UNIVERSITY COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION (UCEA) ACADEMIC DEPARTMENT CHAIRS' SELF-PERCEIVED UTILIZATION OF BOLMAN AND DEAL'S FOUR-FRAME THEORETICAL MODEL

By

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ABSTRACT

SONYA L. CLARK. University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) academic department chairs' self-perceived utilization of Bolman and Deal's four-frame theoretical model (Under the direction of DR. RONALD A. LINDAHL).

The purpose of this study was to examine the Bolman and Deal leadership orientation preferred by academic department chairs (ADCs) of Educational Leadership or Administration programs at member colleges and universities of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA). A secondary purpose of the study was to examine how the preferred frame of the chairs varied according to the ADC's gender, age, racial/ethnic identification, and years of experience in their current chair position.

Data were collected through the *Leadership Orientations Survey*, a self-reporting questionnaire, of 48 ADCs of 74 UCEA public and private, member institutions. This instrument was created by researchers Bolman and Deal, and includes 24 five-point Likert scale questions relating to Leadership Behaviors, 6 rank-order questions regarding Leadership Style, and 2 questions concerning the overall effectiveness of the respondent as a leader and as a manager. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as mean scores, percentages, and standard deviations, and inferential statistics, including Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Independent Samples *t*-tests and Cohen's *d* to determine the extent of any statistically significant difference, if present.

The findings in this study are that: (a) the Human Resource Frame is the preferred leadership orientation among ADCs of Educational Leadership or Administration

programs at UCEA member institutions; (b) the second preferred leadership frame is the Structural Frame, and the Symbolic Frame was the third preferred orientation; subsequently, (c) the least preferred frame of the ADCs was the Political Frame, and (d) there were no statistically significant differences in preferred frames based on the gender, age, racial/ethnic identification, or years in current chair position. An additional finding was that all ADCs in this study indicated that they saw themselves, at a minimum, equally balanced as a faculty member and administrator or they perceived themselves as more of an administrator than a faculty member.

One of the suggested recommendations for practitioners based on the findings of this study that may help administrators in higher education improve their decision-making pedagogy is to reflect on past situations and how they can be reframed using the least preferred of the four frames, the Political and Symbolic frames, and consciously integrating these frames into their leadership style and behaviors to improve their effectiveness. Conducting a qualitative study giving voice to administrators' reasoning for how and why they chose their orientations and how they manifest their preferred leadership frame through their leadership style and behaviors is among the researcher's recommendations for future research on leadership frames in higher education.

DEDICATION

While waiting on a grand epiphany to complete this Dedication, God called home another one of His Angels; Constance "Connie" Mair, my great aunt, an educator and influential figure in my life. Connie dedicated her life to improving school programs for young children. I dedicate this accomplishment to Connie and my other guardians:

Grandmother, Betty Cole - Alumna of DC Teachers College, educator
Grandfather, Herman Cole - Alumnus of Howard University, social worker/educator
Grandmother Lucy Clark
Grandfather Robert "Bob" Frazier
Uncle Roderick A. Cole

Thank you for your unconditional love and support.

I hope you dance around Heaven all day!

To my father, Herman Eric Cole, I love you with all my heart. Thanks for the years of patience, understanding, and subtle pushes of encouragement.

To my mother, Lillie Tucker, every day I can bravely go out into this world cloaked in your armor of love and prayers. You are my strength. I love you.

Most importantly, to my reason for it all, my son Carleton, don't ever say you "can't," for that would be a lie. Your power is beyond even your own understanding. You are my legacy. I love you.

The spirits, dreams, and prayers of these strong people made me the woman I am today.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Academic department chairs (ADCs), akin to middle managers in the private sector, and perhaps the most critical unit in institutions of higher education, outnumber every other type of administrator in colleges and universities combined (Filan, 1999). As leaders in an organization, ADCs must be confident to act decisively and with sound decision-making pedagogy (Brower & Balch, 2005). In order to develop effective decision-making skills, at a minimum, leaders must possess the necessary prerequisites. According to Brower and Balch (2005) "leaders must be of sound mind, understand human nature, are uninfluenced by obstacles, value a common vision and mission, practice respect and rapport, entrust others, understand motivation, and have a keen awareness of the contemporary capitalistic values influencing education" (p.108). ADCs are often chosen from among faculty to fulfill a dual role of administrator and faculty member, an ambiguous and often stressful position (Aziz, Mullins, Balzer, Grauer, Burnfield, Lodato, & Cohen-Powless, 2005; Gmelch, Burns, & John, 1994; Wolverton, Ackerman, & Holt, 2005). One of the most common fallacies surrounding the selection of ADCs is the notion that being a good faculty member is a qualifying precondition for service as a middle manager in higher education; however, this discounts the reality that both positions require different knowledge, skills, and abilities (Wolverton et al., 2005).

Graham and Benoit (2004) stated the chair's role required a different skill set to be successful than what attracted them to the "independent life of the scholar" (p. 1).

In their roles as faculty, most chairs are pushing their own research agendas, publishing to keep from perishing, and carrying course loads before they are selected, often unceremoniously, to become ADCs. Conversely, as ADCs, their faculty responsibilities are merged with the demands of a new role as administrators responsible for decisions that affect others and have broader implications for the department and the larger institution. Academic scholarship, which is the core of faculty functions, and an individual's IQ are not necessarily determinants of a leader's ability to make sound decisions, for even the smartest person is affected by internal and external barriers to sound judgment (Bolman & Deal, 2008). Conflict of personal and institutional values and goals; inadequate information; an inability to comprehend a phenomenon of which one has no experience, more aptly termed *requisite variety;* and the inability to see the whole picture are such barriers, to name a few. Given the methods by which ADCs are selected and the lack of consensus about the formal training needed to prepare for these leadership roles, an examination of the decision-making practices employed by current department chairs is warranted.

Lee Bolman and Terrance Deal's work, *Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice, and Leadership* (2008), presents a synthesized perspective of what they believed were the most significant theories in leadership and organizational development. The authors created a comprehensive perspective on how situations might be viewed and decisions are, consequently, made in organizations. According to the authors, their model contains four *leadership frames*: (a) structural, (b) human resource, (c) political,

and (d) symbolic. These are the lenses whereby leaders view problems and make appropriate decisions.

According to Bolman and Deal (2008), organizations can be viewed as factories, families, jungles, and temples. Most importantly, the lenses or frames through which a leader views the organization play an important part in how he or she makes decisions. In *Artistry*, Bolman and Deal introduced the concept of *reframing*, which is the ability to look at situations in more than one way and to aid leaders in creating sound decision-making pedagogy. The ability to reframe the situation is paramount for effective decision-making.

Although the authors conceded that each individual frame of their four-frame model is logical and powerful in its own right, they recommended that leaders practice using the frames together for a well-rounded view of situations. Together, the frames "help us decipher the full array of significant clues, capturing a more comprehensive picture of what's going on and what to do" (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 6). The idea of breaking frames, or rather allowing for alternative views-- rethinking or reframing the situation-- is the conceptual core of their book, and, subsequently, this study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine academic department chairs (ADCs) of colleges and universities that are member institutions of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) utilization of the leadership orientations developed by Bolman and Deal. A secondary purpose was to examine the relationship between the preferred frames and selected personal demographics and professional characteristics:

gender, age, racial/ethnic identification, and years of experience in their current position as ADCs at UCEA member institutions.

Statement of the Problem

Because up to 80% of decisions at colleges and universities are made by academic department chairs (Carroll & Wolverton, 2004), it is essential for them to have effective decision-making skills in order to successfully serve their institutions. Decision-makers, when faced with uncertainty, may often rely on what is comfortable and familiar ways of making decisions, thereby locking themselves into flawed ways of making sense of their circumstances (Bolman & Deal, 2008); such a short-sighted perspective allows for an increase in the chances of missing alternative opportunities for solutions to complex problems within their organization. Limited information is available on leadership specifically relating to the chair position. Bolman and Deal (2008) proposed that managers have an awareness of how they frame situations and how they view the workplace: as a factory, a jungle, a family, or a temple, because this perception can have an effect on how they make decisions. Much of the research reported in higher education on academic department chairs focused on the responsibilities and the stressors of the position. Moreover, gender is a common variable used in leadership studies (Barbuto et al. (2007); however, the study of the variables on age, racial/ethnic identification, and years of experience in the current chair position have not been extensively researched. These are characteristics inherently individual and cannot be separated from the individual when he or she enters the workplace. An examination of the effects of these variables on how ADCs make decisions needs to be included in scholarly discussions on

the chair position, as well as the discourse on practical training in decision-making for chairs.

Research Questions

Quantitative research methodology was used to analyze each research question as follows:

1. Which leadership frames established by Bolman and Deal are the most frequently used by academic department chairs (ADCs) of Educational Leadership and Educational Administration programs at University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) member institutions?
2. How does the utilization of Bolman and Deal's leadership frames by academic department chairs in Educational Leadership and Educational Administration programs at University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) member institutions vary by the ADCs' gender, age, racial/ethnic identification, and years of experience in their current chair position?

Overview of the Methodology

This study used a survey research design to collect quantitative data. All data were collected by administering the Leadership Orientations Survey (Self)© instrument to ADCs at UCEA member institutions. This study used quantitative descriptive measures to analyze ADCs' self-perceived utilization of Bolman and Deal's leadership frames. According to Creswell (2002), "a researcher chooses quantitative research when addressing a problem in which the issue requires that trends be described or that variable relationships be explained" (p. 62).

A survey was mailed to the population of 74 UCEA member ADCs. Each ADC received, by email, an introductory letter detailing the purpose of the study, a request for participation, a description of the survey instrument, and a link to complete the survey using the online *Survey Monkey* program. The data were collected online and analyzed using the software program SPSS. The survey instrument consists of three major sections. The three major sections of this self-rating instrument measure *Behaviors, Leadership Style,* and *Overall Rating* of the ADCs effectiveness as a manager and as a leader. The data were analyzed using the descriptive statistics of frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation, and inferential statistics of Independent Samples *t*-tests and Analysis of Variances (ANOVAs). Cohen's *d* was also used to examine the existence of any differences in mean scores and the practical implications in the variances.

Significance of the Study

This study has the potential to make a contribution to the body of knowledge surrounding how those in university department chair positions view organizations and how that view impacts their decision-making. In the absence of universally accepted preparation or certification of ADCs, this study may assist ADCs in reflecting on their leadership behaviors and development of a new reframing paradigm, as well as provide meaningful ways of viewing threats and opportunities within an organization. For university administrators, this study may provide a basis for recommending leadership training to department chairs. This study provides a deeper understanding of the four frames developed by Bolman and Deal and their application in university departments.

Limitations

1. This study surveyed individuals who hold academic department chair positions at UCEA member institutions; therefore, findings of this study are not intended to be generalized to other categories of schools or administrators.
2. As with self-rating instruments in general, but specifically as it relates to the use of the Leadership Orientations Survey (Self)© instrument in this study, Bolman stated, "the instrument's reliability is high but the validity is not so high," and "Self-ratings of leadership tend not to be highly valid, and the forced-choice nature of the instrument creates limitations as well" (leebolman.com). Validity was established in 1991 through a field study using a Varimax Rotation used in a factor analysis. The authors reported a high internal consistency in data from the 1991 study.
3. As ADCs often return to their full-time roles as faculty members, the identification of UCEA ADCs at the time of the study proved to be difficult.

Delimitations

The following delimitations have been identified in conjunction with this study:

1. The study is delimited to academic department chairs of Educational Leadership and Educational Administration programs at UCEA member institutions.
2. The study only considered the four frames or orientations of Structural, Human Resources, Symbolic, and Political, as defined by the research of Lee Bolman and Terrance Deal (2008).

3. The study included only respondents' gender, age, racial/ethnic identification, and years of experience in the current ADC position, in the examination of differences in preferred frames by personal and professional variables and characteristics.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made in regard to this study:

1. It was assumed that all participants hold the official title of academic department chair, and that the responsibilities of that role are comparable across the population of institutions.
2. The data obtained from the participants were assumed to be complete and accurate.
3. The instrument used to collect data is valid and reliable based on the reported internal consistency data provided by Bolman and Deal, the authors of the instrument.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are general definitions for the purpose of this study:

Academic Department Chair - An academic department chair is the department or program leadership for a specific branch of knowledge (Aziz et al., 2005).

Framing – refers to "a mental model—a set of ideas and assumptions—that you carry in your head to help you understand and negotiate a particular 'territory" which may also be described in this study in terms used by Bolman & Deal (2008) as *maps, tools, lenses, orientations, filters, prisms,* and *perspectives* (11).

Human Resources Frame—Interpersonal relationships are the focus of this frame as organizations are made up of individuals with their own needs, biases, limitations, and

skill sets who desire to fulfill the institutions goals while maintaining their own esteem (Bolman & Deal, 2008).

Political Frame—According to Bolman and Deal (2008), the political frame centers around entities within the organization competing for "power and scarce resources" which often creates conflict because of differing motivations among individuals and groups (p. 16). Bolman and Deal also stated that although bargaining and negotiation are a regular part of life, within organizations power is often imbalanced resulting in a need for leaders to develop political skill to create solutions.

Reframing – requires the ability to break previously created frames to redefine the situation; an ability to think about situations in more than one way ((Bolman & Deal, 2008).

Structural Frame—Bolman and Deal's (2008) structural frame is rooted in the "organizational architecture" of the institution's environment where the focus is primarily on systems, policies and procedures, hierarchies, and distinct divisions of labor (p. 15).

Symbolic Frame— The symbolic frame represents the "spiritual side" of institutions, and emphasizes how the institution's values and culture are perpetuated through symbols, myths, ceremonies, and rituals (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 16).

Organization of the Study

This dissertation is organized into five chapters. The first chapter includes the purpose of the study, statement of the problem, significance of the study, research questions, methodology, limitations, delimitations, assumptions and definition of terms. Chapter Two presents a literature review on the roles and responsibilities of academic

department chairs, Bolman and Deals' four leadership frames, orientations of leadership theories, and demographics of leadership behaviors. Chapter Three, Methodology, outlines the purpose of the study, the research questions and the research methodology utilized to answer each question, design of the study, sample, instrumentation, data collection and analysis procedures. Chapter Four presents the findings of the study. Chapter Five provides a summary of the research study with implications, a discussion of the findings, and recommendations for practice and future research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Scientists have devoted tireless hours and some even lifetimes trying to unlock the mysteries of how organizations actually work and prosper. In this quest, each scientist brings forth his or her own interpretations and ideologies of how to lead and organize. Consequently, these assertions gain their own following and become "scientific foundations," and those foundations may easily become "theology that preaches a single, parochial scripture" that managers must investigate until they find the "voice" that fits their needs or find their own (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 14). "All of us sometimes construct our own psychic prisons, and then lock ourselves in. When we don't know what to do, we do more of what we know" (p. 8). Bolman and Gallos (2011) advocated for leaders work to strengthen their decision-making capabilities through developing "more versatile" ways of thinking through, or reframing situations, particularly because discounting or being unaware of one's own limitations can undermine their efforts.

Part of people's mental wiring (Bolman & Deal, 2008) encompasses three fallacies of organizational problems commonly relied on to explain issues: *blaming people, blaming the bureaucracy*, and a *thirst for power*. These beliefs often become debilitating crutches to managers.

Blaming people amplifies the importance of individuals in the organization and their responsibility to its functioning. It is true that problems are sometimes caused by people, by their personal characteristics: “rigid bosses, slothful subordinates, bumbling bureaucrats, greedy union members, or insensitive elites” (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 28), but firing a large part of the employees based on personality is not ideal. Reliance on this perspective and vilifying people blocks managers and leaders from recognizing weaknesses in the system and limits access to other possible solutions (Bolman & Deal).

The bureaucracy may be a reasonable place to put the blame initially, but if managers or leaders looked only at the situation from this perspective, they could become frustrated when faced with situations that simply do not fit neatly into a logical box, and as most would agree, problems persist even in the most structured environments (Bolman & Deal, 2008).

Also, according to Bolman and Deal (2008), thirst for power views suggest something much more sinister lurks beneath the surface and can become the catchall for what was not covered by blaming people and the bureaucracy, because although power is often reviled by people even as they seek to acquire it, it is also a convenient explanation.

Key characteristics of organizations include that they are complex, surprising, deceptive, and ambiguous. Although organizations are hard to predict because they consist of people with individual behaviors, and what one expects is not what one always gets, they may hide mistakes, and they make it difficult to get facts and to know what is going on from day to day because of their complex, unpredictable and deceptive nature, the first steps of a manager or leader is to recognize and to protect against being caught off guard--as much as possible (Bolman and Deal, 2008).

Complexity of Organizations

According to Bolman and Deal (2008), mission statements of organizations may paint wonderful pictures of organizations as wanting to nurture their employees and delight their customers, but too often the darker side of enterprise is the true experience. In education, for instance, contrary to mission statements many students fail to learn and policies backfire and "schools are blamed for social ills, universities are said to close more minds than they open" (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 7).

According to Bolman and Deal (2008), organizations are clueless. The authors also stated that even the brightest managers make "dumb" missteps and pose the question: How do bright people turn out so dim? They believe it is because "they're too smart for their own good." Bolman and Deal cited the work of Feinberg and Tarrant, who label this phenomenon as the *self-destructive intelligence syndrome*, which makes smart people act stupid because of ego-driven personality flaws such as pride and arrogance (2008). According to the authors, some managers even have a subconscious drive to fail.

Bolman and Deal (2008) do not limit their discussion to psychological problems, but stated that even the smartest people can suffer from challenges that have nothing to do with intelligence or an IQ score, but have everything to do with how the manager sizes up a situation, because if it is inadequately assessed, then the actions that follow are also limited (p. 8).

An academic department chair (ADC) is the leadership for a department or a specific branch of knowledge, and this position outnumbers all other types of administrator combined in an institution of higher education (Aziz et al., 2005). Aziz et al. stated that the role of the chair is not only important to an institution but also a

significant wielder of power through the ability to influence others, influence curriculum and program goals, and also influence policy. The success in meeting departmental goals is also closely linked with the university's success in meeting institutional goals. To better understand the role of an academic department, consider that the department is an organizational *subculture* within the institution and the discipline (Lee, 2007). Yet, research shows that there is little to no formal training provided to academic department chairs (Aziz et al., 2005; Filan, 1999; Smith, 2004; Wolverton & Ackerman, 2005).

According to Gmelch (1994), the department chair leadership training discussion has existed for many years, although very little progress has been achieved in making the needed training readily available for chairs. In a study done by University of Las Vegas professors Wolverton and Ackerman (2005), it was found that the need for better training of academic department chairs was overwhelmingly supported by non-chair faculty members.

Organizations such as the American Council on Education Leadership Academy for Department Chairs (ACE), and even a few universities and colleges, including Harvard, supported the importance of leadership training, particularly at the chair level. These few organizations created programs for this purpose; but, because the programs were sporadic and short-term, researchers rendered the training ineffective (Aziz et al., 2005; Filan, 1999; Smith, 2004). Smith advised that any leadership training should be formal and comprehensive, lasting as much as eight years to be effective.

Chairs: Administrator and Faculty Member

Academic chairs are often "plucked" from among the brightest faculty members, according to Wolverton and Ackerman (2005). The chosen faculty member may have been described as the "scholarly researcher" or "engaged faculty," but what is astounding is that very little attention is given to the candidate's leadership ability. Inspiring and motivating people are among the responsibilities of a chair in his or her administrator role. It is not enough to simply manage the operations of a department.

