruments which were not identified nor available for review. Five of the 34 organizations were also described in case studies.

From the findings, the researcher concluded that the OC element of participation in decision-making was the most important aspect of outstanding financial performance of an organization. Other organizational culture elements determined to influence financial success were shared beliefs, clear mission, orientation to customers, and adaptability to the environment. Denison's findings suggested that success of an organization is related to certain OC elements. The quantitative results also indicated that survey research can be used to measure OC.

Research in the area of organizational culture and effectiveness (Denison, 1990) provides empirical evidence that components of culture affect desired outcomes. Results of this research reveal that involvement and participation within cultures promote ownership and involvement; consistency and understanding of beliefs, values, and symbols lead to organizational effectiveness, members' adaptability and ability to change.

Sandella (1990) qualitatively investigated the OC operating in six hospitals classified according to high, moderate, and low success with DRG's (diagnostic related groups/categories). Fifty-one individual and group interviews of nurses were completed using open-ended, semi-structured questions. Bormann's fantasy-theme analysis was used to analyze 698 pages of interview manuscripts. The findings indicate that OC which embraces shared vision, commitment to quality, collaboration, shared decision-making, creativity, and leaders who foster these elements may be essential to productive behavior and empowerment as identified by the nurses.

Thomas, Ward, Chorba, and Kumiega (1990) used quantitative-descriptive approach to measure and interpret OC in a hospital setting. The Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) was administered to 56 registered nurses in one hospital (Cooke, Lafferty, & Level, 1989). The theoretical underpinnings of the OCI originate for the Life Styles Inventory developed by Lafferty (1973). The OCI consists of 120 questions describing behaviors or personal styles that might be expected in an organization. Scoring of the questions produces 12 scales that are classified and plotted as OC styles on a circumplex graph. The nurses did not agree on norms and expectations, suggesting a lack of consensus about the culture. The circumplex plots demonstrated expectations for culture styles in the passive/defensive and aggressive/defensive categories rather than in the constructive styles.

Correlations were completed on combined variables to identify the following values: bureaucratic culture and need for power were positively related to job satisfaction and job involvement and negatively related to propensity to leave; supportive culture and need for affiliation were positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to

propensity to leave; innovative culture and need for achievement were positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to propensity to leave. No other statistically significant relationships were identified. When culture scores were not correlated with manager needs for affiliation, achievement or power scores, the results were very different for job satisfaction, job involvement, and propensity to leave. The authors concluded that the correlations provided support for expectations suggested in the literature.

The relationship between the content of Organizational Culture (OC) and organizational outcomes have been evidenced in numerous studies (Odom, Box & Drum, 1990; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991; Cameron & Freeman, 1991; and Sheridan, 1992). The OCs in these studies were characterized as people-oriented and supportive. This type of culture was associated with positive outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Chatman and Jehn (1994) conducted a study which investigated the relationship between technology, growth and organizational culture. Fifteen firms representing four industries in the service sector were studied. The industries having more positive and stable organizational cultures had higher rates of productivity and growth. Since positive cultures influence productivity, then it would be important to recognize the type of culture within the organization in order to make changes which would have the potential to increase productivity.

According to Bass (1998), Bass & Avolio (1993b) used the Organizational Description Questionnaire (ODQ) with several hundred organizational members of 69 organizations. First factor analysis of the responses discovered two distinct factors, one

transformational and the other transactional. Two of the items in the 28 comprising initial scores had to be modified for failing to highly correlate with its own factor. Respondents indicated whether each of the 28 statements was true, false, or they could not say. Scores were denoted +1 for true, -1 for false, and 0 for undecided. The total transformational and transactional scores for each respondent ranged from -14 to +14. Coefficient alphas for the 14-item transactional scale were 0.60 and 0.64 for the 169 participants and 0.64 for their 724 subordinates. Corresponding alphas for the transformational scale were 0.77 and 0.69.

Avolio and Bass (1994) conducted research using the Organizational Description Questionnaire (ODQ) to explore organizational culture. The ODQ is a 28-item survey questionnaire. It explores elements of a culture related to assumptions, processes and expectations. One hundred thirty leaders from industry, education and health care and 877 of their subordinates were administered the questionnaire. Subjects were volunteers occupying various levels of management. In addition to the ODQ, five factors were explored related to elements of quality improvement including vision, information sharing, quality assurance, customer satisfaction and working with others.

Organizational vision, information sharing, and perceived customer satisfaction were discovered to be higher in the transformational organizations for both the program participants and their subordinates. Quality assurance and good working relations were also seen as higher by the subordinates, but not the program participants in transformational organizations. Subordinates exhibited slightly more negative correlations with perceived quality improvement (-.17, -.12, -.11, -.13, and -.12). Correlations between transformational cultures and quality improvement for the

subordinates were .23, .23, .24, .22, and .17. The organizations described as transformational appeared more likely to be seen as doing more to improve the quality of production and service. Transactional cultures seemed to be doing less.

Commitment and OC were the concepts under study by Sugato (1994). The study examined the relationship between employee commitment and OC. The OC was identified as being constructive characterized by achievement, self-actualizing, and encouraging; passive/defensive marked by approval, convention and dependency, and aggressive/defensive which are dominated by opposition, power and perfectionism. The findings indicated a relationship with high overall employee commitment and constructive culture. The study suggests that the content of the culture is important to commitment. Employees who are highly committed to their organizations are more motivated to perform at a higher level of productivity. This study could be used as a basis for cultural change which would be more conducive in promoting employee commitment.

Klein, Masi & Weidner (1995) conducted research on culture and perceptions of quality within organizations. The premise of this study was an improved understanding of the relationships between organizational culture, control and perceived service quality is crucial to the effectiveness of organizations. Results of the study indicated that there was a significant relationship between organizational culture, control and between culture and quality of services, culture and employee performance, and total control and service quality. Relevance of this study would be that culture affects organizational quality and performance. Therefore, if the results of this study indicate that leadership affects organizational culture, it would also indirectly affect the quality of an organization.

Corporate culture, environmental adaptation, effectiveness, and innovation were concepts examined by Kitchell (1995). In her study, the relationship between these concepts were examined using both qualitative and quantitative methods. Linear regression depicted that corporate cultures of adaptive companies were more innovative and more likely to adapt and survive adoption of new technology. This study gives credence to the importance of understanding culture. In this electronic, computerized era, it is important that companies learn to adapt to change in order to grow and prosper. Cultural assessment can assist in identifying organizations which may have problems with adaptation to new ideas and change. Early identification of problems within the culture will have ramifications on making necessary changes to make the organization more conducive to change. This would entail having the right type of leadership in place to assist in the transformation of the culture.

Chatman & Barsade (1995) studied personality, organizational culture and cooperation in their research with master degree business students. They explored the personal and situational sources of cooperation by contrasting behavior under conditions of personality fit and misfit with culture in an organizational simulation. Predictions were derived from congruence theory. Culture was described as either collectivistic or individualistic. The more cooperative subjects were found in collectivistic cultures. These subjects worked with the greatest number of people and had the strongest preferences for evaluation work performance on the basis of contributions to teams rather than individual achievement. Cooperative people were more responsive to the individualistic or collectivistic norms characterizing their culture. A collectivistic culture is one in which its members work together for the good of the collective whole

organization. From this study, one could make the assumption that the cultural identification is important in that certain cultures promote cooperation within the members. The organizations that have cooperative workers are more effective.

Baron (1995) examined the effect of organizational culture on communication and information. Fifteen companies were studied in order to gain a better understanding of the concept of corporate culture and to determine which aspects of culture can hinder the adoption of personnel strategies that could be used for corporate culture management. Results indicated that if human resources management continues to function at a level which maintains cultures lacking innovation, have poor indicators for change and have problems with communication, then the culture of the organization will not change. This study would indicate that the leadership or an organization may be able to affect changes within the culture.

Snarr & Krochalk (1996) examined job satisfaction and attributes of culture within nursing programs. This research utilized a stratified random sample of 48 baccalaureate nursing programs in the United States were used. The Job Descriptive Index and Organizational Characteristics Questionnaire were used as measurement instruments. The organizational characteristics examined were: institutional control, size, nursing degrees offered, programs offered, number of nursing faculty, budget, tenure and salary. Correlation and Multiple regression analysis indicated weak to negligible relationships between job satisfaction and organizational characteristics. The author recommended further study to examine the dimensions of job satisfaction and the academic environment. This research is important because it demonstrates the need to further investigate school of nursing environments.

## **Transformational Leadership and Culture Studies**

The leader who recognizes that culture is an important concept in relation to the functioning of organizations has a better chance of influencing and guiding the culture in goal attainment. Quick (1992), Kotter & Heskett (1992) and Collins & Porras (1994) agreed that culture may be an intermediary of the effect of leadership on organizational performance.

During training for a Full Range Leadership Program Avolio & Bass, (1991) had 87 participants and 168 of their subordinates complete the ODQ to describe their respective organizations. This was repeated at six months and again two years later. The trained leaders' perception that their organization was transactional decreased from  $-3.72$  to  $-4.40$  from the first administration of the ODQ to the second. The subordinates' perceptions of their organization's transactional culture increased from  $-3.32$  to  $-2.41$  from the first to second administration of the ODQ. Subordinates reported more structure being introduced by their leaders. There was strong agreement about the increase in transformational qualities in the different organizations. The leaders mean organizational transformational scores rose  $+6.60$  to  $+10.41$ . The sub-ordinates comparable scores increased from  $+6.60$  to  $+8.70$ . Changes in scores were statistically significant. The scores were concentrated on the middle range of scores or "coasting" culture typology.

Howell and Avolio (1993) conducted studies and investigations of the TFL model and OC across three levels of individual, team and organization to demonstrate the alignment of leadership and the processes of the organization. Data on OC including factors such as innovativeness and willingness to take risks correlate with the MLQ

ratings. Managers of divisions with high ratings of TFL are more innovative, risk taking, have higher performance records and are less bureaucratic (Howell & Avolio, 1993).

In 1998, Deluga investigated the interaction of leadership style using the framework of TFL and TRL theory and employee influencing behavior and activities. The research examined if organizational outcomes, such as organizational productivity, are influenced by the relationship between leadership, influence behaviors and strategies. Results indicate that a TFL style and culture exerts a positive influence on employee behavior and group productivity.

Bass (et al 1994) examined the impact of TFL training on OC by the use of the ODQ. The sample consisted of 489 community leaders, their groups, and their organizations. The project extended longitudinally across a three-year time frame. The study was conducted by the Center for Leadership Studies, Binghamton University. The OC survey scores ranged from most transformational or transactional to least transformational or transactional. The organizational culture was rated by the followers as more transformational and less transactional over time after the TFL training is complete. The leader also self-rated high on their culture as becoming more transformational after the training intervention was completed.

Chadwick (1999), in his unpublished doctoral dissertation, examined TFL, TRL styles and organizational culture within public schools. Subjects included in the study were all male principals. In his study he used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass, 1995) and the Organizational Description Questionnaire (Bass, 1994) to determine measures of leadership and culture. The results demonstrated that every component was statistically significantly related to the other. Pearson correlations were used as were the

stepwise regression tests charisma and contingent reward proved to be the most consistent predictors of the outcomes of satisfaction, extra effort, and effectiveness. Attributed charisma was the highest predictor of culture scores.

Numerous unpublished doctoral dissertations (Gawreluck, 1993; Lee, 1995; Louer, 1993; McFadden, 1995; Newell, 1995; Sobek, 1996; Zinck, 1997; Sueki, 1998; Wood, 1998) have examined the perceived relationship between leadership and OC within a variety of settings. The settings included community colleges, K-12 public educational settings, the United States Air Force, school districts/systems and a private four year liberal arts college. Subjects included college presidents, deans, school principals, and an air force squadron. Various methods of examining the two concepts were used including both quantitative and qualitative studies. Different tools were utilized to describe and determine the relationship between leadership and culture. In each study, there was a statistically significant relationship unveiled between the two concepts, leadership and culture. None of the studies utilized the instruments being used in this dissertation.

### **Summary**

As the literature review indicates, there has been a wealth of data that has attempted to define and describe the effects of TFL on the organization. The emphasis has been, for the most part, on the qualities and personal attributes of the leader. The purpose of this study is to attempt to expand the scope of these studies and extend it beyond the leader to include those dimensions of the collective group activities and culture that are influenced by the leader. The TFL process as a whole facilitates heightened group participation, accomplishment of mission, creation of vision, goal

accomplishment, outcome achievement, renewal of commitment, organizational effectiveness and ultimately promotes standards of quality within the organization. Transformational leadership serves as a mechanism to create new energy and revitalization of organizational culture.

Within the context of this chapter, the evolutionary status of transformational, transactional leadership and organizational culture has been presented. The results of the transformational leadership and organizational culture empirical studies have been applied to a variety of settings including hospital, business, industry, and to a more limited degree, higher education. The literature review indicates the possibilities of relationships between leadership and organizational culture. Bass' (1985) transformational and transactional leadership model provides the basis for the theoretical and empirical reasoning for further investigation of leadership and culture. The relationship between leadership and culture is discussed and suggests that the leader may be able to influence the culture. The chief objective of the leadership model is to assist the organization develop a culture in which members are afforded the opportunity to achieve the highest degree of quality possible.

## **Chapter 3**

### **Methods**

#### **Introduction**

The purpose of this study was to describe department of nursing faculty perception of school of nursing educator leader's leadership style, describe the organizational culture within the school of nursing and to determine if there is a relationship between the two variables. The research design, instruments, and data collection procedures will be described in this chapter. Transformational and transactional leadership style ratings and organizational culture typology as perceived by nursing faculty was based upon Bass' leadership (1985; 1994) theory and Cameron and Quinn's (1999) cultural framework.

#### **Research Design**

A non-experimental, descriptive-correlational study was undertaken to describe faculty's perception of the leadership style of the dean, organizational culture of the school of nursing, and the relationship that may exist between these variables. Descriptive co-relational designs were used when relationships between and among variables are being examined and described. Correlation designs examine the association between variables, such that as one variable changes, there is a relationship with the type and degree of change in another variable (Polit & Hungler, 1999; Nieswiadomy, 2002). The study used an ex-post facto causal comparative design to examine and describe the relationships between and among variables. The independent variables were: Transformational leadership, Transactional leadership, and Laissez-faire leadership perceived behaviors and the dependent variables are organizational culture typology.

With this method of research design, multiple regression analysis was used to study these variables. Multiple regression is an equation based on correlation statistics in which each predictor variable is entered into the equation to determine how strongly it relates to the outcome variable and how much variation in the outcome variable can be predicted by each independent variable (Polit & Hungler, 1999; Nieswiadomy, 2002).

Leadership was described in terms of Bass' (1994) Multifactoral Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5X. The MLQ 5X will be used to collect data regarding the independent variables: TFL, TRL and laissez-faire style. Organizational culture (OC) was described in terms of organizational culture sub-scale scores from the Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). Faculty were described in relation to scores from the demographic questionnaire. The subscale scores will be correlated with the scores from the MLQ.

### **Sample**

Non-probability convenience sampling was employed for this study. This method of sampling may limit the generalizability of the findings (Polit & Hungler, 1999; Fain, 1999; Nieswiadomy, 2002). However, given the dearth of information, this method will be appropriate. The desired number of subjects in this sample will be closely coupled to the study design and data analysis procedures. The sample size should be increased for the following reasons: many uncontrolled variables are present; small effect sizes are anticipated; groups must be broken into subgroups; high attrition is expected; a high level of statistical significance, statistical power, or both are required; the population is highly heterogeneous on the variables of interest; or reliable measures of the criterion variable are not available (Burns & Grove, 1997; Fain, 1999). Few of these factors for increasing

the sample size affected this study. The sample size was derived from a group of school of nursing education leaders and nursing program faculty that teach in schools of nursing located within the realms of the Southern Regional Education Board. America's "first interstate compact for education, the Southern Regional Education Board is a nonprofit, nonpartisan organization that helps government and education leaders in its 16 member states work together to advance education and improve the social and economic life of the region. The nation and all 16 SREB member states face an acute shortage of nurses that is expected to grow as the population ages and health care needs expand" (SREB, 2007).

To help meet this demand, the SREB Council on Collegiate Education for Nursing has become a leader in cooperative planning and activities that strengthen nursing education in colleges and universities in the South (SREB, 2007). The council serves as a regional resource center for nursing education in Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia and the District of Columbia (SREB, 2007).

The SREB Council on Collegiate Education for nursing reports the following statistics related to the number of graduates and passage rates for NCLEX-RN for 2006 (SREB, 2007) include:

	<b>Candidate Number</b>	<b>Number Passed</b>	<b>% Passed</b>
<b>SREB</b>	13,481	11,849	87.90
<b>Non-SREB</b>	22,015	18,941	86
<b>ALL</b>	35,496	30,770	86.70

There will be no subgroups. Attrition should not be a problem since this study will not be longitudinal.

The level of significance will be set at 0.05. This level will be appropriate since life and death measures will not be studied (Polit & Hungler, 1999; Nieswiadomy, 2002). The sample population should be heterogeneous. The instruments to measure the variables are reliable and valid. Subjects (Ss) were obtained from a population of full-time school of nursing faculty in colleges of nursing that offer baccalaureate programs.

The listing of those universities were obtained from State Board of Nursings' web sites (2007) and Peterson's Guide to Schools of Nursing (2001). Sampling was accomplished in the following manner: After receiving approval from the Marshall University Educational Leadership Doctoral Research Committee (Appendix A) a query letter was sent to the nursing program dean explaining the study and requesting permission to access faculty (Appendix C). Upon request, abstracts of the study and copies of the consent form were provided. Follow-up letters were sent to the subjects (ss) who do not respond to the first letter.