According to Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, and Tucker (1999), institutions continue to pursue this line of thinking in hiring for the chair position; in fact, they submitted that candidates are rarely asked to demonstrate the skills required for the position, such as conflict resolution, effective marketing strategies for recruitment, or proposals for increasing alumni support. This short-sightedness has significant implications to the success of the department and the institution.

In addition, chairs have dual roles as members of the faculty and as administrators. King (1997) described this duality as a "false dichotomy" (p. 211). Whereas the question of where the primary allegiance of a chair should underlie the ADCs' roles, whether it is with the department or the administration, King (1987) stated that allegiance must shift as priorities change, but a chair must be able to fairly represent the interests of both constituencies.

Chairs must move between the two prominent roles: faculty member and administrator, juggling responsibilities of both positions and their sometimes competing interests to move the department forward and the institution toward its goals. Chairs are often chosen from among faculty ranks to a position for which they may have very little

knowledge and experience for the work required, and yet, leadership training is seldom required or provided. The behaviors required for leading a department and for meaningfully contributing to the department's and institution's goals are vastly different from those when they were only faculty members (Filan, 1999). Filan stated that the three most difficult features of the position are shifting individual focus and loyalty from a specific discipline to the broader concept of the institution as a whole, developing conflict-resolution skills, and knowing how to build an effective, productive team. Leadership is the ability to influence people to move toward a goal (Kotter, 1990).

Often chairs are chosen through an internal process: election, appointment, or rotation from the faculty, and candidates may be well aware of the culture of the department. Yet and still, tension is inherent in this process, particularly if the chair is elected and a new distance between colleagues and competing visions, a chair may now be pushed into developing a leadership style (King, 1997). According to King, for instance, an ADC with an autocratic style may not make friends at work, but may be effective for time-sensitive decision-making. A candidate may have some administrative experience from committee work, but some chairs may not have had any formal training, or even a propensity toward leadership (King, 1997; Wolverton et al., 2005).

Wolverton and Ackerman (2006) described the plight of the academic department chair using an analogy of a seedling, stating that if a seedling is left uncared for it eventually will dry and shrivel away, or it may also run the risk of exposure and then it will mildew. Either way, the seedling becomes useless and never serves its intended purpose. On the contrary, the authors continued, if that seedling is planted in good soil and is nurtured and cultivated, then it grows and thrives. The plight of the academic chair

is reminiscent of this seedling. If a chair receives the proper training he or she needs to be prepared and successful in the chair position, the chair and the department have a good chance of flourishing and remaining integral parts of the university. However, if a chair is not adequately prepared for the responsibilities of the position, the university assumes the risks of huge losses in endowments, enrollment and retention, alumni contributions, state and federal funding, and much more.

Unfortunately, most academic department chairs do not receive leadership training and are faced with new roles and responsibilities for which they may not be prepared. Achterberg (2004) referenced a list of issues pertaining to work style that can be stumbling blocks in the transition from faculty to administration. Achterberg advocated discussing these 10 points with the candidate and the search committee to determine the readiness of the faculty member: working hours, public accountability, frequency of surprise, pressure points, multitasking, working with staff, reporting lines, voice change, information management, and strategic and pragmatic thinking. The roles and responsibilities of chairs far surpass these 10 points; however, these points can easily become issues that affect the management and leadership of ADCs (Achterberg, 2004).

Tucker (1984) was the first researcher to define a 54-item list of task-oriented responsibilities for department chairs. This list is not exhaustive. In a 1975 report by Walzer about the general nature of the chair position, including the experiences and perceptions of department [sic] chairpersons, the author stated that the goal of the study was to promote a discussion of the position and how to restructure the job to more adequately serve academic departments and universities, but also so that those in the ADC position can find job satisfaction. His research provided a perspective of the

responsibilities of a chair from the requirements at Miami University. In addition, from Walzer's research, eight distinctive categories emerged for the job: *departmental, academic, student, faculty, budgetary affairs, external communication, office management, and personal professional performance*.

Waltzer (1975) explained that chairs must maintain a competent level of *personal professional performance,* which included the ADC providing professional leadership and setting the example for the department by demonstrating competence in teaching and research, participating in professional service, in addition to other duties. The list of other duties is long, and according to Hecht (2004) continues to grow.

According to Filan (1999), chairs are faced with issues and job responsibilities that they may never have had to deal with, such as budgeting, personnel issues, allocating resources, and legal issues, at a minimum. The world of education is a minefield; one misstep can cost the institution a tremendous amount of money and the loss of reputation and standing.

Graham and Benoit (2004) conducted qualitative interviews of ADCs from a larger study on department chairs in a four-campus university system to ascertain how chairs perceived their role. The ADCs and some deans were asked to identify ADCs the participants perceived as successful and to explain why they selected these ADCs. Four major roles were identified in these interviews: administrative, leadership, interpersonal, and resource development (Graham & Benoit, 2004). Further subdivisions were also identified in this study. According to Graham and Benoit, the administrative role included four sub-roles: fiscal overseer, schedule coordinator, report generator, and staff supervisor.

As a *fiscal overseer*, ADCs monitored the department's budget and ensured that allocations were not overspent. The chairs in Graham and Benoit's study (2004) stated that this role required them to be creative in finding ways to extend their budgets and this role also included external fundraising.

Further, the *schedule coordinator* role described by Graham and Benoit (2004) required ADCs to schedule courses, and allocate rooms and faculty each term to meet graduation and fulfillment requirements, and, moreover, chairs were responsible for assisting faculty in their time management and finding teaching load balance.

In their 2004 study, Graham and Benoit described the *report generator* subdivision of the administrative role as a way of "searching for answers to someone else's questions-questions that may not seem germane to the scholarly concerns of either the chair or the department" (p. 3). Benoit and Graham (2005) reiterated this concern, naming endless report generation as one of the most frustrating aspects of the administrative role, stating that chairs were willing to produce reports with purpose but resented arbitrary demands for reports for new information.

Supervising staff and dealing with the issues of hiring, supporting, and managing staff relegates ADCs to the role of *staff supervisors* (Graham & Benoit, 2004), a responsibility that requires the ability to gather information and to disseminate it in a timely manner, and is often a challenging aspect for new chairs. One chair in the study stated that the time required to deal with personnel problems could not be anticipated and require the chair to be familiar with details such as sick and vacation leave policies and policies on staff evaluations for the purposes of raises.

Chairs are faced with hiring and firing employees, as well as making tenure recommendations. They also perform faculty and staff evaluations. Budgeting and accounting for funds require fiscal understanding and the ability to forecast future needs. In addition, the ability to create a vision and to work toward that vision is imperative for the position (Graham & Benoit, 2004).

According to Hecht (2004), legal issues usually are about employment issues and accusations of failures to observe institutional procedures. Knowledge of employment and constitutional law is needed as chairs deal with academic freedom and contract issues. Torts are not uncommon in education, but can be reduced when one has awareness of what not to do to trigger an issue. Hecht suggested to chairs that they never forget that they represent the university as administrators in employment reviews and they must never compromise governance standards of the institution. If the university is unionized, according to Hecht the chair must know that employment procedures are governed by union contracts, and grievances may involve the chair in the conflict.

Also, sexual harassment policies and conflicts may involve student-to-student, student-faculty, intrafaculty, and staff-faculty problems (Hecht, 2004). Title IX deals with gender issues and prohibits discrimination in education and its sports programs, particularly when federal funding is involved. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits discrimination in employment practices on the basis of protected class status: race, sex, age, and nationality. The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) protects against discrimination against the disabled and calls for reasonable accommodations to be made for employees. Chairs should be aware of due process clauses, for when so much is

at stake for an employee to lose, more due process is expected. These are only a brief glimpse into what department chairs need to know to navigate their supervisory role.

In addition to administrative roles and their subdivisions is the leadership role ADCs must fulfill. Graham and Benoit (2004) labeled six leadership roles: visionary, internal advocate, internal intermediary, external liaison, curriculum leader, and role model. Although most are self-explanatory, a description of the roles of visionary, internal intermediary, and external liaison follows.

As a *visionary*, the leader's transformational capacity is highlighted as a necessary skill set because the ADC's ability to create the space needed for change, and the ability to generate agreement among faculty is paramount. Some chairs interviewed saw themselves as visionaries rather than "caretakers" (Graham & Benoit, 2004, p. 4). Most chairs have an active part in developing and enforcing policies at both the departmental level and at the university level. The ability to provide a clear and meaningful direction for the department and vision for the future is vital in leadership.

According to Graham and Benoit (2004), the role of *internal advocate* holds the ADC responsible for representing the faculty and the department to higher level administrators. It also includes promoting and supporting the faculty and their needs to deans and other administrators. Faculty interprets the chair's position as an "advocate," often disregarding his responsibility to the higher ups in the institution. Many times, chairs are not prepared for the stressors this distinction precipitates (Filan, 1999).

ADCs are often stuck in the middle of the faculty and the administration, in the dual role of *internal intermediary*, sometimes working as advocate for the faculty and the department to the dean, but many times also in the position of explaining the actions of

the administration to the faculty. Academic department chairs have to wear the proverbial "different hats at all times" because they constantly move between two roles, administrator and faculty member. As an administrator, chairs are middle managers, representing the faculty to the dean and the dean to the faculty – and often the provost (Filan, 1999).

This is a challenging tight-rope to walk, according to Filan (1999), as this position is also one of trust. If a chair were to lean too far toward the administrator role, then he or she stands the chance of being viewed as one of "them," and an "us against them" mentality can interfere with the relationship of the chair and his faculty. Furthermore, Wolverton and Ackerman (2006) stated that those whom the faculty see transform into administrators or one of "them" is now "no longer one of us" (p. 15).

King (1997) stated that chairs must learn to deal fairly with colleagues and students, being wary of preferential treatment to any specific group or person. According to King (1997), "favoritism is fatal," and the danger for faculty who take the position is the approach of "chair-as-sugar-daddy," whether it is conscious or unconscious, because this type of relationship could hinder providing accurate feedback, which can affect departmental standards and performance (p. 213). Moreover, a dangerous dynamic could result in having low interpersonal distance; chairs may be reluctant to assume the role of evaluator and may provide only positive feedback (King, 1997). The result might be a "conspiracy of mediocrity" according to King (1997), where faculty and chair are not challenged by each other and the chair maintains the faculty's support – a type of avoidance of responsibility (p. 213).

The quality of a department's program is mostly determined by the quality of the faculty and their performance, making the need for evaluation a necessary part of the chair's role, and an opportunity for development (Hecht, 2004; Seagren, 1993). A chair is a faculty member and a colleague; but a chair is also an administrator, and this duplicitous position, according to Graham and Benoit (2004), creates tensions for all involved, because the chair has obligations to the administration and the faculty – a stressful position for the ADC to be in.

One of the important parts of the chair position is the role of *external liaison*, representing the department's faculty to external audiences, which in higher education are alumni, potential recruits to the department, potential future employers for the department's students, the community, and funding agencies (Graham & Benoit, 2004). But that is not all; in addition to a chair's administrative and leadership roles are the interpersonal roles and the role of resources developer that the ADC must carry out. Chairs, according to Graham and Benoit (2004) are also *counselor, coach, mediator, climate regulator, as well as faculty recruiter, faculty mentor, faculty evaluators,* and *resource warriors*.

As a member of the faculty, the chair has an inside perspective on the duties and responsibilities of faculty and also the institution: teaching, course design, research and publishing, and sees himself or herself pulled between the two roles. A chair, having been pulled from the faculty for the new position, may already be working on a research agenda and will now have to balance the demands of publishing and research with the demands of the chair position (Wolverton & Ackerman, 2006). Time management, prioritizing, and interpersonal communication become the chair's new concerns (Aziz et

al., 2005). Leadership training may give chairs insight into balancing the demands of the roles.

Chairs may be chosen internally from among the department's faculty at the institution or externally from another source. Hecht et al. (1999) described two models for conducting a search for a chair. The first model is a full-scale search that requires candidates to be fully tenured faculty within the department, and allows for all tenured faculty to apply and undergo a typical screening procedure. After interviews, the recommendations are forwarded to the college dean and a new chair is appointed, if the dean approves. But, the authors contend that those searches limited to only internal applicants rarely use a detailed job description. A second model is when chairs are elected from within the department, although the election may need confirmation or formal appointment by the dean (Hecht et al.). In addition, a rotational model of selection, which sometimes occurs in small departments, is a variation on the election model where serving is seen as a civic duty and each department member serves in rotation (Hecht et al., 1999).

National searches for chairs may also be conducted if no acceptable internal candidates are within the department or when the institution feels that a person of "national stature" should lead the department (Hecht et al., 1999, p. 6). When a chair is chosen from outside the institution this choice can signal a need for change (Gmelch, 1994). Gmelch stated that an internal chair may be privy to the culture, politics, and idiosyncrasies of the department and also the institution, but when a chair is chosen externally, the chair may not have any insight into the organization and the change that

will be needed might be met with significant resistance. Without adequate training, both candidates are at a disadvantage.

In the aforementioned study of the chair position at Miami University by Walzer (1975), the researcher created a profile of department chairmen during that time. Walzer found that: (a) more than half of the chairmen were in their first term in the job; (b) almost two-thirds of the chairmen came to the job with administrative experience, but none of them felt the experience was adequate for the job and that on-the-job training was needed; (c) more than half of the chairmen were appointed from outside of Miami University; and (d) more than half of the chairman stated that they, unequivocally, would not consider another term as chair.

But, most importantly, Walzer (1975) found that over 83% of those chairs viewed themselves as faculty members and not as administrators. However, in 2004, Carroll and Wolverton stated that the way department chairs viewed themselves had an impact on how they did their jobs, and they found that 40% of faculty considered their professional identity as faculty, a marked decrease or shift in perception of the position. In other words, stated Carroll and Wolverton (2004), chairs rely on their faculty identity and do not see themselves as administrators, and less than 5% of them will define their role as exclusively administrative. To Walzer (1975), this signaled a need for a different structure of the position by the university in order to recruit quality people willing to stay in the job.

Also included in Walzer's 1975 study, those who considered staying a chair for a longer term would only do so with a list of revisions to the position, stating mainly that their purpose was scholarly and research-oriented first, and they needed to maintain that

self-identity. Carroll and Wolverton found in 2004 that those faculty in mid-career were most often chairs and motivated to do so by a "sense of duty" to the department, and that they served on average for two three-year terms and return to faculty (p. 8). Many of the chairs in their research viewed the chair position as too consuming and as having a negative impact on their "fundamental calling" as researchers and teachers (p. 8).

With ambiguous and competing dual roles of administrator and faculty member, a multitude of responsibilities and tasks, and innumerable stressors, why would someone choose to accept the position of chair? People may assume the position of chair for many extrinsic and intrinsic reasons: being drafted into position by deans or colleagues, an opportunity to help the department or an opportunity for professional advancement, and sometimes a need for financial rewards. King (1997) stated that some faculty may have gotten tired of teaching, and administration is a welcomed opportunity to revive a career. King also asserted that sometimes the stated motivation to contribute to the growth of the department is not as noble as it would appear, because that assumption may be more of a desire to prove that one can lead better than others. King stated this is a reflection of arrogance and poor judgment. But some, according to Hecht (2004), see it as an opportunity to make a difference and as a new challenge.

Additionally, Hecht (2004) added that those who take the position for extrinsic reasons, such as pay or pressure, are not likely to like the job and most likely will leave the position as soon as possible. Germane to this discussion, Carroll and Wolverton (2004) found that only 20% of ADCs moved into other administrative positions at the end of their terms as chair. Although the hiring of an external candidate may signal a need for change, change is challenging for any chair. Creating change and maintaining a culture

conducive for excellence might start with assessing the environment and planning how to infiltrate and implement new order (Carroll & Wolverton, 2004).

More importantly, as faculty members chairs often worked in isolation on their own research agendas, but as administrators they are now tasked with working with and for others at a more involved level (Wolverton & Ackerman, 2006). Chairs can "hit the ground running" and learn on the job, but the learning curve is steep and the stakes are too high. According to Smith (2004), becoming a chair in a department might be considered the lifetime achievement for a faculty member. Yet, many faculty members have never been in a supervisory position or had to deal with the responsibilities of the role. Leadership training can better prepare these chairs for the position. While the chair is learning the new position, the department is expected to continue to progress without a lag in productivity, morale, or effectiveness. According to King (1997), accepting the chair position may also professionally hinder the career of the ADC because it takes away from time that could be allotted to research and writing – the activities that academics use for promotion and collegial respect.

In addition, the new responsibility calls for communication skills. As an advocate for faculty and the intermediary between colleagues and the administration, an ADC must be able to present the strongest arguments in a concise and articulate manner that represents all interests, without timidity and self-promotion (King, 1997).

Kurt Lewin, prominent change theorist, described the need to unfreeze the current culture of an organization and then to refreeze the organization with the newly installed values and beliefs to enact change. This change is a process that is done in steps and over

time. The ability to handle change and to create change is paramount to the leader of an academic department.

The Sigmoid Curve can be used to illustrate change, productivity, morale, effectiveness, even the learning curve when a new chair is introduced into a functioning department. To avoid waning, a new Sigmoid Curve should be started while the first is at the height of its success. The period between ending one curve and starting a new one can be described as the chaotic and confusing. In research of the School Improvement Process, Beach and Lindahl (2007), described change as a process. They also used the Sigmoid Curve to illustrate the waxing and waning of introducing innovation into the environment. To accomplish initiatives, department chairs assign committees and task forces, both staples of university systems, as part of a lateral coordination to complement the gaps in official authority in the vertical coordination of work tasks, and as things arise, they create more and more policy to attempt to provide structure to how the humans in the organization must behave to obtain consistency and predictability (Bolman & Deal, 2008).

Work of Chairs

According to Hecht (2004), a trend toward decentralization, particularly in larger institutions, is responsible for making ADCs accountable for budget and resource management more now than some 20 to 30 years past. Hecht (2004) stated that at one time, chairs did not have much control over salaries, but today chairs are handed annual budgets for hiring adjunct faculty for their departments. In fact, Hecht (2004) continued, chairs must find ways to make budget allowances stretch throughout the academic year,

and these allocations, more than likely, were based on the chair's anticipated need. Hecht further contended that shortfalls in the faculty estimates from the chair can severely damage the ADC's reputation, because the underestimation can be seen as incompetency. Hecht stated that duties such as these make educating oneself a necessity for chairs, and suggested this education be gained through keeping abreast of national trends and issues by reading publications relevant to a chair's work, such as the *Chronicle of Higher Education* and the newsletter *The Department Chair,* which focuses on administrative aspects, and by attending national meetings such as those held by the American Council on Education that focus on faculty and technology.

Benoit and Graham (2005) found three kinds of experiences that successful chairs were most excited about when they were able to obtain resources for the department, able to implement their vision, and were able to create a positive environment. The authors provided anecdotal descriptions of what might be rewarding for chairs; for instance, one ADC was able to recruit an endowed chair to the faculty, and another was able to advance her department's academic vision by revising the curriculum. Still, for some, according to Benoit and Graham (2005), creating a climate conducive to organizational effectiveness provided a sense of exhilaration.

The frustrations of conquering administrative blocks and being led by endless promises for more resources, or being met with conflict or "delaying tactics" when trying to carry out a vision for the department, or being privy to regular incidents of interpersonal conflicts are the negative side to what chairs often face (Benoit & Graham, 2005). Garnering resources in an environment where everyone is competing for the same resources, resolving conflict, and moving the department's vision and mission forward

are challenges ADCs often face, and political maneuvering is the way that most are able to achieve desired results. Astuteness at political maneuvering has its base in power.