### **Measurement/Instrumentation**

Quantitative studies derive data through the measurement of research variables. "Measurement of data consists of rules for assigning numbers to objects to represent quantities of attributes" (Nunnally, 1978, p. 2). This definition of measurement indicates that numbers are assigned to objects according to specified rules rather than haphazardly. Also, the measurement procedure must be isomorphic to reality, that which it measures must have some correspondence with the real world (Polit and Hungler, 1999). The reliability of a quantitative research tool

is a major criterion for assessing quality and adequacy. Reliability refers to the degree of consistency with which it measures the variable it is supposed to be measuring. The less variation an instrument produces in repeated measurements of a variable, the higher the reliability, consistency or dependability is the measurement (Burns and Grove, 1997; Nieswiadomy, 2002).

Construct validity is the degree in which a measured construct relates to other variables according to an existing theory. Construct validity is concerned with the underlying attribute or variable that with the scores the instrument produces. The scores constitute a valid basis for inferring the subject's degree of characteristic possession. The more abstract the concept, the more difficult it is to establish the construct validity of the measure. On the same token, the more abstract the concept, the less suitable it is to validate a measure by the criterion-related approach. Suitability as well as feasibility must be taken into consideration (Burns & Grove, 1997; Polit & Hungler, 1999; Fain, 1999).

Factor analysis is a method for identifying clusters of related variables. Each cluster is referred to as a factor and represents a relatively solitary attribute. Factor analysis is used to identify and group different measures of some attribute. Factor analysis constitutes another way of observing the convergent and discriminant validity of a large set of measures (Polit & Hungler, 1999; Nieswiadomy, 2002).

Utilizing an instrument with established validity assists the researcher in determining if instrument is indeed validly measuring the attribute of study. However, it is not the alpha and omega of research. A tool can't be classified as possessing or lacking validity as it is a mere question of degree. It is not appropriate to refer to the process of

validation as yielding proof of validity. The testing of an instrument's validity can not be proven with 100% accuracy, but instead the validity is supported to a greater or lesser degree by evidence. The tool is not validated, rather some application of the instrument is. Validity increases the confidence that the researcher has that the tool is measuring what it is supposed to be measuring (Polit and Hungler, 1999).

Questionnaires are a reliable method for collecting information on peoples' knowledge, opinions, attitudes, values and perceptions (Polit & Hungler, 1999; Fain, 1999). Two questionnaires and a demographic data form were utilized as the tools of measure in this study. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass, 1985) was used to measure leadership (Appendix F). The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) was used to measure organizational culture (Appendix G).

### **Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire**

The internationally renowned Multifactorial Leadership Questionnaire (Appendix F—copyright statement) developed by Bass (1995; 1998) was used to measure the independent variables: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style and their subordinate's reported job satisfaction, extra effort on the job and perception of leader effectiveness. Numerous leadership studies have utilized the MLQ. The MLQ 5X is both a self-report and other report measure of leadership style and leader effectiveness based on Bass's (1985) theory of TFL and TRL. Rater Form/5X short).

The MLQ has been used in numerous studies to test the model of TFL, TRL and Laissez-faire (LF) leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993, 1994, 1995). This study analyzed the faculty perceptions of their deans, therefore, only the Rater form was used. Raters complete the MLQ 5X to evaluate how frequently or to what degree, they are able to

observe the leader display or take part in 32 specific behaviors and the additional leadership attribute items that together form the nine components of TFL, TRL and LF leadership. The questionnaire can be completed within 15 minutes.

The MLQ measures a full range of leadership styles and behaviors including TFL, TRL and LF and three outcomes of leadership style: extra effort; effectiveness; and satisfaction. The descriptions of the Leadership factors measured by the MLQ and their respective profile names, outcomes and items are described as follows:

#### 1. MLQ – Transformational Leadership

This includes four transformational components:

a. idealized influence (II) — transformational leaders behave in ways which result in them receiving admiration, respect trust and emulation from followers. TFL are extraordinarily capable, persistent and determined;

b. inspirational motivation (IM) — TFL motivates and inspires those around them by providing meaning, optimism, enthusiasm and strive for a vision of a future state;

c. intellectual stimulation (IS) — TFL encourages followers to question assumptions, reframe problems, approach old solutions in new ways, be creative and innovative. Their followers may differ from those of the leader;

d. individualized consideration (IC) — TFL develop the potential of followers by creating new opportunities for development, coaching, mentoring, and paying attention to follower's needs and desires. They know their staff well, listen and communicate well, and encourage rather than monitoring follower's efforts.

These four factors represent the associates' reaction to the type of leader and leader's behaviors. Bass later combined idealized influence and inspirational motivation into a single charismatic-inspirational transform (Bass, 1998).

## 2. MLQ – Transactional Leadership

Transactional leaders exhibit behaviors that are associated with either constructive and corrective transactions. The constructive style is referred to as Contingent Reward and the corrective style is called Management-by-Exception and is either active or passive.

a. contingent reward (CR) — follower actions are rewarded and disapproved actions are punished or sanctioned;

b. management by exception (active) – leader monitors to ensure that mistakes do not occur and permits the status quo to remain without question and management by exception (passive) — leader provides monitoring of performance and intervention when judged appropriate and later reflects correction only when problems arise;

## 3. MLQ –Non-Transactional Leadership

Laissez-faire (LF) is an abrogation of leadership without any transaction (the most ineffective approach). This type of leader avoids either transaction or agreements with the associate as leadership is absent. There is lack of intervention and leadership. Both feedback and involvement are absent. There is no attempt to motivate, recognize or satisfy needs of subordinates.

#### 4. MLQ — Outcomes of Leadership

TFL and TRL are related to the outcomes and success of an organization. The frequency of which the raters perceive their leaders to be motivating, effective and satisfied the subordinate is with the leader are measured. Representing the outcomes are the following variables:

- a. Extra Effort (EE) — Describes the extent extra effort is exerted beyond ordinary in relation to leadership;
- b. Effectiveness — The leaders' effectiveness from self and other rater perception in four areas is reflected including: meeting job-related need of associates; representing associates; needs to higher levels in the organization; contributing to organizational effectiveness; performance of the leader's work group.
- c. Satisfaction (SAT) — Reflects how satisfied both leader and associate is with the leader's style and methods and with the leader in general.

The MLQ, Form 5X will be utilized to collect data regarding the independent variables of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership (Bass, 1994). The MLQ has been widely utilized by Bass and others in the fields of business, military and industry. It has also been used to research leadership styles of educational administrators and nurse leaders. The latest version of the MLQ, Form 5X, has been used in over 200 research programs, doctoral dissertations and masters theses (Bass & Avolio, 1995). The MLQ is a 45-item questionnaire that measures transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership utilizing a five-point Likert scale. Numerical

values are given for each of the responses for the leadership factors. The values are as follows: 4 = frequently if not always, 3 = fairly often, 2 = sometimes, 1 = once in a while, 0 = not at all. Respondents are instructed to leave the answer blank if the item is irrelevant, does not apply or when there is uncertainty regarding the answer. The scores for each factor are averaged. The averaged scores for each factor is an indicator of the characteristic of the leadership style. The factors for TFL are idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The TRL factors are contingent reward and management by exception, active and passive. Laissez-faire leadership measures non-leadership. There are also nine items that measure the independent variables of effectiveness, extra effort, and satisfaction.

Two non-US studies have investigated the construct and discriminant validity of the MLQ. A Dutch study, conducted by Den Hartog, Van Muijen, and Koopman (1990) tested the factor structure of the MLQ. They discovered a structure composed of a transformational, a transactional and a laissez-faire factor, but no separate dimensions of the TFL and TRNL.

Carless (1998) investigated the discriminant validity of TFL behavior. Using the MLQ, she conducted confirmatory factor analysis of the data. She concluded that the subscales of the MLQ (Form-5X) were highly correlated and had a high proportion of the variance of the subscales explicable by the higher-order construct. There was little evidence to justify interpretation of the individual subscale scores.

Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1999) re-examined the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the MLQ. A total of 3786 respondents in 14 independent samples in the United States and foreign companies completed the MLQ

Form 5X. Each subject described his/her respective leader. Nine models representing different factor structures were compared to determine the best fit for the MLQ survey. The models were tested in the original set of nine samples and then in a second replication set which had five samples. Results indicated the factor structure for the MLQ was best represented by the six lower order factors and three correlated to the higher order factors.

The internal consistency reliability of the MLQ has been previously determined by Bass (1988, 1990, 1994, 1995, 1998). The alpha coefficients for the rater are above 0.82 except for active management by exception. In the revised version of the MLQ 5X (sample number = 2082), reliability scores are as follows: attributed idealized attributes (IIA), (0.86); idealized influence (IIB), (0.87); inspirational motivation (IM), (0.91); intellectual stimulation (IS), (0.90); individualized consideration (IC), (0.90); contingent reward (CR), (0.87); active management by exception (MBEA), (0.74); passive management by exception (MBCP), (0.82); laissez-faire (LF), (0.83); extra effort (EE), (0.91); effectiveness (EFF), (0.91); and satisfaction (SAT)(0.94) (Bass, 1994).

Reliabilities for the total items and for each leadership factor scale range from .74 to .94. The scales' reliabilities are generally high and exceeds standard cut-offs for internal consistency recommended by the literature. Reliability within data sets also indicate that the MLQ5x was a reliable measure for each leadership factor. The MLQ5x has an accepted construct validity based on initial and replication analysis of fourteen samples with an n = 3860. The validity coefficient of this model is .91.

Internal validity for the MLQ was initially established by Avolio and Bass in a earlier version of the MLQ 5X (1988). The following coefficient alphas are the estimates

of internal consistency for 728 respondents utilizing the MLQ: idealized attributes leadership (0.88); intellectual stimulation (0.83); individualized consideration (0.86); contingent reward (0.78); and management-by-exception (0.67) (Avolio & Bass, 1988). Inter-rater reliabilities were completed with values ranging in the high sixties and seventies for the TRL factors (Avolio & Bass, 1988).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used to examine the convergent and discriminant validities of each MLQ 5X scale by exploring the structural relations among latent constructs. These tests were used to find out if the data from the combined samples confirmed the conceptual model proposed by Avolio and Bass (1991). CFA allows methods to affect measures of constructs to differing degrees and correlates freely. This provides a more useful batch of information about the psychometric properties of the instrument. Utilization of chi-square differences tests and the size of factor loadings for items which represent constructs, allow the researcher to estimate convergent and discriminant validity of f surveys with a higher degree of accuracy (Burns and Grove, 1997).

### **Scoring the MLQ**

A five-point Likert scale is used to rate the frequency of the observed behavior. It has a magnitude estimation-based ratio of 4:3:2:1:0 per a tested list of anchors. The rating scale for leadership items are as follows: 0 = Not at all; 1 = Once in a while; 2 = Sometimes; 3 = Fairly Often; and 4 = Frequently, if not always

The numerical value is assigned to the respondent's answer for each factor. The numerical values are summed up and divided by the number of items for the factor. The

outcome variables are assigned values of from 1 – 5 and then each outcome variable is summed and divided by the number of items.

### **Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)**

The OCAI (Appendix G) was developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) based on an organizational culture framework built upon a theoretical model referred to as the Competing Values Framework. In this framework an organization has either a predominant internal or external focus, or it strives for flexibility and individuality, or stability and control. The OCAI consists of two forms comprised of the same items: one form asks respondents to assess the degree to which each of four statements is true regarding each of six dimensions; the second asks respondents to assess the degree to which each of the four statements would describe the ideal approach to each of the six dimensions.

The OCAI is useful in determining the degree to which an organization's culture supports its mission and goals, and in identifying underlying elements in the culture which may work against full achievement of its mission and goals. It may be used to assess an organization that is deliberately seeking to re-define itself and its culture. The OCAI assists in identifying cultural elements which best support—and those which hinder—its change efforts.

There are six organizational culture dimensions and four dominant culture types identified (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy) in this framework. The OCAI is used to determine the organizational culture profile based on the core values, assumptions, interpretations, and approaches that characterize organizations (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

A cultural profile can be constructed using the competing values framework. Through the use of theOCAI, an organizational culture profile can be drawn by establishing the organization's dominant culture type characteristics. Using this framework, the overall culture profile of an organization can be identified as:

- Clan: an organization that concentrates on internal maintenance with flexibility, concern for people, and sensitivity for customers.
- Hierarchy: an organization that focuses on internal maintenance with a need for stability and control.
- Adhocracy: an organization that concentrates on external positioning with a high degree of flexibility and individuality.
- Market: an organization that focuses on external maintenance with a need for stability and control

The questionnaire used to gather data from the sample consisted of a modified version of the "Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument" developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999). TheOCAI instrument was adapted and used to describe the organizational culture profile of Ohio State University Extension. Instrument validity and reliability for theOCAI have been established. In assessing the reliability of scales used in the questionnaire a coefficient of internal consistency is based on Cronbach's alpha methodology (Santos, 1999). The results for the statements contained in theOCAI for both current and preferred situations are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Coefficients of Internal Consistency Using Crombach's Alpha Methodology			
<b>Culture Type</b>	<b>Reliability Coefficients for Current Situation</b>	<b>Reliability Coefficients for Preferred Situation</b>	<b>Comparison Reliability Coefficients*</b>
Clan	.80	.77	.82
Adhocracy	.75	.72	.83
Market	.90	.84	.67
Hierarchy	.62	.79	.78
* Reliability coefficients reported by Cameron & Quinn (1999).			

Zammuto and Krakower (1991) used the OCAI to investigate the culture of higher education institutions using 1300 respondents including – 39% administrators, 34% chairpersons, and 27% trustees. Reliability coefficients of each culture type include: clan -- .82, adhocracy --.83, hierarchy -- .67 and market --.78.

Cameron and Freeman (1991) demonstrated validity of the OCAI in their study of organizational culture in 334 institutions of higher education of four-year colleges and universities in the United States. There were 3406 subjects including the president, chief academic, finance, student affairs, external affairs and institutional research officers. There were no organizations that were characterized by only one culture, however, dominant cultures were evident. The most frequently appearing culture was the clan culture and the least appearing was the market culture.

### **Demographic Questionnaire**

A demographic data (Appendix E) form described subject samples including age, ethnicity, sex, hours of work per week, size of organization, educational level, length of time at present position, total years of work experience in present position, years of

employment at the school and NCLEX results. Permission to use the two instruments was obtained (Appendix B and C).

### **Data Collection**

A cover letter and instruction packet directed to the NEL and faculty, the MLQ, OCAI, and demographic questionnaire was accompanied by a self-addressed, postage-paid envelope. The cover letter included will contain the following information: explanation of the study, explanation of the sample, confidentiality of the data, and right to withdraw at any time (Appendix Band C).

The faculty member will use the MLQ Rater Form to evaluate their direct superior's leadership behavior and outcome measures to indicate satisfaction, extra effort on the job, and perceptions of leader effectiveness and influence on individual and work group outcomes.

### **Ethical Considerations**

Review and compliance with the Human Subject Review Board at Marshall University was completed and approved (Appendix A).Subjects received letters explaining the nature of the research and questionnaires. Confidentiality was maintained. There will be no expected adverse effects form the completion of this questionnaire, therefore risks will be negligible. Participants have the right to fair treatment, privacy, confidentiality and informed consent (Polit & Hungler, 1999; Fain, 1999).

### **Data Analysis**

Co-relational descriptive and parametric statistics were used to analyze the collected data. The data was analyzed by using the Statistical Package for Social Science

(SPSS). SPSS is an integrated set of data management tools which can run all basic descriptive and inferential statistics, plus cluster analysis, multiple regression, factor analysis, discriminant function analysis, canonical correlation and psychometric analysis (Polit & Hungler, 1999). Multiple regression analysis is a dependence statistical technique used to determine the degree of the relationship between a single dependent variable and multiple independent variables (Polit & Hungler, 1999). Independent variable shall include:

1. TFL style composed of idealized influence (attributed, idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration;
2. TRL style comprised of contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), and management-by-exception (Passive):
3. Laissez-faire or non-leadership style.

The dependent variables are stated as follows:

1. Extra effort;
2. Satisfaction;
3. Leader effectiveness;
4. Organizational Culture.

### **Summary**

The concepts of leadership and culture play a dynamic role in the workings of any organization. Leadership has been studied exhaustively throughout the past three decades. Organizational culture has also been examined consummately. However, with the abstract nature of culture, there are still few definitive tools, which accurately measure

this concept transformation. There are fewer studies, which explore the relationship between leadership and culture within the setting of schools of nursing. This study is concerned with predicting dependent variables from a set of predictor variables. Data will be entered into the equation as non-aggregated (SPSS). The nine leadership factors will be entered into the model one at a time. Multiple regression will be used to describe the relationship between TFL, TRL and LF leadership behaviors and subordinates' view of job satisfaction, extra effort on the job, perceived leader effectiveness in individual and workgroup performance and organizational culture typology. Examination of these variables within this study hopefully will serve to validate and generate knowledge, which may be of importance to the nursing profession and higher education.

## Chapter 4

### Presentation and Analysis of Data

The main purpose of this study is to determine faculty perceptions pertaining to the relationship between measurements of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership and organizational culture within schools of nursing. This study is designed to investigate the relationship between the leadership styles of nursing deans and school of nursing culture as perceived by nursing faculty. The study tested the following research questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership and school culture?
2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between transactional leadership and school culture?
3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and school culture?