A viable definition for both leadership and for power is "the capacity to influence others" (Blanchard, 2007, p. 51). To have leadership one must have power, social control or influence. A concept crucial to understanding political thinking is *power* (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p.190). The political frame of Bolman and Deal presents another view of stakeholders, *actors*, in society and in organizations as *partisans* and *authorities* and also introduces the discussion on building alliances through coalitions. In educational systems, the authorities are administrators who hold the decision-making capabilities that affect their subordinates. They are the *initiators* or *agents* of social control, whereas partisans are those who are affected by the influences of the authorities (p. 202). Bennett (2000) found that hierarchy and competition dominated academe and teaching and scholarship often seemed distant from the concerns of humanity, the marks of professional accomplishment were persistently elusive, and the personal meaning and satisfaction Bennett had sought were often beyond grasp (p. 85).

Additionally, Gibson-Harmon (2001) discussed the role of Master's level prepared professional staff and addressed the idea of considering universities as a culture. She asked: If in collegiums, participation in decision-making is a shared responsibility, then who gets to be a part of the community? Gibson-Harmon said that institutions do not often ask the question of "whom" but act on "how" the culture must be preserved and the culture usually defines who is allowed to be involved. Bennett (2000) talked of colleagues, who found themselves disillusioned with life in academe, cited a longing for deeper, more meaningful and even spiritual fulfillment, a "richer academic culture" in

academia. He found that some colleagues felt that those aspects were pushed aside and overshadowed by the need for competition and prestige. One of the correspondents commented that not only did he feel he had to emulate Machiavelli, but also he needed to surpass the expertise of his cunning.

Bolman and Deal's Four-frame Model

According to Bolman and Deal (2008), making sense of a complex situation is not a single-frame activity (p. 309). Bolman and Deal (2008) created a comprehensive framework consisting of four distinct perspectives by consolidating schools of thought on organizational theory. These four perspectives became the foundational framework for how managers and leaders may view organizations, how decisions are made, and how the culture of the organization is derived. From their research and practice, the four major frames delineated by Bolman and Deal (1984) are *structural*, *human resource*, *political*, and *symbolic*.

Optimally, managers and leaders will incorporate the use of more than one frame in how they view the organization and situations that arise, allowing for a balanced, holistic view of what organizations are, what people do, and how problems are solved. Each of the four frames has its own distinct identity and reality; therefore, individuals may be pulled toward one specific orientation while resisting others. Bolman and Deal (2008) suggested that learning the intricacies of all of the frames and how to apply them will provide greater insight and comprehension of organizations and how they actually work. This becomes the basis of a conundrum. By viewing the organization and

situations from only one perspective, other opportunities and threats are ignored – or discounted.

Bolman and Deal (2008) believed that successful managers reframe situations until they have a full understanding, and this reframing may be done consciously or even intuitively. This reframing gives managers a way of diagnosing what is truly happening, and how they should proceed. This type of *multi-frame* thinking can be accomplished, but it requires moving outside of one's comfort zone and fear of uncertainty, and liberation through opening one's mind to new perspectives: "Managers are imprisoned only to the extent that their palette of ideas is impoverished" (p. 19). According to Bolman and Deal, multi-frame thinking refutes that there is ever only one way to handle a situation.

Bolman and Deal's Structural Frame

From the structural perspective, organizations can be seen as *factories*. The *Structural Frame* draws from the disciplines of sociology, economics, and management science, and encompasses a more rational view of organizations and their infrastructures. Hierarchies and organizational charts are the focus of this perspective of the inner workings of organizations, and form the basis for how managers and leaders view the organization as a system of policies and procedures, rules, roles, and responsibilities. It takes very little into account of the human capital and relies more heavily on building a structure around and supporting the technology and industry of the organization. This limiting view creates a challenge when current circumstances evolve outside of this myopic view, and the organization fails to keep up with changes. Re-thinking and

reorganizing the current structural mechanisms become the much-needed remedies to rectify the disconnect.

According to Bolman and Gallos (2011), in academic institutions, from a structural view, there are two roles central to university leaders: *analysts* and *institutional architects*. Bolman and Gallos believed that the role of an analyst is based on the leader's responsibility to keenly study the production processes of the institution. As systems designers or institutional architects, leaders develop rules, roles, procedures and reporting relationships for efforts in reaching campus goals (Bolman & Gallos). But, unfortunately, higher education has become an "architecture of disconnection" (p. 52). They stated that a good thing about organizational structure is that it does produce what it is intended to produce, but the bad thing is that may occur even when that is something that no one wants. These undesired results are sometimes the consequences of structural design. Colleges and universities are open systems and are pushed and pulled by many different audiences, creating permeable boundaries (Bolman & Gallos). For instance, everyone on a campus may seem to be going in different directions; faculty members may mostly work independently from their colleagues except for the occasional conflict-ridden collaboration, or ADCs may be challenged with the responsibility of supervising over 50 employees plus additional adjuncts, yet higher education relies on autonomy, and "loose coupling" is typical of academic work (Bolman & Gallos). According to Bolman and Gallos, leaders in colleges and universities will face structural challenges on three levels: structuring their own work and the work of their organization, and also the change process.

Inherent in this challenge to academic departments of functional groups based on specialized knowledge is that they can become too focused on their own priorities and goals, causing "sub optimization," which fragments efforts and causes the performance of the unit to suffer. Specialization can breed problems of inefficient collaboration and control by blocking the "meshing" of diverse efforts (p. 52).

Bolman and Deal's Human Resources Frame

The manager or leader who focuses on the interpersonal relationships or the organization as a *family* is operating from a human resource frame (Bolman & Deal, 2008). This view, rooted in psychology, embraces the organization and its workers as an "extended family" composed of human beings, all with individual needs, and honors the individuality of those within the organization. While finding ways for workers to do their jobs, the perspective also views the organization as having the responsibility of helping those workers find job satisfaction while self-actualizing.

In addition to frustrating and exploiting its employees, the bottom line, according to Bolman and Deal (2008), is that organizations are having a challenging time of managing their organizations so that their "virtues exceed their vices" and the researchers posed the questions why this seems so difficult (p. 7).

Bolman and Deal's Political Frame

The *jungle* is a place where the strongest survives, and the view of the organization as "arenas, contests, and jungles" is as at the heart of the *Political Frame*. According to Bolman and Deal (2008), in this jungle, the manager or leader sees all

vying for resources that are oft-times scarce, and for the accumulation of power. Conflict mires the environment because of differing agendas and motivations by individuals and consortiums. Everyday life consists of the wielding of power, negatively in coercions, and positively in compromise (Bolman & Deal). Nevertheless, it is a hustle of building coalitions and of fighting for position. The jungle analogy and the perspective of links in a food chain create the foundation for understanding this frame. Problematic to this perspective is that nothing gets accomplished when the power is applied heavily in the wrong places or when it is haphazardly dispersed. The play of power and political skill in this perspective is Machiavellian to the researchers, and also the solution to navigating the dangerousness of this organization.

Academic institutions have unique power structures, sometimes described as an *organized anarchy*, and it can take a new leader a significant amount of time to determine who has the power in the school, because power is often unacceptable to display in collegial systems (Understanding, 2001). Further, formal authority may rest with trustees of higher education institutions; academic authority is held by the faculty and in subgroups, based on expert power. There are multiple levels of power among constituents of the institution: trustees, government, and "the occasional charismatic individual" (Understanding, p. 69). Power is the ability to influence others to get a desired outcome.

In organizations, power is the key; but it is very rarely equally held or distributed. As administrators, ADCs must have power because no one will follow and nothing will get done without it (Bolman & Deal, 2011). Bolman and Deal stated that colleges and universities are inherently highly political, and that the challenge with administrators is their inability to play the game of politics and their distaste for it. This indictment of

politics conflicts with some administrator's views of themselves as "rational persons with noble intentions" although they recognize its necessity. However, in academia, a large part of being an administrator is obtaining resources in an environment where resources are scarce and others are also contending for more, and where it is paramount to build alliances to garner the support a program needs to thrive. The authors contended that leadership needs to understand that politics is present in every situation and that leaders must understand and leverage the political realities they face.

Bolman and Deal's Symbolic Frame

A heavy orientation on "culture, symbols, and spirit" as significant to the success of the organization is the perspective of the *Symbolic Frame*. Organizations are seen as "temples, tribes, theaters, or carnivals" a living entity with its own culture, which is maintained through stories of heroes and rituals rather than just a place ruled by policies and authority (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 16). In this perspective, the organization is also a theater where dramas are acted out by players before an audience. But, when the actors do not embrace the culture, or have "buy-in" to this philosophy, then the symbols lose their meanings and the spirit begins to weaken. The only way to reawaken the spirit of the organization, according to the researchers, is through more symbols, myths, and magic. The philosopher Confucius said, "Signs and symbols rule the world, not words nor laws."

By their very nature, certain positions, such as president of the school, chancellor, dean, and director, in higher education are heavily symbolic and visibly so (Bolman & Deal, 2011), and at the lower level, for instance ADCs, with less formal authority and

prestige, symbolism can be more important. The use of symbols is one means humans use to provide meaning to life. According to Bolman and Deal (2008), central concerns to the symbolic frame are meaning, belief, and faith; and, most importantly, is the idea that people create meaning through symbols that evoke intellectual and emotional reactions. Some forms of symbols in life are the use of heroes and heroines, myths, stories, and the use of rituals and ceremonies. Symbols and symbolic actions are a part of everyday life. These symbols are important because they affect the culture of the organization. The symbolic frame of Bolman and Deal (2008) describes a world that is less linear and more a figurative realm to be interpreted.

Bolman and Deal (2008) synthesized the works of many theorists from varying disciplines, including archeology, neurolinguistic programming, sociology, and organizational theory to create their five symbolic assumptions:

- What happens is not as important as the meaning behind what happened.
- People bring different interpretations to the same event or action; thus, actions and meaning are not strongly correlated.
- In times of uncertainty, people create symbols to cope, to resolve conflict, and to give hope.
- People find significant meaning and purpose in the events that happened rather than the final product; they create myths, heroes and heroines, stories, rituals and ceremonies to give purpose and ignite passion.
- The unifying element, bonding people together to reach goals in any organization, is the culture.

Organizations communicate the school's culture through symbols such as mascots, mottos, the rituals of teaching and emphasis on scholarship, and the myths associated with the institution. Myths, vision and values, according to Bolman and Deal (2008), give the institution purpose and resolve, and heroes and heroines through their actions and words serve as "living logos" (p. 254).

Myths reinforce what an institution stands for, what distinguishes it from other institutions--its core values. Values are intangible, unlike goals, but it is the ideology of how the institution actually behaves, in keeping with, but sometimes contrary to, its mission statements (Bolman & Deal, 2008). Additionally, the vision, an important part of contemporary organizations, paints a picture of what institutions want the future of the organization to look like; grounding in historical legend and offering pictures for core principles. Great leaders, the heroes and heroines whose legacies are left behind in the organizations, also undergird core values.

Heroes and heroines can be at the top of the organization, illustrious presidents or winning athletic coaches, but may also be found in ordinary people who do extraordinary deeds, publicly and behind the scenes. For instance, Bolman and Deal (2008) wrote about Joe Vallejo, a custodian in a West Coast junior high school who did his job of keeping the school clean, but went above his formal position and formed relationships with faculty and students. Vallejo was known to provide pointers on tailoring lessons to teachers, as well as attending and influencing parent conferences, and even checking the report cards of his students. When he retired, the school named a patio in his honor. His story and the patio commemorating his contribution stand to date.

Stories and fairy tales are rooted in human experiences, and serve many purposes in organizations; they offer moral instruction and entertainment, serve to comfort and to give direction, to illustrate ways of resolving conflict. Overall, the purpose of stories in institutions is to "perpetuate values and keep feats of heroes and heroines alive" (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 259). According to Bolman and Deal, effective organizations have a lot of good stories of heroes and heroines to be told. Stories may be a substitute for boring facts, and are often repeated formally at meetings and informally at coffee breaks, conveying values and building support.

Rituals can be personal and communal routines that hold meaning behind the actions (Bolman & Deal, 2008). Initiation is an important part of rituals; a rite of passage reinforcing the organization's culture while testing a new member's ability to fit or assimilate into the group. Rituals are thought to bind the group together, to build camaraderie and give traditions and values.

The Art of Decision-Making: Framing and Reframing

Management versus Leadership

Although much of what an academic department chair does is management, leadership must also be present. Management is not synonymous with leadership (Kotter, 1990). Kotter described management as a way of maintaining order and consistency, whereas he described leadership as a process of movement. Leadership is described in his work as not being concerned with time limits, but a continual process of moving toward a goal, of growth, and of influencing others. He said that management is about the categories of controlling, planning, organizing and staffing, as also described by Fayol

(1916). When academic chairs focus more on "structures, policies, processes, and paperwork," they are functioning as managers, but when chairs turn their focus to aspects of organizational cultures and transformative thinking such as "engagement and adaptability," they are functioning as leaders (Bowman, 2002, p. 159).

According to Seagren (1993), institutions of higher education are unlike many organizations in that they require a more shared type of leadership than profit-focused organizations. Because faculty ownership is fundamental to academic institutions, departmental leadership requires emphasis on empowering faculty more than other types of organizations (Seagren). Although chairs have opportunities to exercise leadership in a number of different settings, the requirement of leadership varies depending on the stage of the department's development, the specific management function, the academic discipline, and the leadership style of the chair. Seagren further asserted:

> The chair must ensure that an effective data base exists for informed decision-making, try to understand the use and dynamics of the politics of the institution, use faculty members' strengths to develop quality, and create an environment where faculty can strengthen their own professional status through the achievement of a shared vision. (p. 3)

Henri Fayol – Management

Leadership can take many forms, but the leadership abilities or leadership style of the chair are very rarely considered in the hiring process. According to leadership theory, leadership can be approached through trait-based theory – personality of the leader, style approach – behaviors of the leader, or skills approach – the knowledge of the leader.

The trait approach to leadership of Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) and Stogdill (1974) is complementary in it takes into account the personality of the leader and the capacities an effective leader should possess. Of these researchers' overlapping traits,

their research called for a leader to possess confidence, cognitive ability, motivation, and drive.

The skills approach of Katz (1974) stated that there are three skill areas that employees must possess and each is according to the level of the position. Katz determined that a worker must have technology, human, and conceptual skills. Regardless of the level of the worker in an organization, all must possess human skills, the ability to work and to communicate with others. However, those workers on a lower rung in the organization would probably use more technical skills and those on a higher rung, for instance in management, would need a higher percentage of conceptual skills. As a chair of a department, vacillating between the role of administrator and faculty member, if Katz is an indicator of the necessary skills, then a chair would have to be highly adept at all three abilities. Mumford (2000) stated that in addition to cognitive ability, a leader must also possess the ability to work with people, to have empathy for others and the ability to communicate – social judgment skills.

As many chairs are, indeed, "plucked" from among faculty as Wolverton (2006) stated, then a fair assessment of the candidate's ability to communicate with others most likely has not been conducted. The faculty member positioned as chair may be very low in his or her ability to communicate with others, adding to the challenge of the position and possibly aiding in the deterioration of the relationship the chair has with his or her staff. Although the debate rages on regarding whether leaders are made or born, Mumford (2000) believed that workers can develop the skills needed to be effective.

Hersey and Blanchard (1996) revisited their leadership theory, Situational Leadership, first published in 1969, which called for leaders to adapt their leadership

behaviors to the needs of followers, and to fit the situation. Situational Leadership suggested that different situations are influenced by many variables such as the organization, superiors and subordinates, and job demands; thus, different situations call for different leadership styles. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1969), "Recent empirical studies show that no single all purpose leadership style is universally successful" (cited in Hersey & Blanchard, 1996, p. 44). Consequently, leaders must learn to self-reflect and to diagnose what their environments demand and adjust their leadership style to that situation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996). The Life-Cycle Theory suggested that the leader has to assess the "maturity" or the individual's desire to achieve and his or her willingness to accept responsibility, of his subordinate, and then decide on an appropriate style of leadership. The theory can be illustrated by a four quadrant grid, where the normal distribution, bell-shaped curve is centered within, and the Y-axis indicates the measure of relationship behaviors form low to high, and the X-axis represents the continuum of Task behaviors from low to high.

This theory described the following four phases: (a) High Task – Low Relationship, familiarizing employees with requirements and instructions for accomplishing the tasks and policies and procedures of the organization. A leader may be more effective in this phase by employing a task-oriented leadership approach; (b) High Task – High Relationship, as employees learn their jobs but may or may not be willing to accept the full responsibilities entailed for adequate performance, a leader may begin to build more trust in the employee's performance and thus, a more people-oriented leadership style can be used; (c) Low Task – High Relationship, as evidence of the employee's performance is observed and he or she begins to seek more greater

responsibility, a leader can begin to move away from highly directive behaviors in favor of adapting a more lax and supportive style that encourages employees; and (d) Low Task – Low Relationship is the phase where employees may reach a point of self-directing and gain confidence in their abilities to perform. This Low Task – Low Relationship phase may be the most effective leadership style when working with highly trained and educated employees (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). Some changes have been made to the earlier version of The Life Cycle Leadership Theory, its name for one, but also the idea of "maturity" for employees which is now referred to as "readiness." In addition, each phase has now been identified by more distinctive labels: Phase I – High Task – Low Relationship is Telling or Directing; Phase II – High Task – High Relationship, is Persuading or Coaching; Phase III – Low Task – High Relationship is Delegating; and Phase IV- Low Task – Low Relationship is now Delegating. Hersey and Blanchard (1996) stated that changing a manager's leadership style takes considerable time and implementing a new theory in an organization may take years, yet, companies invest millions in training to do so, but the researchers stated that change must be a gradual and planned process created through developing mutual trust and respect.

All leaders can develop a new way of thinking, of leading with creativity and artistry, a concept encouraged by Bolman and Deal (2008):

> Overemphasizing the rational and technical side of an organization often contributes to its decline and demise. Our counterbalance emphasizes the importance of art in both management and leadership. Artistry is neither exact nor precise; the artist interprets experience, expressing it in forms that can be felt, understood, and appreciated. Art fosters emotions, subtlety, and ambiguity. An artist represents the world to give us a deeper understanding of what is and what might be. In modern organizations, quality, commitment, and creativity are highly valued but often hard to find. They can be developed and encouraged by leaders or managers who embrace the expressive side of their work. (p. ix)

The work of Daniel Pink (2005) supported a shift in thinking, a reframing, from the Industrial Age to a Conceptual Age, the traditional model of society built on logical perspectives to a more creative view. His book, *A Whole New Mind*, describes *six senses* that Pink thinks were held by creative people and were overlooked during the "computerlike" age of technology, but will not only add to professional success and personal satisfaction, but will help business leaders survive and thrive in a changing world. The six senses, *design*, *story*, *symphony*, *empathy*, *play*, and *meaning*, are essential aptitudes which move individuals from a reliance on the machine-like nature of left-brain…to the creative minds and synthesis of right-brain thinking.

ADCs are the only administrators in an institution who have to live with the decisions that they make daily (Hecht et al., 1999), and the obligation to make decisions is a fundamental part of the reality of the position (Hecht, 2004). Hecht (2004) wrote that the constituencies affected by the decisions a chair makes will have no problem telling the ADC exactly how they feel about the decision, and the chair usually is in a "damned if you do and damned if you don't" situation (p. 41).

Furthermore, the author stated, colleagues will be happy to allow the chair to take over the mundane and routine tasks, but a decision that potentially impacts them will garner an immediate response. The challenge for the chair will be in differentiating routine decisions from those that require input from colleagues (Hecht, 2004). According to Hecht, a position of self-inquiry may reveal connected interests and may aid in forethought on how to perceive the situation before a decision is made. Many times, ADCs need the "buy-in" of constituencies to make a more effective decision, and informing those involved may lead to a more sound decision (Hecht). Avoiding conflict

is not the answer, though it may work in the short-term; instead, effective ADCs precipitate needs and involve constituents beforehand (Hecht).

Bolman and Gallos (2011) argued that *reframing* is the antidote to a central mistake that leaders make, which is to lock themselves into "limited and flawed views of their world" (p. 23). They advocated that leaders need to review a process more deliberately from many perspectives, and to learn to make sense of the situation through alternative views and other explanations. Also, Bolman and Gallos pontificated that many times leaders will make the cues they glean from a situation fit into a familiar pattern, whether it is right or not, without further investigation.

Bolman and Gallos (2011) used the analogy of physicians who may rely on familiar treatments to symptoms they have seen before, even when they lead to unsuccessful results. The authors stated that physicians may blame the behaviors of others rather than considering that their assessment and subsequent treatment is wrong. In higher education, Bolman and Gallos asserted, physical harm may not be the result of administrators incorrectly framing a situation, but they can still damage their reputations, careers, and their institutions.

Leaders can develop reframing skills by training themselves to deliberately view, more broadly, their work and their purpose in that space through different perspectives; it requires that leaders expand their cognitive frameworks (Bolman & Gallos, 2011). Making decisions quickly is counter to the suggestions of Bolman and Gallos to actually slow down to make more accurate diagnosis, even though it may seem counterintuitive and difficult. The authors suggested asking questions such as what is happening and how do institutional roles and rules contribute to the situation? Questions are vital to the

process, as well as considering what are the "people issues" and the political dynamics involved in the situation (Bolman & Gallos, p. 24).

Although managers are often depicted as a fantasized picture of sophistication as rational beings who design and control the work of subordinates, in well-dressed power suits, with clean desks and a strong grasp of organizations and technology perpetuated by publications and business schools, Bolman and Deal (2008) cautioned that this image was, unfortunately, wrong. They contended that seeing managers at work shows a complicated and hurried life moving quickly from situation to situation, with their decisions emerging from meetings and communications around them. According to Bolman and Deal, managers perform, in large part, from intuition and firsthand observations, gut feelings, and judgments from previous experiences. Simply, managers are too overwhelmed to spend time analyzing or researching, so they take most of their information from communications when considering decisions. As stated by Bolman and Deal, "when problems are ill defined and options murky, control is an illusion and rationality an afterthought" (p. 313).

Orientations of Literature

Decision and Change Theory

Decision-making comes from prior preferences and concerns the expectations of what the consequences will be to those decisions (March, 1991), but there are also limits to finding the optimal choice because decision-making is not a rational process. According to Bolman and Deal (2008), different situations call for different approaches; a rational process where one gathers and analyzes information may fit one situation, but

there may be times when building a power base may be more critical. Bolman and Deal (2008) believed that the decision process could become "a form of ritual," bringing comfort and support when tremendous pressure is apparent in the situation (p. 317). Ultimately, James March (1991) said of decision-making, that human action is the result of human choice. The four theories of this rational perspective to human decision-making relied on intentional actions and the consequences:

- Decision-makers have alternatives from which to choose for action;
- Decision-makers know all consequences of the alternatives before taking actions;
- Decision-makers subjectively choose the value of the consequences based on their own values, consistently; and
- Decision-makers build rules for choice actions based on the consequences by preferences.

In planning and change theory, two theories emerged as comparative standards from among others. Of those two, Rational-Comprehensive was the ideal standard; but Incrementalism was more practical. In *the Science of Muddling Through* (Lindblom, 1959), the author posited: "Suppose an administrator is given responsibility for formulating policy with respect to inflation" (p. 79). Lindblom walked the reader through the decision-making process, examining the ways the administrator might reach for ideas by looking at consequences, and also balancing alternatives with personal values. Lindblom built a case for the use of the incrementalism theory in the planning process in opposition of the rational-comprehensive model created by Simon (1945). The rational-comprehensive model is, at its essence akin to finding the *optimum strategy*. However,

the use of the incrementalism theory is not only simpler, but more practical in its application. Both works, Simon and Lindblom, supported incrementalism in the planning process, doing the work in planned phases or increments.

The views of Lindblom (1959) and Hall (1981) in these two pieces of work are clear assertions of the theory of choice and, additionally, draw parallels in the following respects: Rational- Comprehensive (Root), though ideal in theory does not work in practice; Successive Limited Comparison (Branch) is a legitimate and much simpler approach to planning, and furthermore, is an intermingling of goals and the path of achievement rather than separate entities as the Root method contends; in both works, the author espouses the merits of the Branch method as the method of choice in planning; also, in both works, the comparison of history in change is promoted; more importantly, both authors acknowledge the planning process as subjective and relying heavily on the values of the administrators.

Lindblom (1959) is credited with authoring the Incrementalism Theory in planning and change. Lindblom began *Muddling Through* with a scenario depicting the possible choices an administrator might make if faced with making change. The first of the examples of how the project might be approached is a highly rational-comprehensive process designed by Simon (1945) and, the second example is a depiction of how, when faced with the unrealistic option of following a rational-comprehensive model, the administrator might choose the option of satisficing. S*atisficing* is a term described in the bounded, limited rationalism theory (Simon, 1959), which suggests that the administrator pick the best choice of the most ideal options.

In addition, what is described in Lindblom's depiction of two separate, but essentially similar processes, rational and bounded, are two commonalities: (a) the process is subjective; and, (b) the process illustrates that people are not rational. Hence, the process for change chosen by an organization cannot be. According to Lindblom (1959), "Limits on human intellectual capacities and on available information set definite limits to man's capacity to be comprehensive" (p. 84). Further, Hall (1981) stated that the concept of fluidity is a *central feature* of the real world and so for the parameters of a rational planning model to be fixed, particularly during the decision period, is counterproductive (p. 191).

According to Lindblom (1959), "In actual fact, therefore, no one can practice the rational-comprehensive method for really complex problems, and every administrator faced with a sufficiently complex problem must find ways drastically to simplify" (p. 84). The simpler approach, the Branch approach from this point forward, is interchangeably referred to as incrementalism and successive limited comparisons.

In Lindblom (1959), the branch method is viewed as a superior method to root, or rational approach because the root method excluded factors accidentally and the branch method makes exclusions deliberately. The branch method, with its allowances, is a legitimate model for planning. The alternatives of serious consideration and, subsequently, the consequences of those alternatives are explored when they differ from the *status quo* (Lindblom, 1959, p. 84). The process of rational and a lesser means, which is determined to describe the incrementalism model, in Lindblom's introductory scenario is a subjective process in that it is the administrator's prerogative to decide the direction using available policy or creating a policy at the end.

Hall (1981) cited R.L. Ackoff as stating that, from a rational viewpoint, it is an impossible task to "assess objective probabilities for outcomes" and, thus, "the best that can be done is to ask decision-makers for their subjective assessments." Lindblom (1959) posited that an administrator attempting to follow a rational process would resort to that of a bounded or limited rationalism. Lindblom stated, "Were he [administrator] pressed, he would quickly admit that he was ignoring many related values and many possible important consequences to his policy" (p. 79). Ignoring values and consequences to predicted alternative solutions is, unfortunately, by their very nature in opposition to rational- comprehensive theory. However, ignoring values and consequences is the only option fully in the realms of human ability. In other words, it is the by-product of the incalculable, unpredictable nature of human error. The potential for the most astute and conscientious person to overlook and be within the realms of human ability is a real likelihood.

A *root* or rational-comprehensive process, according to Lindblom (1959), is goal-driven and highly relies on the formulation of objectives, evaluation, of exhaustive overview, and quantifiable analysis, if possible (p. 80). According to (Hall, 1981) "First, the rational model requires perfect information, which is often lacking" (p. 190). Although organizations, and subsequently, theoretical literature regarding planning, according to Lindblom, formally indoctrinate the first process of rational-comprehensive theory, this incongruence with actual practice or *positive theory*, what actually happens in planning, puts the administrator in a precarious position – practicing a subjective model formulated as "one goes along" or simply "muddles through" the process.

Hall (1981), in his book *Great Planning Disasters*, conceded that all planning starts from a rational viewpoint, as in the positive theory of how things ideally would be done. Lindblom also asserted that the root method, as prescribed, does not exclude any alternatives; all must be sought and included, but in actual practice it must exclude by default (p. 86). Again, somewhere in the actual implementation, the realm of the normative dichotomy of what change agents should do, the process becomes a more realistic application. In this second process the analysis component is "drastically limited" (Lindblom, p. 81).

Lindblom (1959) stated that the neglected process of the incrememental ism method introduced in his opening scenarios would be formalized and clarified as *successive limited comparisons* (p. 80). The contrast between the two methods adds another dimension, though the second model could be construed at first glance as representative of a limited rationalism (Simon, 1959) approach, but Lindblom's intent is to depict an incremental process or *branch method,* a step-by-step building of the process from the usage of past experience, beginning from the bottom up, fundamentals. In addition, because such reliance on historical successes and failures within organizations, this method eliminates reliance on the theory of successive limited comparisons or the branch approach because of such comparisons.

Hall (1981) countered the use of the rational process with real-life examples, but he also delved into murkier and more sensational topics of the motives of those decision-makers, "the actors," who stand to gain from the planning process: the community, the bureaucracy, and the politicians. The actors in the planning are vital in understanding the whole picture of what factors influenced the organizations. The values and perceptions of

those involved are discussed, a topic that many choose not to acknowledge as part of the bigger process of the planning. Hall implied that in the rational process it is assumed, incorrectly, that the values of those involved are the same and in a complex decision this assumption is quite often inaccurate. Hall stated, "values and consequent preferences are very often in conflict" (p. 190).

More importantly, from Hall (1981), inferences can be made that the needs of the decision makers are of greater concern and consideration than the needs of others. Lindblom (1959) stated that an administrator will not know how to rank his own values when they conflict with one another, as they will often do, once he has chosen to represent his values as criteria for decisions. Choosing to represent the values of those in decision-making positions over the needs of the majority is an unpopular stance, albeit arguably a more truthful one than most would admit. In addition, one group's gain may mean a loss to another group from the perception of the actors, which further convolutes the process (Hall, 1981).

The consideration of the actors in the planning process begins to involve the philosophy of ethics. In ethics, utilizing the information currently available to find a solution that negatively affects the fewest amount of people, is a goal. As decision-makers frequently find, information is extremely limited and the information present at any particular time may not be an accurate picture, nor will it always be the information presented after the decision is made. Aristotle believed that the most important element in ethical behavior is knowledge that actions are accomplished for the betterment of the common good. He asked whether actions performed by individuals or groups are good both for an individual or a group and for society.

In *Great Planning Disasters*, there are several profound examples of what Hall (1981) referred to as positive disasters and negative disasters. *Positive disasters* are those that were implemented, but were then categorized as having been wrong, and n*egative disasters* are those where the plans were abandoned (p. xxi). It is important to note that all planning is not absolute, because all consequences cannot be considered on the front end as rational comprehensive planning dictates, and even during the process external and internal factors can disrupt the initial planning efforts. In many cases, it was not that the plans were ill-conceived, but that factors presented along the way disrupted the prescribed courses of action.

In addition, it is important to note that the core principle of any planning process is the evaluative capability of the organization. In most processes, there is an end process-in theory--though it does not necessarily come at the end of the process but occurs in several points throughout, in reality. The organization reviews the process, evaluates its success and effectiveness or lack of, and then adjusts. This adjustment is in the cancellation or continuation, in the rejection or acceptance, or the modification of the innovation (Lindblom, 1959). Lindblom stated that those practitioners who intend to follow the bounded rationalism approach to achieving goals would expect only a partial fulfillment and, therefore, would be relegated to "repeat endlessly" a circular process as "conditions and aspirations changed and as accuracy of prediction improved" (p. 80).

The distinctive line is not only in the planning process, but also in the organization's receptiveness to feedback. Hall (1981) suggested that public sectors are, indeed, closed systems that produce much more than the public demands. If the approach of the public sector paralleled that of the private sector or the model of entrepreneurship,

then the organization would listen to customers' preferences as open systems do, because "the entrepreneur who makes a misjudgment faces losses and eventually bankruptcy (p. 189).

Hall (1981) drew a distinction between the production and consumption of products, including education, in the public and private sectors. Also, Hall defined those *collective goods*, products and services by three guidelines: (a) goods that cannot be marketed; (b) goods that must be provided publicly; and (c) goods provided because of concern with general quality (p. 188). Of these, public education falls into the second classification, and higher education is listed in the third. Though education is considered an open system, some companies, through their own unreceptiveness to feedback, can became a *closed system*, as described by Bertanlaffy (1968) in *Systems Theory*.

In conclusion, telling is Hall's (1981) introduction to *Great Planning Disasters*, where he discloses that he considered "arguing for a sophisticated muddling-through approach," after his analysis of the disasters, that he would refer to as *jointed incrementalism* or *mixed scanning* as created by Etzioni (as cited in Hall, 1981, p. xix). Hall advocated these methods theoretically because it would be a differing approach to how scanning is done traditionally and would take account of other non-quantifiable factors in the environment, such as including objectives to achieve social justice and to include risk avoidance. Also, Hall (1981) stated that in order to mitigate disasters in planning, such as those he detailed in his book, "There is no magic formula, no all-embracing model that will perform this miracle. At best, we are looking for piecemeal improvements that can be stitched together to provide some normative guidelines (p. 249).

Human Resources

The work force in colleges and universities are the lifeblood of the institution; therefore, the development and utilization of this important human capital is vital to the institution's survival. Yet, within organizations, if apathy and lack of concern are left to grow, the eventual effect is a deterioration of collegiality, the very bond of community that higher education purportedly seeks to encourage. According to Harrison and Brodeth (1999), understanding collegiality as an investment in the organization, the enlightened academic leader realizes that what is true of students is just as true of faculty and staff; they, too, are people in whom the university invests. However, many organizations continue to struggle for connectedness and a counter means against fragmentation that usually exists within the institution and its departments.

In Johnsrud (2002), the productivity of faculty and staff, coupled with the ability for the school to retain the most productive employees, is among the most important factors facing universities, and if administrators want to improve performance and retention, they have to be attuned to the needs of their employees. Johnsrud asserted, "Efforts to understand what matters to faculty and staff in their work lives are not an end in themselves; rather, these efforts are intended to provide the means to address issues that will enhance or improve attitudes related to desired behavioral outcomes" (p. 382). The difficulty in determining the quality of work life, and, ultimately, the attitudinal outcomes of job satisfaction and morale for the employees in any institution is a matter of perceptions, and perceptions are subjective. Johnsrud stated that it is not whether a situation is good or bad, but more so, how it is perceived to be that makes the difference. Herman and Gioia (1998) suggested that the core relationship of any organization is

between the company and its employees, and in order for an organization to remain successful in a changing labor market, the company must make the effort to change the relationships of employees, their work, and the organization, positively.

Abraham Maslow (1943) authored a paper, *A Theory of Human Motivation,* in which he illustrated levels of human needs through a pyramid in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs which also discusses man's need for esteem, and self-actualization. At the pinnacle of man's needs, at the highest point in the chart is man's drive to reach the fullest of his potential, the stage or level of self-actualization, theorized by some as unattainable. Maslow's Hierarchy is prepotent, meaning that one need must be satisfied before moving to the next level of need. According to Maslow (1943):

> Man is a perpetually wanting animal. Also no need or drive can be treated as if it were isolated or discrete; every drive is related to the state of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of other drives. (p. 56)

According to Maslow, basic needs must be met first; *physiological needs* such as the need for shelter, food, and those needs that bring about a homeostasis for the human body. This means that a human who is devoid of these basic needs will be motivated to fulfill these physiological needs rather than any other (Maslow). If these physiological needs are met, the next level of need can be pursued. The next level in the hierarchy is the need for safety. The need for love, esteem, and self-actualization appear at the top of the hierarchy, and can only be fully sought once the bottom levels are reasonably satisfied. Maslow further opined that self-esteem leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, and adequacy.

Employees seek working environments that are safe, healthy, productive, and most definitely, conducive for work. This environment includes providing equal

opportunities for every person. Some believe that the workplace should be a place where everyone has a role to play and a part in the success of the company, and that role is equally valued for those workers on the lower rungs of the ladder as it is for those workers on the top rungs of the organization's ladder (Herman & Goia, 1998).

The Principle of Benefit Maximization

The Principle of Benefit Maximization, also referred to as the theory of Utilitarianism or The Greatest Happiness Principle, created by Jeremy Bentham and John Stuart Mill, suggests that whenever an organization is faced with a choice, the decision that holds the most good, or the greatest benefit, for the most people is the most just decision. Strike, Haller, and Soltis (2005) stated, "If, for example, the production of happiness is thought to be a basic good, then the principle of benefit maximization indicates that we should make those decisions and engage in those actions that result in the greatest happiness for the greatest number" (p. 17).

In the workplace, happiness may not be the essential element that employers consider at the top of their lists as perks for their employees, but it would be in an employer's best interest to keep in mind that job satisfaction is an important element of work for employees, and job satisfaction is closely linked to retention and quality of work. Success, included in the definition of intrinsic goods, is a main component in the workplace for both the employees and employers. Just as the Principle of Benefit Maximization explains the perspective of keeping foremost in the mind, the whole, every individual is entitled to seek self-actualization and his or her own concept of what happiness is to him or her.

The Principle of Respect for Persons

The Principle of Respect for Persons, or The Principle of Equal Respect as it can also be referred to, necessitates that human beings are regarded as having intrinsic worth for the mere fact that they are humans, moral agents; it demands that they be treated accordingly. According to Strike, Haller, and Soltis (2005), The Golden Rule is at the very essence of this theory. The authors discussed the three subsidiary ideas germane to this principle: (a) humans are not just a means of getting goals accomplished for others, (b) humans are free moral agents with a right to freedom of choice; and (c) as moral agents, humans are of equal worth and entitled to equal opportunity.

First, the Principle of Equal Respect states that people should be considered *ends* rather than *means*. People should not just be used to fulfill goals, but their human capital should be valued. "People cannot be treated as though they were nothing more than instruments to serve our purposes" (p. 17). Reconciling this theory with the purpose of organizations could be challenging because of the nature of workplaces is to accomplish some purpose. According to Herman and Gioia (1998), an organization is a structured environment with a business purpose of creating wealth for the organization; it was not intended as a natural human social environment. "The foundation for building human relationships in such an environment is a mutual respect for what employees contribute to the organization and for the individuals themselves" (p. 24).

In organizations, it is true that people are employed to help fulfill the organization's goals, but it is also true that employees work in the workplace for their own motivations and goals. Herman and Gioia (1998) wrote:

> Today's worker is no longer willing to work in an authoritarian and dehumanizing environment. Workers want meaning in their work and balance in their lives.

> Given the amount of time people spend at work, they want opportunities to contribute and to know how their work contributes to the organization. They also want to be valued as individuals with goals and aspirations, not just replaceable drones in the hive. (p. 24)

Employees come with motivations and goals of their own, and they also come with varying sets of knowledge, skills and ability that can enhance the organization. Diversity in the workplace is met through individual uniqueness, and they should not be taken for granted, but instead treated with equal respect.