In order to analyze these research questions data was collected from a non-probability convenience sample ( $N=149$ ) of subjects taken from a sampling population of full-time school of nursing faculty colleges of nursing that offer baccalaureate programs. These colleges of nursing were located in BSN schools of nursing located within the Southern Regional Education Board.

This chapter will demonstrate demographic profiles of the sample studied and for each research question, both descriptive and inferential results will be offered and findings discussed. All tests were conducted at the 0.05 level of significance.

## Descriptive Statistics

The following descriptive statistics are based on the responses to the questions in the survey interviews with the participants in the study. Tables 1 and 2 show the demographic profiles of the participants personal and work related data in the study.

Table 1: *Demographic profile of participants (personal)*

Variable:	Valid N	Percentage
Gender:		
Female	130	87.3
Male	19	12.7
Age:		
20-30 yrs	12	8.0
31-40 yrs	15	10.1
41-50 yrs	50	33.6
51-60 yrs	51	34.2
61 yrs or older	21	14.1
Title/Rank:		
Instructor	19	12.8
Lecturer	13	8.7
Assist. Professor	51	34.2
Assoc. Professor	31	20.8
Professor	30	20.1
Other	5	3.4
Highest Degree:		
BSN	2	1.3
MSN	74	49.7
PhD	26	17.4
EdD	29	19.5
DNS	3	2.0
Other	8	5.4
Income:		
\$21,000 - 30,000	10	6.7
\$31,000 - 40,000	16	10.7
\$41,000 - 50,000	51	34.2
\$51,000 - 60,000	36	24.2
Above \$60,000	36	24.2

Table 2: *Demographic profile of participants (work related)*

Variable:	Valid N	Percentage
Type of Institution:		
Private University	17	11.4
Private College	15	10.1
State University	91	61.1
State College	21	14.1
Years Experience:		
0 - 5 yrs	19	12.8
6 - 10 yrs	33	22.1
11 - 15 yrs	45	30.2
16 - 20 yrs	28	18.8
21 yrs of service or more	24	16.1
Years in Current Position:		
0 - 5 yrs	39	26.2
6 - 10 yrs	26	17.4
11 - 15 yrs	39	26.2
16 - 20 yrs	30	20.1
21 yrs of service or more	15	10.1
Prior Admin Experience:		
Yes	28	20.0
No	112	80.0

Tables 3 and 4 show the descriptive statistics for the variable measures for Leadership and Culture used in the study. The 5-point Likert type responses (0=Not at all, 1=Once in a while; 2=Sometimes; 3=Fairly often; 4=Frequently, if not always) for both instruments were scored, according to instrument specifications, as mean measures for each variable with a minimum value of 0 and a maximum of 4.

Transformational leaders are leaders that are perceived by the rater to be admired, respected and trusted; motivate those around them; stimulate innovation and creativity; pay attention to individuals' growth and achievement. Transactional leaders offer recognition when goals are achieved; specify the standards for compliance taking corrective action as quickly as possible; avoid providing goals and standards to be

achieved. Laissez-faire leaders, however, avoid getting involved in urgent issues and making decisions (Bass, 1999).

Table 3: *Descriptive statistics of the variables as measured by the MLQ5X Rater Form*

Variables:	Valid N	MLQ5X Mean	SD
Independent variables:			
Transformation Leadership	149	2.93	0.70
Transitional Leadership	149	2.05	0.48
Laissez-faire Leadership	149	1.43	0.99
Dependent variables:			
Extra Effort	149	3.21	0.90
Satisfaction	149	3.22	0.85
Leader Effectiveness	149	3.19	0.89

The findings from the descriptive statistics indicated that the raters sometimes to fairly often perceived the leadership as showing a combination of transformational and transactional leadership styles, with Laissez-faire Leadership being shown once in a while to sometimes. In addition, leadership was perceived to frequently exhibit extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction, namely, these leaders get others to do more than they are expected to do; work with others in a satisfactory way and are effective in representing their group and meeting others' job-related needs.

The findings for organizational culture show that the means, though all measures are above 2, for clan culture is higher than the other cultures with adhocracy culture being

lower than the other cultures.

Table 4: *Descriptive statistics of the variables as measure by the OCAI*

Dependent Variables:	Valid N	Mean	SD
Clan Culture	149	2.96	0.97
Adhocracy Culture	149	2.17	0.78
Market Culture	149	2.30	0.73
Hierarchy Culture	149	2.25	0.86

### **Inferential Statistics**

In order to assess the research questions, firstly multiple regressions using analysis of variance were performed on the dependent variables defined as extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction and the predictor variables defined by the 9 sub-scales of the leadership questionnaire. The results are shown in Table 5. The findings show that there is a significant regression of the leadership styles on the outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction. These results suggest that the nursing faculty perceive all the leadership styles to be effective and satisfactory.

Table 5: Multiple regression of leadership styles

Model	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i> -Statistic	<i>p</i> -value
<b>Extra Effort:</b>				
Regression	14	5.207	14.697	0.00*
Residual	134	0.354		
R <sup>2</sup> = 0.61				
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = 0.56				
<b>Effectiveness:</b>				
Regression	14	5.932	32.232	0.00*
Residual	134	0.184		
R <sup>2</sup> = 0.77				
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = 0.75				
<b>Satisfaction:</b>				
Regression	14	6.202	27.219	0.00*
Residual	134	0.228		
R <sup>2</sup> = 0.74				
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = 0.71				

\* Significant relationship at  $p < 0.05$

For the organizational culture, Pearson's correlations were performed for each leadership style (transformational; transactional and laissez-faire) on each of the four dominant cultures identified by the OCAI to ascertain whether there were any relationships between these variables. Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient is most commonly used to measure a relationship between two variables and can be any value between -1 and 1, and is most accurate when the variable measures show sufficient covariance (a statistic representing the degree to which two variables vary together). This statistic indicates the strength and direction of the relationship. The results are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: *Pearson's correlations between the leadership styles and organizational culture*

Variables:	Clan	Adhocracy	Market	Hierarchy
Transformational	0.216*	0.341*	0.206*	0.304*
Transaction	0.519*	0.184*	0.337*	0.196*
Laissez-faire	0.037	0.284*	0.170*	0.159

\* Significant relationship at  $p < 0.05$

The findings showed significant positive correlations between the leadership styles and organizational culture, apart from the Laissez-faire leadership style, which is not significantly correlated with clan and hierarchy cultures. These results suggest that the responses of 'fairly often' or 'frequently' from the nursing faculty will mostly likely be the same for both leadership styles and organizational cultures. In other words, leadership styles are significantly correlated to organizational cultures.

To assess the significance of the relationships between the three main leadership styles and organizational culture, further analyses were conducted using multiple regressions. For each of the four main cultures, the findings showed that the leadership styles had a significant effect on organizational culture (Table 7).

Table 7: *Regression of leadership styles on organizational cultures*

Model	$R^2$	$df$	$F$ -Statistic	$p$ -value
Clan Culture	0.297	3, 145	20.403	0.00*
Adhocracy Culture	0.171	3, 145	9.978	0.00*
Market Culture	0.180	3, 145	10.629	0.00*
Hierarchy Culture	0.117	3, 145	6.401	0.00*

\* Significant relationship at  $p < 0.05$

Within each regression analysis, based on the significance of the beta coefficient parameter estimate, the result showed that measures for transformational leadership had significantly predictive value for the clan ( $\beta=0.552$ ), adhocracy ( $\beta=0.201$ ) and market ( $\beta=0.401$ ) cultures. Transactional leadership was found to have significantly predictive value for the adhocracy ( $\beta=0.185$ ) and hierarchy ( $\beta=0.220$ ) cultures, while laissez-faire leadership was found to have significantly predictive value for the adhocracy ( $\beta=0.251$ ) and market ( $\beta=0.267$ ) cultures.

### **Summary of Findings**

This chapter presented the statistical findings from the data. The personal demographic profiles showed that 87.3% of the sample were female, with most 33.6% being between the ages 31 and 40 years and 34.2% between the ages of 41 and 50 years. Most of the sample (34.2%) held the position of assistant professor with 20.8% associate professor, this was probably due to 49.7% having MSN as their highest degree. Only 17.4% reported to having an income of less than \$40,000 per annum.

The findings for the demographic profiles with respect to work related information, 61.1% of the participants work at state universities. The number of years experience ranged across all category intervals with most (30.2%) having 11 to 15 years of working experience, with similar results for the number of years the current position. In addition, 80% of the sample had not had any prior administrative experience.

The descriptive statistical findings of all the variables examined in the study showed that the mean measures tended towards responses of 'fairly often' and 'frequently' from the participants with regard to the perceived or observed behaviors of the leaders being rated.

Findings for the main research questions showed that there were statistically significant relationships between transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and school organizational structure. Although not all of the leadership styles showed predictive significance for organizational culture, the data showed that nursing faculty participants in this study appear to have a high regard their leaders. The results showed that there was a significant relationship between the three leadership styles identified and the outcomes from the MLQ5X. The outcomes defining leaders as those who could get others to do more than they are expected to do, who are able to work with others in a satisfactory way and those who are effective in representing their group and meeting others' job-related needs. The following chapter will discuss the findings and conclusion for the study, as well as provide recommendations for further study in this field.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations**

#### **Presentation and Analysis of Data**

This chapter addresses the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study. It contains a summary of the purpose, summary of the procedures, descriptive data and major findings. The chapter ends with conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future research.

#### **Summary of Purpose**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the relationship between leadership style and organizational culture within schools of nursing as perceived by nursing faculty. Findings of this study may be important to administrators and faculty in higher education because according to the literature, leaders do influence organizational culture (Bass, 1999). Effective leaders do influence culture by producing positive and productive change within organizations. (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

The following research questions guided this researchers study:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership and school culture?
2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between transactional leadership and school culture:
3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and school culture?

## **Summary of Procedures**

The population of this study consisted of non-probability convenience sample from selected undergraduate nursing programs within the Southern Regional Education Board System. These schools of nursing were identified via State Board of Nursing Web sites in the states whereby these schools were located. Types of institutions utilized were: Private Universities: 11.4%; Private Colleges: 10.1%; State Universities: 61.1%; and State Colleges: 14.1%. Subjects included 149 BSN faculty members.

Three data collections tools were utilized by this researcher. The first was a demographic questionnaire developed by this researcher to obtain descriptive statistics about the population including gender, age, title/rank, highest degree, income, institution type, years of faculty experience, years in current position, and history of prior administrative experience. The second was Bass (1999) Multi-factoral Leadership Questionnaire which measured three specific leadership styles including transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership as well as extra effort, satisfaction and leader effectiveness. The third tool was the Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). This questionnaire measures culture types including clan, market, adhocracy and hierarchy.

## **Summary of Descriptive Data**

Data was collected via mailing of 350 questionnaires to randomly selected schools of nursing throughout the Southern Regional Education Board system. America's first interstate compact for education, the Southern Regional Education Board is a nonprofit, nonpartisan organization that helps government and education leaders in its 16

member states work together to advance education and improve the social and economic life of the region (SREB 2007). The nation and all 16 SREB member states face an acute shortage of nurses that is expected to grow as the population ages and health care needs expand (SREB, 2007).

To help meet this demand, the SREB Council on Collegiate Education for Nursing has become a leader in cooperative planning and activities that strengthen nursing education in colleges and universities in the South (SREB, 2007). The council serves as a regional resource center for nursing education in Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia and the District of Columbia (SREB, 2007). There were 156 respondents, however, seven questionnaires were discarded due to incomplete or missing data. Permission was acquired for the study at each institution per the chair or dean of the schools of nursing.

A summary of descriptive statistics yielded the following composite picture of the schools of nursing surveyed. The personal demographic profiles showed that 87.3% of the sample were female, with most 33.6% being between the ages 31 and 40 years and 34.2% between the ages of 41 and 50 years. Most of the sample (34.2%) held the position of assistant professor with 20.8% associate professors, this was probably due to 49.7% having MSN as their highest degree. Only 17.4% reported to having an income of less than \$40,000 per annum.

The findings for the demographic profiles with respect to work related information, 61.1% of the participants work at state universities. The number of years experience ranged across all category intervals with most (30.2%) having 11 to 15 years

of working experience, with similar results for the number of years the current position. In addition, 80% of the sample had not had any prior administrative experience.

The findings from the descriptive statistics related to leadership style indicated that the raters sometimes to fairly often perceived the leadership as showing a combination of transformational and transactional leadership styles, with Laissez-faire Leadership being shown once in a while to sometimes. In addition, leadership was perceived to frequently exhibit extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction, namely, these leaders get others to do more than they are expected to do; work with others in a satisfactory way and are effective in representing their group and meeting others' job-related needs.

The descriptive findings for organizational culture show that the means, though all measures are above 2, for clan culture is higher than the other cultures with adhocracy culture being lower than the other cultures.

### **Summary of Inferential Findings**

The research findings are presented as they relate to each of the research questions posed in this study. Findings are also compared to those of other researchers presented in chapters one and two. In order to assess the research questions, firstly multiple regressions using analysis of variance were performed on the dependent variables defined as extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction and the predictor variables defined by the 9 sub-scales of the leadership questionnaire. The findings show that there is a significant regression of the leadership styles on the outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction. These results suggest that the nursing faculty perceive all the leadership styles to be effective and satisfactory.

For the organizational culture, Pearson's correlations were performed for each leadership style (transformational; transactional and laissez-faire) on each of the four dominant cultures identified by the OCAI to ascertain whether there were any relationships between these variables. Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient is most commonly used to measure a relationship between two variables and can be any value between -1 and 1, and is most accurate when the variable measures show sufficient covariance (a statistic representing the degree to which two variables vary together). This statistic indicates the strength and direction of the relationship

Results of the research addressing the three research questions showed significant positive correlations between the leadership styles and organizational culture, apart from the Laissez-faire leadership style, which is not significantly correlated with clan and hierarchy cultures. These results suggest that the responses of 'fairly often' or 'frequently' from the nursing faculty will mostly likely be the same for both leadership styles and organizational cultures. In other words, leadership styles are significantly correlated to organizational cultures.

To assess the significance of the relationships between the three main leadership styles and organizational culture, further analyses were conducted using multiple regressions. For each of the four main cultures, the findings showed that the leadership styles had a significant effect on organizational culture.

Within each regression analysis, based on the significance of the beta coefficient parameter estimate, the result showed that measures for transformational leadership had significantly predictive value for the clan ( $\beta=0.552$ ), adhocracy ( $\beta=0.201$ ) and market ( $\beta=0.401$ ) cultures. Transactional leadership was found to have significantly

predictive value for the adhocracy ( $\beta=0.185$ ) and hierarchy ( $\beta=0.220$ ) cultures, while laissez-faire leadership was found to have significantly predictive value for the adhocracy ( $\beta=0.251$ ) and market ( $\beta=0.267$ ) cultures.

Findings for the main research questions showed that there were statistically significant relationships between transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles and school organizational structure. Although not all of the leadership styles showed predictive significance for organizational culture, the data showed that nursing faculty participants in this study appear to have a high regard their leaders. The results showed that there was a significant relationship between the three leadership styles identified and the outcomes from the MLQ5X. The outcomes defining leaders as those who could get others to do more than they are expected to do, who are able to work with others in a satisfactory way and those who are effective in representing their group and meeting others' job-related needs.

### **Implications**

The United States is in the midst of a critical nursing shortage (SREB, 2007; Buerhaus, 2000). Numerous factors contribute to this shortage such as nursing faculty members and aging nurse workforce, aging society in general with more chronic illness, increased longevity related to improved technology and health care advances.

The American marketplace looks to nursing higher education to address the nursing shortage by increasing the number of nurse graduates. Schools of nursing are inflicted with numerous societal demands and problems. Academia is pressured into increasing enrollment of nursing students without increasing the budget to operate schools of nursing. The number of full-time faculty has been reduced and there is an alarming

increase in the number of part-time faculty. This results in excessive workloads for nursing faculty. In order to address the needs of society and nursing faculty within schools of nursing, it is imperative that the nurse leaders be effective and have the ability to transform schools of nursing by creating positive change.

### **Recommendations for Further Research**

Analysis of the findings of this study leads to the following recommendations for further research:

1. Further research could be performed by comparing leadership style and organizational culture with a multitude of student related variables such as inquiring into areas like the size of the nursing class or perhaps delving into various policies and procedures such as admission criteria. Another of which may be predictive of nursing student success on various testing procedures. Relationships could be explored related to the variables of this study and results of standardized achievement tests.
2. A study could compare the relationship between the variables of this dissertation and compare NCLEX-passage rates related to the schools of nursing among SREB states, non-SREB states, and all the U.S. school of nursing passage rates.
3. One could also compare the BSN programs with the Associate Degree and Diploma schools of nursing with leadership style and culture.