Second, Strike et al. (2005) stated that the central fact is, people are "free and rational moral agents," and, "It is important that people have the information and the education that will enable them to function responsibly as free moral agents" (p. 18). People have the right to make choices for themselves, whether others agree with those choices or not. However, of the utmost priority is enabling people to make their decisions responsibly by giving them the resources to do so through information and education.

Third, Strike et al. (2005) stated that everyone, every person, is entitled to equal opportunity, regardless of "native ability" (p. 18). "No one is entitled to act as though his or her happiness counted for more than the happiness of others…as persons, everyone has equal worth" (p. 18). The individual is at the crux of the discussion. The whole of the workplace is made up of individuals who all carry certain entitlements as humans. These rights and individuals' pursuits of happiness and success cannot be trampled on without consequences to the individual and to the whole.

Most employees want to be good at their job and to be competent. They also want to be acknowledged by their organizations and know their contemporaries as competent employees. According to Herman and Gioia (1998), research has shown that rather than just being present at work, workers want to make a meaningful contribution to their work.

Douglas McGregor (1957), known for his Theory of the X and Y employee characteristics in motivational theory, stated that employees have "ego needs." These *egoistic* needs are described by McGregor as having great significance to management and to man himself, and come in two kinds: (a) Those needs that relate to one's self-esteem – needs for status, for independence, for achievement, for competence, and for knowledge; and (b) those needs that relate to one's reputation - needs for status, for recognition, for appreciation, for the deserved respect of one's fellow man (1957, p. 44).

According to Strike et al. (2005), "The Principle of Equal Respect requires us to value the welfare of other people; that is, we must value their well-being equally to our own and equally to that of others" (p. 18). McGregor (1957) stated:

> Management cannot provide a man with self-respect, or with the respect of his fellows, or with the satisfaction of needs for self-fulfillment. It can create such conditions that he is encouraged and enabled to seek such satisfactions for himself, or it can thwart him by failing to create those conditions. (p. 45)

Understanding human needs under the Principle of Respect to Persons dictates that the organization plays an important role in fostering human relationships as well as developing human capital rather than to exploit people's circumstances for the accomplishment of the organization's goals. An employee's self-worth is more valuable than the role he or she plays in the workplace.

Organizational Culture in Higher Education

A paradox exists in collegial culture: autonomy and individuality, according to Bolman and Deal (2011), encumbers consensus and collaboration, which has a direct impact on an administrator's ability to lead. Because a culture of collaboration is vital to a department, ADCs must create an environment that values individual contribution, but also encourages collegiality. In academia, two factors are present in the worklife of a

leader: (a) internal issues in the department; and (b) the perceptions the faculty and staff hold of the ADC's role and influence (Bolman & Deal, 2011). "Both are informed by the strong collegial culture of the academy and by pervasive faculty scorn for bureaucracy, administrators, and hierarchy" (p. 150). According to Bolman and Deal (2011), faculty may try to limit the leader's role to "initiator of faculty governance and fountain of resources" and "benevolent administrators who offer minimal intrusion, maximum support, and unwavering promotion of freedom and individuality" (p. 152). The need for collegiality is paramount to accomplishing goals in the department.

The term *insistent individualism* was referred to by Bennett (2000) as he described the issue of isolation as a major problem in the academy and described the need to grow the *collegium*, a "closer-knit" academic community. Bennett stated that this use of the term refers to "inordinate, almost compulsive attachment of a good part of academic culture to excessive individualism" (p. 87). Bennett described the experiences of colleagues in his essay to illustrate the need for collegiums and categorized insistent individualism: (a) aggressive; an intellectual combat and confronting of others in order to advance or get their own way, and (b) passive; those who are offended by the behaviors of the aggressive types and therefore, choose to withdraw from participation rather than protesting. The first type uses their intellect and knowledge, wielding their use to exclude and distance rather than to welcome and include others into the collegium. Contradictory, not all are abrasive, according to Bennett.

Bennett (2000) added that the second types often become cynics of academics. The toll on the organization is big. These new *cynics* begin to seek isolation; resigning from committees and interactions with others as one way of avoiding vulnerability. The

real issue with this position of solitude is that it does not allow for them to "call the others to more responsible behaviors." Neither an aggressive or passive insistent individualism is healthy to an organization. In both instances, according to Bennett (2000), the individual does not seem to value the contributions of others.

Bennett (2000) stated that connection is a greater benefit and of more importance in academe than individuality:

> Sharing with and learning from each other are primary values. Competition is understood in terms of the value added and available to everyone. Others are viewed as bearers of intrinsic value that treated with respect can also enrich self. Anticipation of their enrichment is experienced as a present, personal good. (p. 90)

Harrison and Brodeth (1999) advocated that organizations take the perspective of creating a *renewed collegiality,* one that "tolerates intellectual diversity, encourages open debate and maintains ordinary human decencies in day-to-day working relations (p. 212).

Collegial institutions (Massy, 2010) place stronger emphasis on consensus, shared governance, and collective responsibilities. According to Massy, they are communities that de-emphasize differences in status and allow employees to "interact as equals." Mann (2008) stated, "Learning by nature is an emotionally and psychologically complex experience, requiring the combined psychic, emotional, intellectual and physical resilience of the learner" (p. 129). Mann further asserted that in higher education the process is a part of the larger environment of the institution and transforms the learner into the student.

"Colleges and universities pay a price for ignoring the quality of worklife experienced by members of their faculty and administrative staff" (Johnsrud, 2002, p. 393). Fischer (2009) stated that in academia, the "disintegration of community" is

particularly damaging. Fischer noted that negative interactions have five times the impact of one positive interaction, so the influence of destructive, abusive colleagues can be devastating to the health of the organization. Citing the work of Robert I. Sutton, "When people feel mistreated and dissatisfied with their jobs, they are unwilling to do extra work to help their organizations, to expend 'discretionary effort" (p. 23). Hershcovis (2011) reported major growth in research surrounding the area of mistreatment in the workplace over the last 15 years. In this meta-analytic research, Hershcovis supported research that the sources of aggressive or bullying behavior can come from several sources within higher education: students, other faculty, supervisors, and executive staff. Keashly (2010) suggested that the dynamics of the power relationship in the organizational structure of higher education institutions may be an underlying trigger of bullying by even supervisors and administrators. Keashley suggested that workplace aggression is an unfortunate part of the "academic landscape," and it can not only damage those people who are directly involved, but also the learning environment (p. 49). Hollis (2013) surveyed over 175 schools in higher education and calculated that an estimated 65% of employees in higher education have experienced workplace bullying compared to 45% in general population. According to Hollis, bullying is influenced by power, and those in the institution with the least amount of power are the members that are usually on the receiving end. As to why incidents may be higher in colleges and universities than other organizations, Hollis contended that people are expertly trained in their fields to do research and scholarship, and this can be isolating work; but, when faculty become administrators, they are now tasked with managing people, plus they are protected by

tenure, and maybe the culture supports isolation and even affirms ego; these can be suitable conditions for poor management skills.

The ways to combat or counter the incivility in organizations and to strengthen the idea of collegiality are many. Kleijnen, Dolmans, Muijtjens, Willems, and Van Hout (2009) asserted that the values of an organization are a powerful and stabilizing factor in the organizations performance and strategic success. Therefore, it stands to reason that if this is so, then among any organizations values should be addressing issues surrounding collegiality and dissolving any policy, person, or threat to its presence in an organization.

In a study conducted by Harrison and Brodeth (1999), which also created a framework for discussing collegiality and change, two themes recurred in the construct of collegiality: communication and collaboration. Massy (1994) also stated that the lack of communication is another barrier to collegiality, causing fragmentation and isolation in the workplace. Three key elements of constrained faculty relations in academia identified by Massy are described: (a) fragmented communication patterns that isolate faculty and keep them from interacting around educational issues of their students, (b) limited resources and opportunities cause strain on faculty relationships, and (c) the prevailing existence of evaluative methods and reward systems that "undermine attempts to create an environment more conducive to faculty interactions" (para 3). Harrison and Brodeth (1999) proposed that one of the key principles for improvement in academia is "building a climate of trust and resilience in collegial relations" (p. 203). Though much is known about the effects of lack of collegiality in academia, the underlying causes are often also known, but do not lend much to its resolution.

Fischer (2009) reasoned that department chairs and administrators can take additional steps to foster collegiality in their departments by modeling professional treatment of others, planning social events and lunches with colleagues, and by being deliberate in the ways information is shared among colleagues. Fischer also believed that setting forums for faculty members to discuss their research is a good way to encourage decision-making and debate in a structured and conducive setting for such collaboration. Fischer added, "It can be harder to demonize people you eat lunch with or see at a reception with their children" (p. 24). Bennett (2000) stressed the importance of the collegiality, and stated that a collegial ethic of hospitability is a cardinal academic virtue. Further, "Hospitality can inform our academic work, and we can seek to develop hospitable teaching, hospitable scholarship, and hospitable service" (Bennett, 2000, p. 85). One way of countering and developing a culture that promotes collegiality is by enacting a zero-tolerance policy. Bartlett et al. (2008) stated that it is the organization's responsibility to enact policies and a culture that strongly dissuades individuals from instigating workplace incivility, indeed it is the organization's responsibility to create a culture where this misbehavior is isolated rather than victimizing the targets through isolation.

Furthermore, Bartlett et al. (2008) suggested that one way to inform and counter workplace incivility is to conduct workshops on incivility, just as organizations do for sexual harassment. These workshops, Bartlett stated, would be designed for the instigator as well, because it could help him or her to resolve the deeper issues that enabled the behavior, thereby decreasing the number of incidents. "For example, a workshop helping employees dealing with the increased pressure of productivity caused by downsizing or a

seminar on proper asynchronous communication might help reduce workplace incivility" (Bartlett et al., 2008, p. 93).

Huffman (2000) made a case for dissolving the isolation that adjunct faculty might feel when teaching at a university as a part-time faculty member by recommending mentorship relationships. Huffman went further by stating it is imperative in educational environments to remove all traces of hierarchy in titles (i.e. new hires, full-timers, protégées, mentee, and tutee. Huffman called for adoption of a non-hierarchical and egalitarian structure for such a program (p. 115). Massy (2010) identified three areas where collegiality was prevalent in the universities in the study that could be modeled as a means for developing a stronger sense of community at other institutions: (a) sharing of research findings, (b) decision-making about promotion and tenure, and (c) decision-making about course offerings and assignments.

Though the research on administrative staff is lacking (Duggan, 2008; Gibson-Harmon, 2001; Johnsrud, 2002), the information available on faculty, deans, and higher level faculty members is plentiful. Further research can be done on those noninstructional staff members in the institution and their perceptions on collegiality, particularly as it relates to their job satisfaction. Collegiality, according to the research, has a collaborative place in higher education and those stressors that seem to threaten it are plentiful. Of those, decreased funding and a lack of resources, increased competition, specialization of areas, and growing workloads and committee responsibilities are not lessening any time in the near future. It is up to the institutions and those in decision-making positions to make collegiality a priority and, then, to ensure that every member of the organization protects its growth.

Collegiality has its benefits, and the threats against it must be addressed by the university. Fischer (2009) advocated for fostering an atmosphere of compassion instead of intimidation pays off in attracting and retaining exceptional talent, enabling the free exchange of ideas, and inspiring a greater willingness on everyone's part to try new things and take chances without fear of ridicule.

According to Hecht et al. (1999), ADCs have position power because of the title they hold, and may have influence on faculty members in their own departments, as well as on people in and outside of the college over whom they have no jurisdiction or authority. Many chairs do not feel that they have sufficient power or authority in their organizations to perform the responsibilities of their departments (King, 1997; Smith, 2004; Tucker, 1984). Moreover, as institutions continue to expand and create more departments of sub-specialties, paradoxically the need for departmental structure and unit independence becomes more important (King, 1997).

There are three levels of power, and they can be positive or negative. Of the three levels, the "two faces of power" are: (a) an actor who makes another actor do what he or she does not want to do, and (b) an actor who keeps an actor from doing things that he or she wants to do. The third face is an actor who creates and maintains a social structure in which other actors cannot even imagine taking action to pursue their own interests.

French and Raven's Five Types of Power

The bases of social power, as distinguished by French and Raven (1959) described five types of powers: *reward, coercive, legitimate, referent,* and *expert*. In

addition to the five sources of power described by French and Raven, are an additional two powers identified Bass in his taxonomy: *information* and *ecological*.

The ability to provide rewards, of any type, for desired behaviors and outcomes is *reward power*. The ability to provide rewards rather than just to make promises one cannot fulfill can strengthen the perception of the influencer's power, whereas an inability to follow through can decrease the influencer's social control (French & Raven, 1959).

Coercive power is the ability of the influencer to manipulate behaviors and to exercise control through the threat of punishment. The magnitude of the level of punishment determines the strength of the power. Conformity is often achieved through the probability of punishment or "coercion." Reward and coercive power are similar, but the dynamics are different, according to French and Raven (1959). For instance, is the withholding of a reward the same as a punishment? The situation at hand and the importance, or valence, of the reward or punishment is paramount to answering this question.

Authority given to an employee through a job title or position is a characteristic of *legitimate power*. More precisely, it is the perception that a person has the legitimate right to prescribe behaviors for another person (French & Raven, 1959).

Referent power is power that emanates from a respect for a person's character. According to Raven and French (1959), an attraction to, and a sense of "oneness" is derived from a person with referent power. This type of power should not be mistaken with the power for reward and punishment because this power emanates from the person holding it (French & Raven, 1959).

Additionally, *expert power,* originates from the knowledge, skills and abilities or the perception that one holds special knowledge (French & Raven, 1959). In organizations, people often yield to the person with expertise in specialized areas.

Bernard Bass's Taxonomy

Controlling information, *information power*, is another type of power. In organizations, information is needed to make decisions, and having the ability to withhold information from, or even to give information to, the person who needs it, gives the wielder a part in influencing outcomes.

Ecological power is an additional power dynamic to those defined by Raven and French (1958). Ecological power, as described by Bass (1990), concerns a power that emanates from controlling space; moreover, it is the ability to control the physical environment. For instance, the person in control of office space and allocation of space for programs is said to have ecological power. By controlling the surroundings, one can have a physical and psychological affect on a person. In organizations where space is often limited or the person with the biggest title gets the biggest office, this is a strong power to possess.

Chairs must use all the power sources they possess, and, according to Hecht et al. (1999), chairs possess position power, personal power, and leadership power. Seagren (1993) stated that higher education is largely in an open political system, and a number of internal and external constituencies influence decision-making in the department. Seagren wrote that chairs must use two primary sources of power: the authority given to them in a formal job description and the informal influence they gain from personal

characteristics such as their expertise, charisma, and the ability to capitalize on opportunity. The author also stated that ADCs must skillfully learn and use "push, pull, persuasion, preventative, and preparatory" strategies and tactics such as "impression management, agenda setting, networking, and negotiation" to effectively manage a department (p. 3).

Leadership Orientation Research

In a study of 132 division deans who responded from 58 institutions of the North Carolina Community College System, Sypawka (2008) found the human resources frame was the most prevalent leadership frame. Sypawka added that the Structural Frame was paired with the Human Resources Frame in the results of the study. Sypawka also found through statistical analysis that there was no significance in the dean's leadership frames by educational level, prior business experience outside of education, or number of years as a dean. Gender was not a variable in Sypawka's study. One of the implications of Sypawka's study was that it would help to facilitate deans in incorporating the Symbolic and Political Frames into their leadership style and behaviors.

Welch (2002), in a mixed-methods study of female presidents in four-year public, research institutions within the United States, also found that human resources was the predominant leadership orientation frame, followed by symbolic, structural, and political frames. The 13 participants who responded to Welch from among the 30 she sent surveys, were all White female presidents of public research universities, who were all over 51 years of age, with the average age being 56 years old. However, contrary to Sypawka's study, Welch found that of the 13 of the 30 female presidents who had 20 or

more years of experience were more likely to prefer the human resource or symbolic frame. Also, Welch (2002) found that all 13 respondents had administrative experience that ranged from 10 years to 30 years, but she also found that an increase in administrative experience did not result in the use of a greater number of leadership frames. Additionally, 12 participants reported that they considered themselves to be in the top 20% as an effective leader, and 11 reported being in the top 20% as effective managers. Only one president identified herself as being in the middle 20% as an effective leader.

Major findings of a study of chief development officers (CDOs) at doctoral research universities in the United States found that the human resources frame was the frame preferred by CDOs, and that most CDOs did not use multiple frames (Kotti, 2008). One difference noted in Kotti's research was that contrary to the findings of many studies on leadership frames where Human Resources is the preferred framed, followed by Structural as the secondary preference, CDOs in Kotti's study, as in Welch's 1992 study, chose the Symbolic Frame as their second preference. Kotti suggested that this discovery is encouraging, and that the responsibilities of the job which include a "hyper-competitive environment" and heavy fundraising could be the source of the difference (p. 108). Kotti also found that personal and institutional demographics did not relate to statistical differences in leadership frame, but this research did give a demographic portrait of CDOs; in general, they were older White males, and at least one-third will be at retirement within 5 to10 years.

Probst (2011) questioned if community college administrators, deans, department chairs and chief academic officers, participation in a leadership program would have a

significant effect on the preferred Bolman and Deal leadership frame. The study found that no significance between the types of administrators existed for the first and second leadership frame preferences. The researcher also looked at those who participated and those who did not participate in a leadership program to see if a significant difference existed between the groups regarding the preferred leadership frames. Of the 130 survey responses, 72 academic department chairs responded. The results showed that the order of preferences for the chairs was Human Resource Frame, Structural, Symbolic, and Political.

Palestini (1999) conducted a study using the Bolman and Deal (1991) survey instrument used in this dissertation study to determine which frame was the most commonly used among a random sample of continuing education deans and directors of colleges, and also deans of traditionally-aged undergraduate students. The study included a comparison of frames according to the position of the respondent, the type of institution, student enrollment numbers, gender, and also years of experience in their current position.

In that study, 56 college continuing education deans and directors responded to his survey of 100, and 58 deans of traditionally-aged students responded to his survey of 100. Of these two groups, the sample size was 114 continuing education administrators and traditional-aged program deans. The continuing education administrators consisted of 30 females and 26 males. The group of deans was comprised of 30 females and 28 males. Palestini found that the preferred leadership frame of both groups, regardless of demographic variables, was the Human Resource Frame.

The Palestini (1999) study also found that across all groups, the least used frame was the political frame. There were no significant differences between the continuing education administrators and the traditionally-aged program deans regarding either variable of student enrollment size or number of years that they held their current position. However, gender was the variable that yielded a difference in leadership frame and behaviors. Male continuing education administrators and who work in traditionally-aged programs as deans described themselves as using the Structural and Political Frames significantly more than females in this study. The females in both categories reported using the Symbolic Frame more than males in the study.

Palestini (1999) concluded about his findings, "Administrators would do well to be aware that leadership tendencies can be affected by position and gender and that their reflexive or instinctive leadership behavior may not be appropriate in a given situation" (p. 36). Palestini added that females should be cognizant that they have a tendency to heavily rely on human resources and the symbolic frame more often than males in the same positions, and removing themselves "from their paradigm" by using the structural and political frames where appropriate can aid in their effectiveness (p. 37).

For instance, the author of the study suggested that the leadership frame should coincide with the situation at hand; if an analytical approach is necessary, then the leader should employ the Structural Frame. However, if the situation calls for a more sensitive approach, then the leader should use the human resource frame. In addition, if a "statement" needed to be made to the followers, then the symbolic frame might be more appropriate (Palestini, 1999, p. 37).