Descriptive statistics implicating the importance of research recommendations number two and three have been compiled by the SREB (2007) and NCLEX (2006). The 2005 NCLEX- RN passage rates among SREB BSN, Associate Degree and Diploma schools, non-SREB schools, and all schools of nursing in the U.S. include the following descriptive statistics (NCLEX, 2006; SREB, 2007):

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<b>BSN</b>	<b>Candidate Number</b>	<b>Number Passed</b>	<b>% Passed</b>
<b>SREB</b>	13,481	11,849	87.90
<b>Non-SREB</b>	22,015	18,941	86
<b>ALL</b>	35,496	30,790	86.70

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<b>ASSOCIATE</b>	<b>Candidate Number</b>	<b>Number Passed</b>	<b>% Passed</b>
<b>SREB</b>	22,313	19,724	88.40
<b>Non-SREB</b>	37,731	32,792	86.90
<b>All</b>	60,044	52,516	87.50

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<b>DIPLOMA</b>	<b>Candidate Number</b>	<b>Number Passed</b>	<b>% Passed</b>
<b>SREB</b>	1,024	911	89%
<b>Non-SREB</b>	2,525	2,293	90.80
<b>All</b>	3,549	3,204	90.30

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In relation to these descriptive statistics among the various school of nursing programs, differences in passage rates are apparent. The diploma schools (while having a much lower student census) scored a higher passage rate than the associate degree or BSN programs and the BSN programs scored the lowest. While the enrollment numbers in the diploma schools are much smaller, it would be interesting to study variables that could be related to these statistics.

4. It would also be of interest to measure the desired types of leadership and culture that faculty would like to see in their leaders and organizations. Both the MLQ and the OCAI are adaptable to measure perceptions of desired leadership and culture.

5. Research could also be performed to study the relationships between leadership, culture, and other variables related to faculty such as salaries, rank, tenure, status, work loads, job satisfaction, number of sick days used, stress levels, chronic illness and faculty retention in nursing programs.

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## **Appendices**

- A. IRB Approval Letter**
- B. Letter to Schools of Nursing for Consent**
- C. Participant Cover Letter**
- D. Instructions Packet**
- E. Demographic Questionnaire**
- F. MLQ by Bass**
- G. OCAI by Cameron and Quinn**
- H. Curriculum Vitae**

## Appendix A

### Human Subjects Exemption Approval



Office of Research Integrity  
Institutional Review Board

Friday, March 30, 2007

Powell Toth, Ph.D.  
Leadership Studies  
MUGC

RE: IRB Study # EX07-0124    **At:** Marshall IRB 2

Dear Dr. Toth:

**Protocol Title:**

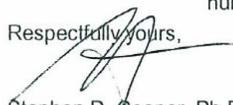
The Relationship Between Leadership Style and Organizational Culture in Schools of Nursing

**Expiration Date:** 3/29/2008  
**Our Internal #:** 3413  
**Type of Change:** (Other) Exempted  
**Expedited ?:**   
**Date of Change:** 3/28/2007  
**Date Received:** 3/28/2007  
**On Meeting Date:**

**Description:** In accordance with 45CFR46.101(b)(2), the above study and informed consent were granted Exempted approval today by the Marshall University IRB#2 Chair for the period of 12 months. The approval will expire 3/29/08. A continuing review request for this study must be submitted no later than 30 days prior to the expiration date. This study is for student Debra Mullins.

The purpose of this anonymous survey study is to determine if a relationship exists between leadership style and organizational culture within schools of nursing.

Respectfully yours,



Stephen D. Cooper, Ph.D.  
Marshall University IRB#2 Chairperson

## Appendix B

### Letter to Program Leaders

To:

From: Debra K. Mullins  
Associate Professor of Nursing  
Doctoral Candidate  
Marshall University  
Huntington, WV

Date:

Subject: Survey Permission

I am a doctoral candidate currently in the process of writing my Doctoral Dissertation. I would like to request your permission to survey the school of nursing dean and his/her immediate subordinates/associates at the university. This study has no financial affiliations.

The study is entitled "The Relationship Between Leadership and Culture within Schools of Nursing." It will examine the relationship between nursing faculty perceptions of the deans' leadership styles and organizational culture type. The research is based on Bass' (1985) and Bass and Avolio's (1990) Transformational/Transactional Leadership Model and Cameron & Quinn's (1999) Cultural Model.

Data obtained from this study will provide support to leadership style development programs and will improve/enhance employee satisfaction and organizational performance in the school of nursing setting. The sample will include responses from nursing faculty at the school.

With your permission, the survey packets will be submitted to the nursing education leader and his/her associates/subordinates. Participants will be asked to complete Bass' (1985) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and Cameron and Quinn's (1999) Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory and a demographic survey. Please return the questionnaires in the pre-addressed internal envelope to:

Debra K. Mullins  
University of Charleston  
2300 MacCorkle Ave SE  
Charleston, WV 25304

Please inform me of your permission to proceed with the survey distribution within the next two weeks. If any further information is required, please contact me per e-mail at [debramullins@cc.ucwv.edu](mailto:debramullins@cc.ucwv.edu) or 1-304-357-4968.

## Appendix C

### Participant Cover Letter

Dear Survey Participant:

I am writing my Dissertation and have received permission from the university president to conduct this survey at your institution. I am requesting your assistance in completing the questionnaires for this study. This is an independent project and has no financial affiliations.

The study is entitled "The Relationship Between leadership and Culture within Schools of Nursing". The research examines the relationship between the nursing faculty perceptions of dean of nursing's leadership style and organizational culture. The study is based on Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio's (1990) Transformational/ Transactional Leadership Model and Cameron & Quinn's (1999) Culture Model.

The study will be conducted at the school of nursing and will include responses from the school of nursing faculty. Participation is voluntary. There will be no negative impact if you decide not to respond to the questionnaire. You may withdraw from the study at any time.

Please complete the enclosed surveys and return them in the self-addressed/stamped envelop to:

**Debra K. Mullins**  
**Division of Health Sciences**  
**University of Charleston**  
**2300 MacCorkle Ave. SE**  
**Charleston, WV 25304**

Please do not include your name or any identifying information on the survey responses. Please contact me if there are any questions or concerns per e-mail at [dmullins@ucwv.edu](mailto:dmullins@ucwv.edu) or 1-304-357-4968.

Your timely feedback will assist in the improvement and understanding of nursing education leadership and perhaps the enhancement of employee satisfaction, performance and organizational effectiveness.

Respectfully submitted,  
Debra K. Mullins MSN, RN-CS

**Appendix D**  
**Instructions with Packets**

Dear Nursing Faculty,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in my doctoral dissertation research project, "The Relationship Between Leadership and Culture within Schools of Nursing".

**Instructions for the Nursing Faculty**

Please read the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Rater Form 5X Short) and the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument(OCAI) **carefully** and follow the instructions for completing the surveys.

1. Please complete the MLQ Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (MLQ 5X Short) and rate the Nursing Dean to whom you directly report.
2. Please complete the OCAI form.
3. Please complete the Demographic Questionnaire

After you have completed the three questionnaires, please place them in the enclosed self-addressed internal envelopes within two weeks.

Anonymity is critically important. Please do not place your name or any identifying information on any survey response.

I want to thank you for your valuable time and assistance.

Respectfully,

Debra K. Mullins  
University of Charleston



7. Type of school:                     Private university  
    Private college  
    State university  
    State college  
    Other: specify \_\_\_\_\_

8. Highest degree held:             BSN  
    MSN  
    PhD  
    EdD  
    DNS  
    other/specify \_\_\_\_\_

Appendix F  
MLQ

Copyright and agreement with Mind Garden, INC to utilize MLQ prohibits reproduction of instrument. You may access the MLQ at [mindgarden.com](http://mindgarden.com) for more information.

From: MIND GARDEN, INC. [gateway@linkpt.net]  
Sent: Wednesday, April 04, 2007 4:07 PM  
To: Mullins, Debra  
Subject: Receipt from MIND GARDEN, INC.

Company: MIND GARDEN, INC.  
Reference Number: CF44A50E-46140567-226-7F004

Subtotal: \$127.50  
Tax: \$0.00  
Shipping: \$0.00  
Total: \$127.50

MIND GARDEN, INC.

Thank you for shopping with us.

**Appendix G**  
**OCAI and Consent to Use**

**From:** Cameron, Kim [cameronk@bus.umich.edu]

**Sent:** Wednesday, December 01, 2004 7:43 PM

**To:** Mullins, Debra

**Subject:** RE: OCAI

Dear Debra:

Thank you very much for your note and request to use the culture assessment instrument. You have my permission to use it in your dissertation research. We usually charge a licensing fee to consulting companies who want to sell it to clients, but I am happy to give permission for your to use it in research. If you would be kind enough to share your results with me, I would greatly appreciate it.

Best wishes in your work!

Kim

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**From:** Mullins, Debra [mailto:debramullins@ucwv.edu]

**Sent:** Wed 12/1/2004 4:14 PM

**To:** kim\_cameron@umich.edu

**Cc:** Mullins, Debra

**Subject:** OCAI

Professor Cameron,

I am a doctoral student at Marshall University in Charleston, WV. Currently working on dissertation which deals with leadership and organizational culture within schools of nursing. I purchased the book *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture....*the OCAI looks like the cultural assessment tool that I have been looking for. I would like to request permission to use the OCAI. Please inform regarding this request,specifically -- I need your permission and information regarding any criteria which must be met to utilize instrument.