Additionally, according to Palestini (1999), if the situation calls for a negotiation or compromise, then the leader should consider using the Political Frame. Appendix A lists important findings of research included in this section on leadership orientations and the impact of those independent variables included in the research questions for this study.

Demographic Variables and Leadership

This study looked at the gender, racial identification, age, and years in current position demographics of UCEA department chairs. Earlier research painted a picture of the characteristics of the department chair, and although the data may have been dated, much has not changed according to Carroll and Wolverton (2004). Carroll (1991) reported in a comprehensive, national study that the demographic of chairs at that time were approximately 96% White, 3% Asian, and only 1% Black. Carroll's study suggested that chairs were roughly, on average, around 46 years old and women chairs tended to be on average around 44 years of age, slightly younger than their male counterparts. Carroll also found that about 10% of chairs were women, and that the women were less likely to be full professors when they start the position or have been a full professor for a short time (Carroll & Wolverton, 2004).

Johnson and Aderman (1979) asked the question: "Are certain dimensions of leadership style reliably related to personal history information?" (p. 244). Leadership styles may be influenced by many variables, including gender, age, socio-economic status and background, educational level, even the birth order; yet, according to Johnson and Aderman (1979), at the time of their study, a limited number of studies have focused on the relationship between leadership style and personal history variables. The researchers

set out to investigate this relationship by surveying 200 adult males about a broad range of personal variables. Johnson and Aderman then compared the data they collected to previous studies that employed different measures and instruments to determine if their hypotheses held up to cross-validation.

In the Johnson and Aderman (1979) study, they utilized 200 adult males who had been previously tested by the Organization Psychologists' consultant firm of Hume, Mansfield, and Silber for promotion or job selection between the years of 1971 and 1974. The subjects ranged in age from 19 to 57, with a mean age of 36.9 years of age. They varied in educational level with 9 men having less than a high school education and 25 having an advanced degree, and the majority having at least some college. The occupational levels were determined by the number of people they supervised and how they described their job. Of the sample, 62 were classified as production level, 48 were at the supervisory level, and 90 of them were at the managerial level. The researchers used a Personal Background Information Questionnaire to determine the demographics, and the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) to measure the leadership dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration. The results of the study showed that when the group of men were divided into two age groups, under 40 and those over 40 years of age, differences in the mean score on the LOQ were not significant. Johnson and Aderman (1979) stated:

> Leadership style is neither unidimensional nor static. Nonetheless, an understanding of its relationship to personal history factors would be useful. If such a relationship does exist, then it must be taken into consideration when discussing contingency theories of leadership. If leadership style is related to environmental background parameters, perhaps careful selection of supervisors to fit the organizational climate and situation would be more effective than generalized supervisory training programs. (p. 250)

The researchers advocated that personal history and characteristics be a viable area to continue to research in the future.

Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin, and Marx (2007) examined the relationship of gender, age, and education to leadership styles and leaders' influence tactics. The study was conducted utilizing 56 leaders and 234 followers from a various organizations using the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to determine leadership behavior and Yukl's Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ) to measure Influence tactics. The Full Range Leadership model encompasses laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational leadership behaviors. The results showed that the independent variable, gender, did show a small direct relationship to leadership behaviors, and when coupled with education, the two variables produced "consistent differences in leadership behaviors" (p. 71).

Gender

According to Barbuto et. al (2007), gender and its effects on leadership is one of the most researched independent variables of the three: gender, age, and education. Barbuto cited the works of I.K. Broverman, Vogel, D.M. Broverman, Clarkson, and Rosenkrantz, (1972); Cann and Siegfried, (1990); Schein, (1973); Schein, Mueller, and Jacobson, (1989); and Eagly and Johnson (1990), among other gender and leadership studies. The results of most of these studies were mixed. However, in Barbuto et al.'s (2007) study, the researchers found that gender had no significant effects on ratings of transactional and/or transformational leadership behaviors in their study. They did find that gender had a significant effect on influence tactics, indicating that "women were rated as using significantly more pressure tactics, than men" in the study (p. 80). Barbuto et al. believed that it is important to continue to research the effects of gender on

leadership because if the sexes are to be valued equally as leaders than it is important to understand the impact of gender on the leaders' behaviors, and the perceptions of workers of the leader's gender.

Bolman and Deal (1992) examined the relationship between management and leadership for 130 principals and school administrators in the United States and 274 (mostly principals) in Singapore. They posited that what happened in the U.S. may not always work outside of the nation's borders, mainly in Singapore. Their study indicated that the effects of gender of those in comparable positions are very similar to each other; however, the patterns of success in management and leadership are different. The mixed-methods study they conducted hypothesized two things: (a) the capacity to reframe situations is critical to success to both managers and leaders; and (b) leadership is contextual, meaning that the thinking should be dependent on the situation. The study included principals from Broward County, Florida, and a sample of principals from the Republic of Singapore. The results showed that leaders use more than two frames and very rarely do they use four. In Florida, the predominant leadership frame was Human Resource. The second U.S. preference in this study was Structural.

In Singapore, administrators were more likely to articulate Structural preferences, followed by Human Resource, Political, and then Symbolic. The study did not support stereotypes of gender, but showed that men and women in similar positions were not very different from each other (Bolman & Deal, 1992).

Jahanshahi (1992), in a national dissertation study of self-perceived leadership styles of female academic department chairs at doctoral granting institutions, included data collected from 89 female respondents from private and public institutions as

classified by Carnegie classifications through the Leadership Behavior Analysis II instrument, which was developed by Kenneth Blanchard in 1985. Jahanshahi's study found that the dominant, preferred leadership style using Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership model (1987) was reported as S3 – *Participating* (High Supportive and Low Directive). Participative leaders shared characteristics such as sharing ideas and facilitating decision-making, providing support and encouragement, involving employees in work discussions, facilitating employees' interactions with each other, seeking opinions from others and listening to their concerns, and recognizing the accomplishments of others (Jahanshahi, 1992). This dissertation also explored a broad range of variables such as age, racial identification, marital status, number of years in current position as chair, and other career demographics, as well as, personal history characteristics of its female sample population.

Al-Omari (2005) found similar results to Jahanshahi's 1992 study of leadership styles. Al-Omari (2005) found in a study of college deans and department chairs at three doctoral research universities in the northwest region of the United States that a significant difference was found between males and females regarding styles within the Situational Leadership model by Terrance and Blanchard (1970). Al-Omari's results showed that of the 63 department chairs surveyed, 50 men and 13 women chairs, their primary style of leadership using the Situational Leadership model was *selling* (high task/high relationship behavior). The second preferred leadership style in Al-Omari's study was *participating* (low task/high relationship behavior). Al-Omari also found that the men department chairs differed significantly from women chairs in the *telling* (high task/low relationship behavior) and *delegating* (low task/low relationship behavior)

styles, but women chairs in this study were more apt to describe themselves as more of the *participating* style.

In 1989, a study on the leadership styles of women was funded by the International Women's Forum (IWF) and conducted by Judy B. Rosener (1990), a faculty member at the Graduate School of Management at the University of California, Irvine. IWF was founded in 1982 to provide a diverse forum of women leaders, globally, a way to share their practices and lessons learned. The organization has 37 forums in North America, Europe, Asia, Latin America, and the Middle East. The instrument, an eight-page questionnaire, was sent to all the IWF members. This quantitative design started with IWF member respondents being asked to supply the name of a male contemporary in a comparable position and organization. The men also received the same questionnaire supplied to the women of IWF. All respondents were similar in age, occupation, and educational level for homogeneity. The researcher reported only a 31% response rate, and did not include the total number of population or respondents sampled.

The survey consisted of questions asking respondents about their leadership styles, their organizations, work-family issues, and personal characteristics. Several key findings that Rosener (1990) said contradicted data reported in scholarly journals and more popular media were discovered concerning leadership styles of women and how leadership styles of men may not be the only prescribed ways of leading. Among the many findings were that: (a) women are more likely than men to use transformational leadership, motivating others through linking their personal motivations with the goals of the organization; (b) more so than their male counterparts, the preferred power base of women is the use of personal charisma [referent] versus power emanating from authority,

from the organization [legitimate], or the ability to reward and punish [coercive]; and (c) those women who self-reported themselves as "feminine" and "gender-neutral" reported a higher level of followership among their female employees than women who described themselves as "masculine." Other findings in this study related to comparing the salaries of the men and women, as well as the impact of home life on leadership of the respondents.

According to Rosener (1990), women lead through encouraging participation, sharing power and information, contributing to the enhancement of employees' self-worth and getting them excited about their work. Rosener labeled this type of view as "interactive leadership," and it is a contrast to the traditional "command-and-control" style often thought to be used by men in leadership positions.

In fact, Rosener (1990) discussed a distinction for how men and women self-report their leadership styles as parallels to transactional and transformational leadership, respectively. "The men are also more likely to use power that comes from their organizational position and formal authority" (p. 120). Adequate leadership training for academic department chairs can better equip them for the responsibilities of the position.

Thompson (2000) conducted a study to determine if differences existed between genders when measuring perceived effectiveness through their subordinates' responses, and the leaders "balanced" or "unbalanced" orientations of leadership and leadership characteristics. The self-ratings of 57 leaders (31 males and 26 females) and the ratings of those leaders by 472 of their subordinates (234 males and 238 females) for lower to upper management levels in secondary and post secondary institutions were compared in the study. The findings of this study suggested that any differences in perceived effectiveness

between the groups were equally true for males and females in the leadership roles, breaking the stereotypic connotations of previous research regarding gender differences. Also, no significant differences were found between the genders in leadership characteristics. Sixty percent of the participants in Thompson's study are African American and 1/3 of them are educational leaders. This leads into our discussion of the independent variable of race in leadership.

Racial/Ethnic Identification

As reported by the National Center for Education Statistics (2011), the total number of people whose primary occupation was classified as executive, administrative, or managerial employees at degree-granting institutions in the United States in 2009 was estimated at 230,579. Of the 230,579 administrators, Whites comprised 79%, Blacks .09%, and Hispanics .05%. Asian/Pacific Islanders were estimated at .03% in the role of administration in higher education. These percentages for those classified as administrators are slightly higher than for those classified as faculty in higher education.

The report showed that 1,439,144 people were classified as "faculty (instructional/research/public service)." White faculty was estimated to be 1,078,392, accounting for 75% of the total. Further analysis showed minorities were estimated to be about 17% of the total of faculty members in the U.S. The data reported by the National Center is shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Employees in U.S. Degree-granting Institutions, by Race/Ethnicity: Fall 2009

Race/Ethnicity	Administrator	Percent	Faculty	Percent
White	182,459	79%	1,078,392	75%
Black	21,828	9%	95,095	7%
Hispanic	11,486	5%	57,811	4%
Asian/ Pacific Islander	7,782	3%	86,308	6%
American Indian/ Alaska Native	1,288	1%	7,074	0%
Total:	230,579	100%	1,439,144	100%

Hecht (2004) stated that race is another variable that shapes the human dimensions of academic departments, and that although the numbers of people of color are not proportional to the presence of African Americans and other minorities to the general population, the numbers are increasing. Hecht stated that the number of people of color increased in the faculty ranks with the Civil Rights Movement, just as much as the G.I. Bill opened higher education beyond the "old social elites" (p. 30).

Rusch (2004) pointed out that creating equal opportunities in educational leadership programs must start with faculty moving beyond rhetoric and having real discourse about race and gender in their programs. Rusch examined the degree to which faculty perceptions of gender and race discourse permeated the formal education of practicing school leaders and the aspiring, in educational leadership programs of UCEA-affiliated institutions. According to Rusch, workplace demographics and its complex shifts impact educational leaders, and creating equal opportunities for uneven racial and ethnic populations within the United States starts with understanding these complexities.

Rusch cited a 1995 study by Scheurich and Laible of a UCEA Knowledge Base project. From her review of this work she posited: “The intention of this study was to determine if the profession had made progress in educating leaders who understand equitable practices in schools” (p. 16).

Rusch (2004) created a forced-choice questionnaire from the findings of earlier qualitative work on this subject. The questions asked participants to use a Likert-scale to indicate their personal value for each item and also to rate frequency. Participants were also given three open-ended questions that asked about supports and barriers in the past five years of the time of the survey. Rusch also collected demographic information, including gender, age range, current rank, race/ethnicity, and program affiliation. The study was focused on educational leadership faculty at UCEA-affiliated institutions because of the organizations intent to improve leadership preparation programs. The data for this study were collected between 2000 -2001, and Rusch received 234 responses from 778 surveys sent to faculty of educational leadership programs at 58 of the 61 UCEA institutions, at the time of the survey, for a return rate of 30%. The findings indicated a significant difference in self-perceived degrees of talk with the programs about gender and race leadership issues between men and women. Rusch found that whereas women perceived that gender and race discussions about leadership occurred half as often as men, twice as many men responded that discussions on race and gender occurred frequently and the experience was generally “open, problem-solving, and involving most of the faculty” (p. 28). Interestingly, Rusch stated more women than the men described the discussions on this topic as “contentious and uncomfortable” (p. 28).

In addition, Rusch (2004) reported that a larger percentage of women than men reported that the "discussions never happened at all" (p. 27). Some comments about the open-ended prompts included: "There is more talk than substance to any claims made by our department with respect to diversity issues." Rusch stated that one writer used the term "lip service" in response (p. 27). Another comment from a respondent in Rusch's results stated, "…in written mission, but not much apparent [in practice]" (p. 27).

Age

Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin, and Marx (2007) stated that although the demographic variable of gender has been used in many studies to predict many behaviors, including leadership effectiveness, few researches have examined the relationship between leadership and age. In their study of age and its effects on leadership styles and influence tactics, the researchers found that the relationship of the leader's age to followers' ratings of transactional and/or transformational leadership style was significant. The age groups studied were identified as 22-35; 36-45; and 46 and over, and the 46 years of age and over group rated the highest for transformational leadership, as well as for the subscales of the study in *idealized influence*, *intellectual stimulation*, *individualized consideration*, and *effectiveness* (p. 80). Contrarily, unlike the variable of the leader's gender, the results showed that the variable of age did not have a significant relationship to raters' perceptions of influence tactics used by the leader.

Mills (2006) of Oklahoma City University conducted a study addressing a phenomenon introduced by psychologist Carl Jung in 1977, known as "second half of life" and its relationship to university administrators (p. 294). Interestingly, Mills used the creator of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Abraham Maslow, as the subject and focus

of a case study of this phenomenon. Mills cited the journal entries of Maslow which chronicled his growing dissatisfaction with his success; by the time he was 51 years old, his dissatisfaction in his position as chair of the psychology department at Brandeis University. According to Mills (2006), many administrators and those with ambitions toward a post in higher education, are 40 years of age or older and are in what is considered the *second half of life*. With this phase of life, in addition to physical changes, psychological changes are occurring which can have a significant impact on administrators' work, and particularly their leadership styles (Mills, 2006). Mills (2006) described a transitional phase, in which administrators may begin moving from a mode where they pursued success in higher education leadership, to a mode where they begin to pursue significance in life and work.

The first half of life, according to Jung in his 1977 work titled "The Soul and Death," concerns personality development, learning to adapt to the world, as well as with establishing relationships, attaining education, building a career, and creating a family and children; but, this stage ends around the age of 40 (cited in Mills, 2006). Mills stated that although Jung's work discussed the first half of life being a time to focus on the external and the second half of life being the stage where most people begin to turn inwards to find meaning and fulfillment, most scholars including Jung, addressed this transformative stage from a male perspective. Although physical changes in men can cause a decrease in hormonal production, which could lead to loss of competitive edge as ambition and drive also drop, Mills (2006) suggested that because women also undergo similar psychological and physical changes as men, work on this subject is applicable to both sexes. She stated, "In this process of change, one's basic sense of centeredness in his

or her vocation may be lost" (p. 295). Additionally, according to Pink (2005), as administrators age, the emphasis may shift to those things they neglected as they worked to build wealth, careers, and family. They now may turn to intrinsic motivations, finding meaning and purpose in life (Pink, 2005). "In other words, as individuals age, they place greater emphasis in their own lives on qualities they may have neglected in the rush to build careers and build families: purpose, intrinsic motivation, and meaning" (Pink, 2005, p. 60). Furthermore, according to Pink:

> Baby boomers are entering the Conceptual Age with an eye on their own chronological age. They recognize that they now have more of their lives behind them than ahead of them. And such indisputable arithmetic can concentrate the mind. After decades of pursuing riches, wealth seems less alluring. For them, and for many others in this new era, meaning is the new money. (p. 61)

Consequently, Mills (2006) stated that many faculty members who move into higher administration may be doing so to find the success that escaped them in the earlier half of life, but moving into a new position might lead to more frustration as this new level brings more success but not necessarily more fulfillment through finding significance. According to Mills (2006), "Like Maslow, it is likely administrators in higher education are often close to or already have entered the mid-life/second half portion of their existence when they find themselves in a dean or chair position" (p. 301). Just as Maslow was faced with three professional paths he could take, so, too, will other administrators face these options: (a) seek more success, and continue to try to reach new levels; or (b) retire and grow bitter because a new way of finding significance in the vocation was not sought; or (c) change emphasis and seek new meaning (Mills, 2006).

Mills (2006) stated that seeking to become a servant leader while carrying out the responsibilities of the job could help university administrators shift from being interested

only in success to seeking deeper meaning in their work and in the institutions they serve (Mills, 2006). In addition, Mills suggested that these types of leaders are valuable mentors and helpful in conflict resolution. However, it would be a mistake to believe that chronological age is a determinant of productivity, for according to Brower and Balch (2005):

> Beyond individual beliefs, one thing is clear about human nature: We do not age on the inside, where our souls reside. Transformational leaders recognize that age does not change the soul of a person. The soul is a place where our values, beliefs, and faiths reside. The soul provides the values-laden portion of teaching learning, and leading; from the soul emanates the heart of education. (p. 56)

Wisdom and experience come with a workforce in which a large number of administrators in higher education are in their forties or older, and, according to Brower & Balch (2005), these leaders are chronologically older but young in their souls and can continue to make significant contributions through productivity and commitment.

Years in Chair Position

According to Wolverton (2004), faculty who find themselves in the chair position during mid-career tend to see their administrative position as temporary, and they are most often motivated by a desire to help the department to grow. They will stay in the position on average for two three-year terms before returning to the faculty at the end of the second term.

Also, according to Carroll and Wolverton (2004), the mechanism by which a chair is chosen has shown a relationship to the tenure of the chair. For example, of two hiring systems, faculty-oriented and administratively-oriented, chairs elected by faculty remained in the position on average 6.15 years, and those hired in administratively-

oriented systems remained almost three-fourths of a year longer in the position (Carroll, 1991). For instance, in faculty-oriented hiring systems, or rather elected, chairs remained an average of 6.15 years; chairs hired in administratively-oriented systems – appointed – remained almost three-fourths of a year longer in position (Carroll & Wolverton, 2004). Moreover, they found that female chairs were often hired through the administratively-oriented system.

According to Hecht et al. (1999), the terms of ADCs vary depending on how they are chosen; appointments are usually indefinite, whereas internally selected chairs may serve a fixed term. Terms in general may be three to five years, with stipulations for renewal. Carroll and Wolverton (2004) found that tenured chairs were consistent across disciplines and faculty size, and that there was a relationship to the length of time the chairs remained in position and how the chair was hired. Hecht et al. (1999) stated that often departments construct their own guidelines for the time limit and term renewal.

In addition, according to Hecht et al., the term of the ADC can have an influence on faculty and staff perceptions of the chair. For instance, chairs who are appointed for an indefinite length of time may see themselves as the designated leader of the department, and may assume they have the power and authority to carry out specific responsibilities (Hecht et al., 1999). Contrarily, Hecht et al. also stated that those chairs who see themselves as only a temporary manager and who know they will eventually return among the ranks of the faculty may prioritize cultivating their collegial relationships for when that time comes. The challenge for these chairs might be in their hesitance to become involved in sensitive issues affecting their incumbents or engaging in activities with long-term time implications. Hecht et al. (1999) advocated that one way of

countering this attitudinal challenge would be to institute a policy whereby the ADC serves at least two consecutive three-year terms or a renewable five-year term, because these lengths may move a chair beyond "learning-the-ropes" and to a more confident phase of their leadership ability (p. 7).

Research by Bensimone (1990) found in a study of college presidents that those who were less experienced in their roles tended to rely on the structural or human resources frame, even that they tended to overrate their use of the human resource frame, but they were also more likely to be judged ineffective leaders. This research also showed that the more inexperienced the administrator, the more they are likely to use a single-frame perspective in situations. Again, this single-mindedness was likely to render them described as ineffective by their subordinates (Bensimone, 1990). This is problematic for new chairs because Bolman and Deal (1992) found that the structural frame was associated with effectiveness as a manager, and more effective leaders tended to be correlated with the symbolic and political frames.

Al-Omari (2005) determined in a dissertation on leadership styles and style adaptability of deans and department chairs at three public doctoral research universities that, based upon deans' and chairs' own perceptions of their leadership styles, department chairs are impacted by demographic factors such as the chairs' years of experience in their current position. This research also determined that a significant difference exists on The Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD), a measure of leadership styles, between the leadership styles of department chairs based on their years of experience in their current position in the area of *participating*. *Participating*, is one style in the Situational Leadership model created by Hersey and Blanchard (1982), the

framework for this dissertation. This style of *participating* is based on "above average amounts of relationship behavior and below-average amounts of task behavior" of the leader (p. 10).

Summary

This chapter contained a discussion of the complexity of organization, the role and work of academic department chairs. In addition, the chapter contained a discussion of the leadership orientations according to Bolman and Deal's four-frame theory. Also included were discussions of how management and leadership differ, and the role decision-making, ethics and power play in organizations. Last, a discussion of the personal and professional demographics at the center of this study was also included. Chapter Three contains the methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The intent of this chapter is to explain the research design used to determine the Bolman and Deal predominate leadership frame preferred by academic department chairs of educational leadership/administration programs at colleges and universities that are member institutions of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA). The first section of this chapter includes an explanation of the research questions that was used to guide this study. A demographic description and overview of the selection process used for the participants selected for this study is contained in the second section of this chapter, as well as a description of UCEA and its membership requirements. The third section of the chapter contains an explanation of the research design, instrumentation, and the data collection procedures used in the study.

Research Questions

Quantitative research methodology was used to analyze each research question as follows:

1. Which leadership frames established by Bolman and Deal are the most frequently used by academic department chairs (ADCs) of Educational Leadership and Educational Administration programs at University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) member institutions?

2. How does the utilization of Bolman and Deal's leadership frames by academic department chairs in Educational Leadership and Educational Administration programs at University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) member institutions vary by the ADCs' gender, age, racial/ethnic identification, and years of experience in their current chair position?

Research Design

Creswell (2003) stated that a research problem needs to be addressed and a quantitative approach is best if "the problem is identifying factors that influence an outcome, the utility of an intervention, or understanding the best predictors of outcomes" (p. 21). In quantitative research, a research problem is identified based on trends in the field or the need to explain why something occurs; however, some quantitative research problems require that an explanation be given about how variables affect each other (Cresswell, 2012).

According to Cresswell (2012) researchers use survey design for studies where trends are to be described or where individual attitudes and opinions need to be determined. Furthermore, cross-sectional survey designs, like this dissertation study, are a snapshot in time, and have the advantage of measuring current attitudes, opinions, policies, and practices.

Instrumentation

Data for this study were collected through the use of an existing survey instrument titled *Leadership Orientations Survey (Self)*©, designed by Lee G. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal (1991) (Appendix B). Lee Bolman wrote on his Web site that he and

"Terry" Deal developed this survey instrument to measure individuals' orientations toward leading through each of the four frames (structural, human resource, political and symbolic) they originally developed in the late 1970s and early 1980s. This instrument is copyrighted and is available through the Web site of Lee Bolman (www.leebolman.com). A letter granting the researcher permission to use the survey is included in Appendix C. Additional questions relating to the institutional and personal demographics of each of the respondents were generated from the research and included in the survey instrument with the authors' permission.

The theoretical foundation of this research was based on four leadership frames established by Bolman and Deal. This instrument has been used in research studies related to leadership orientations in higher education, including: Chang, (2004); Crist, (1999); Eick, (2008); Gilson, (1994); Griffin, (2005); Guidry, (2007); Johanshahi, (1992); Kotti, (2008); Mathis, (1999); Matra, (2007); Meade, 1992); Pritchett, (2006); Probst, (2011); Sypawka, (2008); Thomas, (2002); Thompson, (2000); Tobe (1999); Toy, (2006); and Welch, (2008). Many other scholarly articles, case studies, and dissertations are available on this topic which used this well-regarded survey instrument and theory.

The Leadership Orientations Survey© comes in parallel versions: *Self* (for people to rate themselves) and *Others* (for ratings from colleagues). For the purpose of this study, only the *Self*–ratings version of the survey was used. This version consists of three sections measuring *Behaviors, Leadership Style,* and *Overall Rating,* respectively.

Section One of the instrument, *Behaviors,* contains a total of 32 items. The self-rating form prompts respondents to rate their leadership orientation behaviors as described by the four frames using a 5-point Likert Scale: 1 = *Never,* 2 = *Occasionally,* 3

= *Sometimes,* 4 = *Often,* and 5 = *Always.* For each of the four frames, this section contains eight associated questions. The items used in the structural frame are items, 1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25, and 29. The Human Resource Frame is measured by ratings on items 2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, and 30. The Political Frame's eight items are 3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23, 27, and 31. The Symbolic Frame is associated with item numbers 4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28, and 32.

There are also sub-scales within each frame: Structural, Human Resources, Symbolic, and Political. The sub-scales related to the each of the four frames will be numbered as such: the analytic items 1, 9, 17, and 25; the *supportive* items are 2, 10, 18, and 26; the *participative* items are 6, 14, 22, and 30; the *adroit* items are 7, 15, 23, and 31; and the *charismatic* items are 8, 16, 24, and 32. Bolman and Deal stated that in their own research they have primarily used the eight-item frame measures for research applications, and the four-item sub-scales for their management development work and business. Table 2 illustrates each corresponding question associated with its respective leadership frame.

Table 2

Section I – Behaviors, Leadership Survey Frames and Corresponding Questions

Leadership Frames	Corresponding Question Number
Structural Frame	1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25, 29
Human Resource Frame	2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, 30
Political Frame	3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23, 27, 31
Symbolic Frame	4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28, 32

Section Two, *Leadership Style*, contained six rank items asking the respondents to rank descriptors of how they perceived their leadership style in reference to given prompts. Respondents were asked to rank each item by assigning "4" to the answer that best described them. For the next best answer, "3" was to be used, "2" indicated a lesser descriptor, and "1" was designated as the response for the descriptor that least described them. The *Leadership Style* section's answer choices listed below each item stem are sequentially arranged as follows: *structural, human resource, political,* and *symbolic*, corresponding to Bolman and Deal's four frames. This section asks for ranked responses to prompts about the respondents' self-perceived strongest skills, best way to describe him or her, the ability that has helped them to be most successful, what people are most likely to notice about them, and their most important leadership trait.

Section Three of the instrument, *Overall Rating,* contains only two one-item measures of the respondent's self-rating of his or her effectiveness as a manager and as a leader when compared to other individuals that they have know with comparable levels of experience and responsibility. The choices under each item, effective manager and effective leader, were slightly modified, using only three indicators as opposed to the sliding scale in the original instrument, because it was not as appropriate for an electronic system as with a survey administered on paper. The respondents can rate themselves as being in the bottom 20%, middle 20%, or the top 20% in each category. Again, this is when they compare themselves to others with comparable experience and responsibility. The changes to the rating scale do not affect the integrity of the instrument or the results.

In addition to aforementioned sections of the survey, a demographic section was developed for the study by the researcher. The demographic information was based on

the literature review on leadership research. Personal characteristics surveyed were gender, age, and racial/ethnic identity. The professional characteristics surveyed in this section were the years the respondent had been a faculty member in an Educational Administration or Leadership program, the total number of years of experience they have as an administrator in any organization, the number of years the respondent has been a chair in their current organization, and the number of faculty they currently supervise.

Validity and Reliability

Validity

Bolman and Deal (1991) established the reliability (consistency) and validity (accuracy) of the Leadership Orientations Survey© instrument based on data from a multitude of complete cases. The validity of this instrument was established through field tests reported in an unpublished paper, "Images of Leadership," authored by the instrument creators Bolman and Deal (1991) for the National Center of Educational Leadership at the Harvard Graduate School of Education. Bolman and Deal reported results from over 1,000 respondents in business and educational research. Bolman and Deal conducted a principal components analysis in 1991 using survey responses from over 1,000 respondents, of whom 681 were higher education administrators. The analysis included a Varimax Rotation, commonly used in a factor analysis, of all factors presented in the survey constructs created by Bolman and Deal. Four factors were produced that coincide with the four frames (structural, human resource, political, and symbolic). Bolman and Deal (1992) reported that factors aligning with the conceptual definitions of the frames are present in other similar populations.

Bolman and Deal (1991) declared "a high degree of internal constancy among the items in each domain" for the results of their validity study (p. 7). Meade (1992) conducted a factor analysis on the same constructs for dissertation research on Missouri higher education administrators and compared those results to the findings of Bolman and Deal's (1991) study of higher education administrators and concluded, "The results of this factor analysis support the conclusion that the items do measure the four intended leadership orientations" (p. 76).

Reliability

The reliability for this instrument was based on an estimated 1,300 colleague ratings for a sample of managers in business and also in education. Section One of the survey is titled *Behaviors*. The internal consistency data is provided by the author Lee Bolman on his Web site by frame:

- Structural Frame stated the Spearman Brown Coefficient at .933 and the Split Half Correlation is at .875. Cronbach's Alpha is .920. The data for this frame were based on 1,309 cases and 8 data items;
- Human Resource Frame stated the Spearman Brown Coefficient at .929 and the Split Half Correlation is at .867. Cronbach's Alpha is .931. The data for this frame were based on 1, 331 cases and 8 data items;
- Political Frame stated the Spearman Brown Coefficient at .911 and the Split Half Correlation at .837. Cronbach's Alpha is .913. The data for this frame were based on 1,268 cases and 8 data items; and

- Symbolic Frame – Spearman Brown Coefficient at .937 and the Split Half Correlation is at .882. Cronbach's Alpha is .931. The data for this frame were based on 1,315 cases and 8 data items (www.bolman.com).

Section Two of the survey instrument is titled, *Leadership Style*. The internal consistency data for this section are provided below, by frame, and were obtained from Lee Bolman's Web site:

- Structural Frame stated the Spearman Brown Coefficient at .783 and the Split Half Correlation is at .644. Cronbach's Alpha is .841.The data for this frame were based on 1,229 cases and 6 data items;
- Human Resource Frame stated the Spearman Brown Coefficient at .861 and the Split Half Correlation is at .755. Cronbach's Alpha is .843.The data for this frame were based on 1,233 cases and 6 data items;
- Political Frame stated the Spearman Brown Coefficient at .829 and the Split Half Correlation is at .708. Cronbach's Alpha is .799. The data for this frame were based on 1,218 cases and 6 data items; and
- Symbolic Frame stated the Spearman Brown Coefficient at .904 and the Split Half Correlation is at .842. The data for this frame were based on 1,221 cases and 6 data items (www.bolman.com).

Tables 3 and 4 list the internal consistency data from complete cases for the survey instrument reported by Bolman and Deal (1991).

Table 3

Section I - Behaviors, Leadership Survey Internal Consistency Data

Leadership Frame	Structural Frame	HR Frame	Political Frame	Symbolic Frame
Item Number	1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25, 29	2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, 30	3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23, 27, 31	4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28, 32
Number of Cases:	1309	1331	1268	1315
Split Half Correlation:	.875	.867	.837	.882
Spearman Brown Coefficient:	.933	.929	.911	.937
Guttman (Rulon) Coefficient:	.933	.929	.911	.936
Coefficient Alpha (All Items):	.856	.931	.913	.937
Coefficient Alpha (Odd Items):	.856	.902	.839	.846
Coefficient Alpha (Even Items):	.834	.843	.842	.887

Table 4

Section II - Leadership Style Leadership Survey Internal Consistency Data

Leadership Frame	Structural Frame	HR Frame	Political Frame	Symbolic Frame
Number of Cases:	1229	1233	1218	1221
Split Half Correlation:	.644	.755	.708	.825
Spearman Brown Coefficient:	.783	.861	.829	.904
Guttman (Rulon) Coefficient:	.780	.856	.824	.892
Coefficient Alpha (All Items):	.841	.843	.799	.842
Coefficient Alpha (Odd Items):	.743	.626	.680	.701
Coefficient Alpha (Even Items):	.782	.792	.602	.682

Ethical Considerations

All data were collected using a secure Internet-based survey. "As researchers anticipate data collection, they need to respect the participants and the sites for research" (Creswell, 2003, p. 64). This research proposal was submitted to the Alabama State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) for review before the study begins (Appendix D).

An *informed consent* form (Appendix E) acknowledging participant's rights was included on page one of the electronic survey in the data collection phase. It was provided to participants before they were allowed to engage in the study. A notice that participation is voluntary and participants have the right to withdraw from the study at any time was included in the form.

The purpose of the study was also provided to prospective participants in the e-mail message they received in advance of the survey (Appendix F). Participants were given the opportunity to obtain a copy of the results by contacting the researcher.

Foremost, the anonymity of all participants was respected and protected. No identifying information was used. Data will be discarded after five years, as mandated by IRB policy for keeping records.

As a stipulation from the instrument authors, Lee G. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal, to use the instrument, data collected from the Leadership Orientations Survey© instrument may be provided to Bolman and Deal, if requested. In addition, an executive summary of the research results were provided, with no identifiable information, to Bolman and Deal. The researcher did not engage in any fraudulent practices regarding the research or its findings.

Data Analysis Schema

All data collected were entered into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) ® for analysis. In the preliminary analysis, descriptive statistics for the overall sample, including the frequency, percentages, mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum, were computed for each of the leadership frames: structural frame score, human resource frame score, political frame score, and symbolic frame score.

In addition, descriptive statistics were used to analyze the demographic data using frequency counts and percentage distributions. Descriptive statistics help researchers to analyze descriptive questions by summarizing trends or tendencies in the data, and can also provide insight into where one score stands when compared to others (Cresswell, 2012). The inferential statistics for this study included Independent Samples *t*-tests and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), to profile similarities and differences among the preferred leadership frames by gender, age, racial/ethnic identification, and years of experience as ADCs in their current position at UCEA member institutions. According to Cresswell (2012), researchers use inferential statistics to compare groups or to relate two or more variables in the data. Cohen's *d* was also used in this study to determine effect size in the comparison of means among variables.

Quantitative research methodology was used to analyze each research question as follows:

Research Question 1: Which leadership frames established by Bolman and Deal are the most frequently used by academic department chairs (ADCs) of Educational Leadership and Educational Administration programs at University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) member institutions? The descriptive statistics of frequencies,

percentages, mean scores, and standard deviations of response choices were calculated and used to analyze questions contained in all sections of the survey including Section Two , *Leadership Style* which was used to answer research question one. Cohen's *d* was used to determine if any statistically significant differences existed between mean scores of respondents in Section Two, *Leadership Style*.

Research Question 2: How does the utilization of Bolman and Deal's leadership frames by academic department chairs in Educational Leadership and Educational Administration programs at University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) member institutions vary by the ADCs' gender, age, racial/ethnic identification, and years of experience in their current chair position? Frequencies and percentages of response choices were analyzed from questions contained in the survey. In addition, inferential statistics were used to analyze the data to answer this question: Independent Samples *t*-tests and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The differences in means scores are significant at a .05 set Alpha level. Table 5 provides a data analysis schema of the variables, the level of each variable, and the analysis used to answer the two research questions for this study.

Data Analysis Schema

Table 5

Data Analysis Schema

Research Question	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Level	Statistical Analysis
RQ 1: Which leadership frames established by Bolman and Deal are the most frequently used by ADCs of Educational Leadership and Educational Administration programs at (UCEA) member institutions?	Mean Scores of Responses	Preferred Leadership Frame: Structural Human Resource Political Symbolic	Scale	Descriptive Percentages Sums Cohen's *d*
RQ 2: How does the utilization of Bolman and Deal's leadership frames by ADCs in Educational Leadership and Educational Administration programs at UCEA member institutions vary by the ADCs' gender, age, racial/ethnic identification, and years of experience in their current chair position?	Gender	Frame	Nominal	Independent Sample *t*-test
	Age	Frame	Scale	ANOVA
	Racial/Ethnic Identification (all)	Frame	Nominal	ANOVA
	Racial Ethnic Identification (White & Other)			Independent Samples *t*-test
	Years in Chair Position	Frame	Scale	ANOVA Independent Sample *t*-test

Population

The participants for this study are academic department chairs of educational administration and educational leadership programs of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) member colleges and universities, nationally and internationally. UCEA includes both public and private institutions. At the time of this

study, UCEA had 74 verifiable member institutions that offer a doctorate in educational administration and/or educational leadership.

Academic department chairs were chosen for this study because of their significance to institutional goals, and their power to impact policy and practice at the departmental level. Chairs at UCEA member institutions were chosen for this study because of the organization's commitment to excellence in leadership preparation in educational programs, and rigorous program and institutional review process for membership as stated on the organization's Web site.

Participants

UCEA Member Institutions

The University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) is a nonprofit group of research institutions started in 1959. The consortium was founded by 15 universities, the Kellogg Foundation, and the regional Centers for Educational Administration, all of which shared a commitment to improve the preparation of professionals in educational leadership through all stages by improving leadership practice, preparation, and policy for children (ucea.org). When first established, the organization was funded by a W.K. Kellogg Foundation to Teachers College Columbia grant, and housed on the campus of Columbia University. At the time of this study, the UCEA is located at The University of Virginia's Curry School of Education in Charlottesville, Virginia and led by Executive Director Michelle D. Young, Ph.D. According to the organization's Web site, UCEA has up 94 top research institutions; however, in researching this study, only 74 could be identified (Appendix G).

According to UCEA, the consortium's goals are three-fold: (a) to promote research on important school leadership issues, (b) to improve leadership preparation and professional development, and (c) to influence educational policy positively at all levels. In 2001, UCEA established the National Commission for the Advancement of Educational Leadership Preparation.

UCEA has stringent membership requirements; member institutions must offer a doctorate in educational administration/leadership or an equivalent program. The member institution must also be rated in the Carnegie classification system as a Doctoral Extensive or Doctoral Intensive institution, or a comparable rating for international institutions. In addition, evidence of a critical mass of full-time tenure track faculty (five or more) in its preparation programs is required. Faculty must exhibit excellence in scholarship, teaching, and service, and the majority of the coursework must be taught by the full-time faculty (ucea.org). Preparation programs should maintain a standard of on-going evaluation. UCEA's standards are comprehensive and also include clear requirements in the areas of diversity recruiting, professional development, and clinical practice, and for the enhancement of leadership and research methods skills of preparation program faculty.