Thank you and have a very nice day.

Debra K. Mullins

## Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory

This questionnaire is to describe the culture within your school of nursing as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.** Please answer this questionnaire anonymously.

Twenty-four descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each item fits the school of nursing culture you are describing. Use the following rating scale:

<b>Not at all always</b>	<b>Once in a while</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Fairly often</b>	<b>Frequently if not always</b>
<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>

### THE SCHOOL OF NURSING (ORGANIZATION) I AM RATING.....

- |   |                  |
|---|------------------|
| 1. The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.                            | <b>0 1 2 3 4</b> |
| 2. The organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.                      | <b>0 1 2 3 4</b> |
| 3. The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented. | <b>0 1 2 3 4</b> |
| 4. The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.                                 | <b>0 1 2 3 4</b> |
| 5. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.                                 | <b>0 1 2 3 4</b> |
| 6. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating or risk taking.                           | <b>0 1 2 3 4</b> |
| 7. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.                     | <b>0 1 2 3 4</b> |
| 8. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.                | <b>0 1 2 3 4</b> |
| 9. The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.   | <b>0 1 2 3 4</b> |

10. The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness. **0 1 2 3 4**
11. The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement. **0 1 2 3 4**
12. The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships. **0 1 2 3 4**
13. The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high. **0 1 2 3 4**
14. The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge. **0 1 2 3 4**
15. The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes. **0 1 2 3 4**
16. The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important. **0 1 2 3 4**
17. The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist. **0 1 2 3 4**
18. The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued. **0 1 2 3 4**
19. The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting targeted goals and winning in the market place are dominant. **0 1 2 3 4**
20. The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important. **0 1 2 3 4**
21. The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people. **0 1 2 3 4**
22. The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique products. It is a product leader

and innovator. (Products are defined as educational techniques or teaching strategies).

**0 1 2 3 4**

23. The organization defines success on the basis of winning in market-place and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is the key. (Competitive market is defined as having the highest NCLEX scores within your state.)

**0 1 2 3 4**

24. The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost production are critical. (Low-cost production is defined as staying within the budget and utilizing cost-effectiveness in relation to running the nursing program).

**0 1 2 3 4**

## Appendix H

### Curriculum Vitae

*DEBRA K. MULLINS EdD., APRN-BC*  
*FAMILY NURSE PRACTITIONER and GERONTOLOGICAL NURSE PRACTITIONER*

#### EMPLOYMENT HISTORY

Organization	Dates
Medical Weight Loss Center 4924 MacCorkle Ave SE Charleston, WV 25304	Present date
Title/Job Description: Family Nurse Practitioner; assess, diagnose, treat, evaluate obese patient population. Have prescriptive authority and DEA number.	
University of Charleston 2300 MacCorkle Ave. Charleston, WV 25304	August 1992 to present
Title/Job Description: Associate Professor of Nursing; teach theory and clinical skills for Health Assessment, Nursing Care of the Elderly and Fundamentals of Nursing to baccalaureate nursing students; maintain active role in college community including committee work, recruitment of students, public relations, community volunteerism, professional development and scholarly activity; serve as liaison between Kanawha Valley Senior Services and University of Charleston School of Nursing Program.	
Charleston Area Medical Patient Access Center Charleston Area Medical Center 3200 MacCorkle Ave. SE Charleston, WV 25304	September 1996 to 2005
Title/Job Description: Family Nurse Practitioner/part-time; complete medical history and physical exams on surgical patients (open heart - CABG, heart cath), provide pre-operative patient education and counseling; part-time position.	
Kanawha Valley Senior Services Center 2428 Kanawha Blvd East Charleston, WV 25311 348-0707	June 1993 to September 1996
Title/Job Description: Gerontological Nurse Practitioner/coordinator of Congregate Care Program; provide case management (comprehensive assessment, diagnosis, collaboration with health care providers, act as	

resource/referral) to elderly population at senior high-rise apartment complex.

Practice included providing various treatment modalities such as stress management, guided imagery, reminiscence therapy, music therapy, etc.

Southern WV Community College  
Logan, WV 25601

August 1987 - May 1992

Title/Job Description: Associate Professor of Nursing. Taught courses in Nursing Fundamentals, Family Nursing. Designed, implemented and taught --Gerontology Certificate Program. Designed, implemented and taught - LPN to RN transition program. Member of Faculty Senate.

Marshall University  
School of Nursing  
600 Hal Greer Blvd.  
Huntington, WV 25701

August 1988 to May 1993

Title/ Job Description: Nursing instructor; teach courses on Fundamentals of Nursing, Family Nursing, and Health Assessment. Satellite uplink site coordinator

Logan General Hospital  
Hospital Drive  
Logan, WV 25601

May 1986 - September 1987

Title/Job Description: Staff nurse on obstetrics and gynecological unit; provide care to post-partum mothers and their infants; provide post-operative care to women.

Holden Hospital  
Holden, WV

May 1974 to May 1976 and

May 1979 to May 1986

Title/Job Description: Nursing supervisor of inpatient, primary care clinic and emergency room.

Logan Mingo Mental Health  
Three Mile Curve  
Logan, WV 25601

May 1974 to May 1976

Job Description: Psychiatric nurse. Provide intake assessments; assist psychiatrist with clientele; provide short-term counseling, medication reviews, utilization review, medication review; case management, and follow-up/after-care post hospitalization.

Logan County Health  
Department  
Logan, WV 25601

May 1976 to May 1978

Job Description: Public health nurse. Provide counseling, education and health promotion services to the citizens of Logan County. Services provided include family planning, well-child clinics, and various health screenings to adults, children and infants.

EDUCATION

School	Attendance	Degree
Marshall University Nursing 600 Hal Greer Blvd. Huntington, WV	1972-1974	Associate Degree
West Virginia University Nursing Morgantown, WV	1985-1987	Bachelor's--
West Virginia University Nursing, Morgantown, WV	1988-1990	Master's--
West Virginia University  Studies	1995 - 2000	Doctoral Student Leadership
Marshall University  Studies	2000 - 2007	Ed.D in Leadership

PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIP

Sigma Theta Tau  
National League of Nursing  
Council for Advanced Practice Nurses  
Kanawha Council on Wellness

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Certificate in Gerontology, Ohio Valley Gerontological Regional Education Center, 1991

Fellowship in Gerontology, Wake Forest University, 1991

Certificate in Teaching Gerontology, University of Georgia, 1990

Certification by American Nurses' Association Credentialing Center as Family Nurse Practitioner and Gerontological Nurse Practitioner

Recent Advanced Practice Continuing Education:

Marshall University; Annual Conference for Advanced Practice Nursing; 1993 and 1995 - 2003, 2005.

Kentucky Coalition for Nurse Practitioners; Conference for Advanced Practice Nurses in Primary Care; 1996

University of Virginia; Pharmacology for Advanced Practice Nurses; 1995

West Virginia University; Nursing Research and the Internet; 1996

Thomas Memorial Hospital; Annual Nursing Conference; 1992 - 1998.

Alzheimer's Association; Annual Conference on Alzheimer's Disease; 1992-1996.

National Conference on Gerontology; Nashville, TN, Fall 1997, sponsored by National Gerontological Society.

Environmental Health Workshop; Spring 1998; sponsored by the Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry.

Geriatric Psychopharmacology and Psychiatric Issues; Mountain Retreat, Snowshoe, WV; sponsored by Thomas Memorial Hospital.

AACN, Community Based Nursing Education, National Conference, Washington, DC 2000

End of Life Nursing Education Consortium Training Session, Washington, DC, 2001.

WV Family Practice Medical Conference - 2001-2004

National Association of Gerontological Nurses/National Conference/Myrtle Beach, SC - October 2005.

#### RECENT PROFESSIONAL PRESENTATIONS

Poster and Panel Presentation, AACN, Community Based Nursing Education - Presentation: Service Learning and Nursing Care of the Elderly.

Kanawha Senior Services - Taught training program for home caregivers related to Cognitive Impairment and the Older Adult.

Sigma Theta Tau, XI TAU Chapter - Preparation of the Dissertation Prospectus

Sigma Theta Tau, XI TAU Chapter - Symptoms Management at End of Life Transition

Expert testimony before the WVA Senate Finance/subcommittee regarding Assisted Living Resources in WVA

FORMAL CONTINUING EDUCATION

West Virginia University; pharmacology course for Advanced Nurse Practitioners; Spring 1998; 3 hour course; required by West Virginia State Board of Nurses for prescriptive privileges.

Marshall University; pharmacology for Advance Practice Nurses; 1995 (3 hour course -- required by West Virginia State Board of Nurses for prescriptive privileges).

West Virginia Graduate College; 18 hours in counseling, focus on the family.

West Virginia University and Marshall University; 72 hours plus post-graduate courses in education administration; currently working on doctoral dissertation.