Furthermore, the programs of member institutions must use advisory boards composed of educational leadership stakeholders and practitioners. Paramount to the organization is collaboration, specifying that members must also develop relationships with other universities and associations committed to its mission.

Also according to the UCEA Web site, the organization hosts international conventions; produces several scholarly, peer-reviewed publications, including

Educational Administration Quarterly (EAQ) and *Journal of Cases in Educational Leadership;* has numerous graduate student development programs, fellowships, and resources; and various program centers. UCEA recognizes school personnel for their contributions to the professoriate and mentorship through its awards program (ucea.org).

Data Collection Procedures

The Leadership Orientations Survey (Self)© was administered through SurveyMonkey© , an Internet-based survey service which sends a link to a secured web site for survey completion. After securing Institutional Review Board approval (Appendix D), the researcher sent an advanced e-mail letter (Appendix F) to prospective participants one week before sending the survey, explaining the character and purpose of the study and stating that participation in the study is voluntary. This initial advanced e-mail message soliciting participants included an *opt out* link for those who did not wish to participate in the study.

A second mailing was sent through the secure electronic survey service to each participant and included the instrumentation: A copy of the Leadership Orientations Survey (Self)© instrument and demographic data questions (Appendix B), asking that the surveys be returned within two weeks. At the start of the survey, an *informed consent* page was presented, stating that continuing with the survey confers consent. This included a statement to participants providing an opportunity to request an abstract of the results of the study (Appendix D).

A third mailing was sent to those participants who did not complete the survey within two weeks, reminding them to complete and return the questionnaire (Appendix D). The Executive Director of UCEA at the time of this study, Michelle Young, Ph.D.,

also sent an endorsement letter by e-mail on August 19, 2013, to the listserv for the organization asking academic department chairs at UCEA institutions to complete the survey, if they desired (Appendix H). Each participant also received an assurance of confidentiality in all correspondence. To minimize the chance of personal data being used outside of the study, the data were stored online and on a removable USB drive, then stored in a secure location until the study concluded. At the conclusion of the study, and as required by the Alabama State University Institutional Review Board (IRB), the online survey and all related data will be deleted within five years. All data collected from the survey was disassociated from any identifying information of participants.

Summary

Chapter Three reviewed the purpose of the study, the research questions, and the research methodology used to address each question, design of the study, sample, instrumentation, and data collection procedures. Chapter Four presents the findings and data analysis.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to examine ADCs of colleges and universities that are member institutions of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) utilization of the leadership orientations developed by Bolman and Deal. A secondary purpose was to examine the relationships between the preferred frames and selected personal demographics and professional characteristics: gender, age, racial/ethnic identification, and years of experience in their current chair position of ADCs at UCEA member institutions.

Data collection from the *Leadership Orientations Survey (Self)*©, designed by Lee G. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal and electronically administered through Survey Monkey, was completed by the end of August 2013. The instrument consists of four organic sections created by Bolman and Deal: Section One, *Behaviors*; Section Two, *Leadership Style*, and Section Three, *Overall Rating*. In addition, with permission from the authors, the researcher included a demographic section at the beginning of the survey.

Population/Demographics

Of the 74 UCEA member institutions surveyed, 48 academic department chairs of educational leadership programs responded, resulting in a response rate of 65%. From the 48 responses, 3 (.06%) less than 1% were excluded from the leadership orientations

assessment because the respondents skipped the questions in Section Two, *Leadership Style*. The same three respondents, however, submitted demographic information and were included in the descriptive analysis for the population. In total, 45 (61%) valid responses were used to determine leadership orientations of respondents, while 48 valid responses were used to depict the demographic characteristics of the population. As shown in Table 6, by the end of August 2013, 48 surveys were returned of the 74 sent to ADCs at UCEA Institutions.

Table 6

Survey Return Rate

Survey Return Rate			
Academic Department Chairs	Number Sent	Number Returned	Return Rate
74	74	48	65%

The demographic section of the survey instrument consisted of nine forced-choice questions regarding eight independent variables, and one attitudinal item. Of the independent variables, four are identified in the research questions. The demographic questions included items on gender, age, and racial identification of the respondent, as well as years of experience as a faculty member in an educational administration or leadership program, as an administrator in any organization, and as a chair at the ADCs current institution.

In addition, questions were included to classify the current rank of the ADC and the number of faculty members under the supervision of the ADC in his or her current position as chair. One question was included, number nine, also a forced-choice question, requesting the ADCs to indicate their self-perceived level of how they see themselves as an administrator and/or as a faculty member in the current role as chair.

All 48 (n = 48) respondents answered the question regarding gender (n = 48; 100%). Of the population of UCEA Academic Department Chairs of Educational Leadership programs, 25 men responded (52.1%), and 23 women responded (47.9%).

Survey participants were asked to report their age. The possible answer categories were divided into five ranges (*30 and under, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60,* and *61 or over*). Regarding the question of age, one respondent did not answer this item. Of the 47 (n = 47; 98%) usable responses, all of the men and women ADCs were over 41 years of age (n = 47; 97.9%), whereas the largest majority were 61 years of age or older (n = 18; 38.3%). Table 7 and Table 8 provide an overview of the gender and age demographics, respectively.

Table 7

Frequency and Percentage of Responses of ADCs, by Gender (n = 48)

Gender	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Male	25	52.1
Female	23	47.9

Table 8

Frequency and Percentage of Responses of ADCs, by Age (n = 47)

Age	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
30 and under	0	0
31-40	0	0
41-50	14	29.8
51-60	15	31.9
61 or over	18	38.3

Respondents were asked how they racially or ethnically self-identified, and although only one respondent did not answer the item on race, 47 (n = 47; 97.9%), the majority of respondents who did answer were self-identified as White (n = 39; 83.0%). The answer choices were divided into six categories: *White, Hispanic or Latino, Black or African American, Native American or American Indian, Asian/Pacific Islander,* and *Other*. Those respondents who chose *Other* were able to specify how they defined this category. The remaining respondents who were not White, 8 (n = 8; 17.0%) were minorities. None of the respondents self-identified as *Native American or American Indian*. For those respondents who chose *Other* for this item, they were asked to specify how they racially/ethnically self-identified. Of the two respondents who wrote in their descriptions, one identified as "Black/White," (n = 1; 2.1%), and the other as "Jewish" (n = 1; 2.1%). Table 9 reports the frequency and percentages for racial identification of respondents.

Table 9

Frequency of Responses, by Racial or Ethnic Self-Identity of ADCs (n = 47)

Race	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
White	39	83.0
Hispanic or Latino	1	2.1
Black or African American	4	8.5
Asian/Pacific Islander	1	2.1
Other		4.3
Black/White	1	2.1
Jewish	1	2.1

The number of years respondents have been a faculty member in an Educational Administration or Leadership program was included as a question, and the answer choices were divided into four categories (*0-5, 6-10, 11-15*, and *over 15 years*). Two respondents did not answer the item on the number of years they have been a faculty member in an Educational Administration or Leadership program, accounting for 46 usable responses (n = 46; 95.8%). The majority of respondents who answered the question on the number of years they have been a faculty member in an Educational Administration or Leadership program at least 10 years 35 (n = 35; 76.1%). Of these 35, at least 16 respondents have over 15 years of experience in this type of program (n = 16; 34.8%). Table 10 reports the frequency of responses for years of experience as faculty in Educational Administration or Leadership program.

Table 10

Frequency of Responses, by Years of Faculty Experience in Educational Administration or Leadership Programs (n = 46)

Years	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
0-5	3	6.5
6-10	8	17.4
11-15	19	41.3
More than 15 years	16	34.8

Included in the survey was a question regarding the total number of years the ADCs had in administration in any organization. This question was divided into four categories, *0-5 years, 6-10 years, 10-15 years,* and *over 15 years*, from which respondents could answer. The ADCs who responded to the question regarding the

number of total years experience of administration in any organization (*n* = 47; 97.9%), most had under 15 years of total experience (*n* = 27; 57.4%). Twenty respondents reported having over 15 years of administration experience in any organization (*n* = 20; 42.6%), whereas only 8 respondents reported having 5 years or less of experience in any organization (*n* = 8; 17.0%). Table 11 presents the data for number of years of faculty experience in any organization.

Table 11

Frequency of Responses, by Number of Years of Administration Experience in Any Organization (n = 46)

Years of Faculty Experience	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
0-5	8	17.0
6-10	11	23.4
10-15	8	17.0
More than 15	20	42.6

For the question concerning the rank classification of respondents in their current chair position, only one respondent skipped this question, accounting for 47 responses (*n* = 47; 97.9%). The answer choices were divided into five categories: *Instructor, Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, Full Professor*, and *Other*. Although *Other* was allowed as a choice, there was no item prompting respondents to describe how they defined this category. More than half of the respondents are full professors (*n* = 32; 68.1%), whereas 13 respondents are at the associate professor level (*n* = 13; 27.7%). Chair rankings are shown in Table 12.

Table 12

Frequency of Reponses, by Rank (n = 47)

Rank	Frequency	Percentage
Associate Professor	13	27.7
Full Professor	32	68.1
Other	2	4.3

Regarding the question of years in the chair position at the respondents' current institution, of the 48 survey returns only one respondent did not answer this question (n = 47; 97.9%). For this question, the independent variable of years in chair position was divided into four categories from which respondents could choose an answer (*0-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years,* and *over 15 years*). Most of the respondents reported that they have been chairs in their current department five years or less (n = 32; 68.1). Only 2 respondents reported being in the chair position for over 15 years (n = 2; 4.3%). Of the remaining 13 respondents, 8 have been in the chair position 6 to 10 years (n = 8; 17.0%), whereas 5 have been ADCs 10 to 15 years (n = 5; 10.6%). Table 13 provides frequencies for years in the chair position.

Table 13

Frequency of Responses, by Years as Chair (n = 47)

Years	Frequency	Percentage
0-5	32	68.1
6-10	8	17.0
11-15	5	10.6
More than 15	2	4.3

All ADCs respondents answered the question concerning the number of faculty members they currently supervise in their departments (n = 48). There were four categories from which respondents could choose an answer for this question (*0-7, 7-12, 13-18,* and *18 or more*). Of the respondents, 22 (n = 22; 45.8%) supervise 18 or more faculty. Followed by 17 ADCs who reported that they directed departments where 12 or fewer faculty were supervised (n = 17; 35.4%). Also reported, 9 ADCs supervised 13 to 18 faculty in their departments (n = 9; 18.8%). The data on size of faculty supervised is listed in Table 14.

Table 14

Frequency of Responses, by Number of Faculty Supervised (n = 48)

Faculty Supervised	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
0-7	6	12.5
7-12	11	22.9
13-18	9	18.8
More than 18	22	45.8

An additional question included in the demographic section of the survey asked ADCs to indicate the level each respondent saw himself or herself as an administrator and/or a faculty member in their current role as department chair. This question allowed respondents to choose one of five answers: *solely as a faculty member, more of a faculty member than an administrator, equally balanced as faculty member and administrator, more of an administrator than a faculty member,* and *solely as an administrator*. All 48 respondents answered this question (n = 48; 100%). Responses varied, but, overall, respondents reported that they were either equally balanced as a faculty member and

administrator or they perceived themselves as more of an administrator than a faculty member (n = 38; 79.2%). Only 1 respondent indicated that he or she saw his or her current role as solely an administrator (n = 1; 2.1%). Although 9 ADCs did report that they saw themselves as more of a faculty member than an administrator in their current role (n = 9; 18.8%). Table 15 presents the data on roles by frequency and percentage.

Table 15

Frequency of Responses, by Chairs' Self-Perceived Role as Administrator and/or Faculty Member (n = 48)

Role	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
More a faculty member than an administrator	9	18.8
Equally balanced as faculty member and administrator	21	43.8
More of an administrator than a faculty member	17	35.4
Solely as an administrator	1	2.1

Section One of the instrument, *Behaviors,* contains a total of 32 items. The self-rating items prompt respondents to rate their leadership behaviors by using a 5-point Likert Scale: 1 = *Never,* 2 = *Occasionally,* 3 = *Sometimes,* 4 = *Often, and* 5 = *Always.* This section contains eight questions associated with each frame. This provides an overview of the types of leadership behaviors participants exhibit in accordance with the leadership orientations. Items 1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25, and 29 correspond with the Structural Frame. The Human Resource Frame is measured by ratings on items 2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, and 30. The Political Frame's eight items are 3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23, 27, and 31. The Symbolic Frame is associated with item numbers 4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28, and 32. The results of Section One, *Behaviors*, were included in the survey, and are included in

the results, but were not used to answer either research questions. They are provided to give an overall description of leadership behaviors as self-reported by the population only.

The highest range of scores was found in answers to Section One, *Behaviors*, on frequency of behaviors of the respondent in the questions coinciding with the Structural frame and the answer of *Often*. Sixty-seven percent said that they "Think very clearly and logically" *Often* (*n* = 31). Regarding their behavior to "Strongly emphasize careful planning and clear time lines," 25 of the respondents (*n* = 25; 54%) answered they exhibit this behavior *Often*. The largest number of respondents to this section of the survey regarding behaviors chose the ability to "Develop and implement clear, logical policies and procedures" as a practice they conduct *Often* (*n* = 33; 73%). The ability to "Approach problems with facts and logic" was identified as a behavior that 66% of respondents reported doing *Often* (*n* = 29; 66%).

In Section One on *Behaviors*, in the Human Resource frame, 44% of respondents reported on both questions that they "Give personal recognition for work well done" and "Show high sensitivity and concern for others' needs and feelings" *Always* (*n* = 20; 44%). In addition, the lowest scores in this area were the behaviors of "Foster high levels of participation and involvement in decisions" and "Am a highly participative manager" that only 24% felt they did *Always* (*n* = 11; 24%), for both items. Only 1 participant reported to being a highly participative manager *Occasionally* (*n* = 1; 2%).

The Symbolic frame indicated that the ability to "Generate loyalty and enthusiasm" in Section One on *Behaviors*, scored the highest percentage of *Often* users (*n* = 28; 61%). The second highest scores in this section were tied between "Communicate a

strong and challenging sense of vision and mission" and "Serve as an influential model of organizational aspirations" with 57% of respondents reporting *Often* exhibiting this behavior (n = 26; 57%). Only one respondent reported to *Never* being "highly charismatic" (n = 1; 2%). Incidentally, this is the only reported *Never* answer from any respondent in this section on *Behaviors* in regard to questions on any of the four frames. Tables 16, 17, 18, and 19 show the results of participants' self-ratings by frequencies and percentages for each question and its corresponding leadership frame.

Table 16

Section I - Behaviors, Structural Frame (n=46)

			Always		Often		Sometimes		Occasionally	
		n	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	Think very clearly and logically.	46	14	30.4	31	67.4	1	2.2		
5	Strongly emphasize careful planning and clear time lines	46	10	21.7	25	54.3	10	21.7	1	2.2
9	Approach problems through logical analysis and careful thinking.	46	15	32.6	28	60.9	3	6.5	0	0
13	Develop and implement clear, logical policies and procedures.	45	6	13.3	33	73.3	6	13.3	0	0
17	Approach problems with facts and logic.	44	12	27.3	29	65.9	3	6.8	0	0
21	Set specific, measurable goals and hold people accountable for results.	46	5	10.9	22	47.8	15	32.6	7	8.7
25	Have extraordinary attention to detail.	46	3	6.5	19	41.3	18	39.1	6	13.0
29	Strongly believe in clear structure and a chain of command.	45	9	20.0	17	37.8	16	5.6	3	6.7

Table 17

Section 1 - Behaviors, Human Resource Frame (n = 46)

			Always		Often		Sometimes		Occasionally	
		n	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
2	Show high levels of support and concern for others.	46	19	41.3	26	56.5	1	2.2	0	0
6	Build trust through open and collaborative relationships.	46	18	39.1	26	56.5	2	4.3	0	0
10	Show high sensitivity and concern for others' needs and feelings.	46	20	43.5	20	43.5	6	13.0	0	0
14	Foster high levels of participation and involvement in decisions.	46	11	23.9	27	58.7	8	17.4	0	0
18	Am consistently helpful and responsive to others.	44	15	34.1	27	61.4	2	4.5	0	0
22	Listen well and am unusually receptive to other people's ideas and input.	46	13	28.3	30	65.2	3	6.5	0	0
26	Give personal recognition for work well done.	46	20	43.5	20	43.5	6	13.0	0	0
30	Am a highly participative manager.	46	11	23.9	28	60.9	6	13.0	1	2.2

Table 18

Section I - Behaviors, Political Frame (n = 46)

			Always		Often		Sometimes		Occasionally	
		n	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
3	Have exceptional ability to mobilize people and resources to get things done.	46	7	15.2	25	54.3	14	30.4	0	0
7	Am a very skillful and shrewd negotiator.	45	3	6.7	17	37.8	21	46.7	4	8.9
11	Am unusually persuasive and influential.	46	2	4.3	28	60.9	15	32.6	1	2.2
15	Anticipate and deal adroitly with organizational conflict.	45	3	6.7	28	62.2	13	28.9	1	2.2
19	Am very effective in getting support from people with influence and power.	44	2	4.5	28	63.6	13	29.5	1	2.3
23	Am politically very sensitive and skillful.	46	7	15.2	24	52.2	13	28.3	2	4.3
27	Develop alliances to build a strong base of support.	46	8	17.4	28	60.9	9	19.1	1	2.2
31	Succeed in the face of conflict and opposition.	45	1	2.2	25	55.6	19	42.2	0	0

Table 19

Section I - Behaviors, Symbolic Frame (n = 46)

			Always		Often		Sometimes		Occasionally		Never	
		n	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Freq	%
4	Inspire others to do their best.	46	5	10.9	30	10.4	11	23.9	0	0	0	0
8	Am highly charismatic.	45	2	4.4	14	31.1	20	44.4	8	17.8	1	2.2
12	Am able to be an inspiration to others.	46	3	6.5	20	43.5	21	45.7	2	4.3	0	0
16	Am highly imaginative and creative.	45	6	13.3	18	40.0	16	35.6	5	11.1	0	0
20	Communicate a strong and challenging sense of vision and mission.	46	7	15.2	26	56.5	10	21.7	3	6.5	0	0
24	See beyond current realities to generate exciting new opportunities.	46	8	17.4	22	47.8	13	28.3	3	6.5	0	0
28	Generate loyalty and enthusiasm.	46	8	17.4	28	60.9	8	17.4	2	4.3	0	0
32	Serve as an influential model of organizational aspirations and values.	46	6	13	26	56.5	11	23.9	3	6.5	0	0

Research Question One

The first research question asked, "Which leadership frames established by Bolman and Deal are the most frequently used by academic department chairs (ADCs) of Educational Leadership and Educational Administration programs at University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) member institutions? Although data were collected from Section One, *Behaviors,* of the *Leadership Orientations Survey (Self)*©, the question was addressed using data collected from Section Two, *Leadership Style,* as directed by the creators of the instrument, Lee Bolman and Terrance Deal. The results from Section Two, *Leadership Style*, were reported next.

Section Two, *Leadership Style*, contained six forced-choice items asking the respondents to rank descriptors of how they perceived their leadership style in reference to given prompts. Respondents were asked to rank each item by assigning "4" to the answer that best described them. For the next best answer, "3" was to be used, "2" indicated a lesser descriptor, and "1" was designated as the response for the descriptor that least described them. These six questions were then scored and used to determine the respondents' preferred leadership orientation.

The scoring system defined by the authors of the instrument instructed that all responses be calculated by letter and level of descriptor affiliated with each frame. Therefore, all "a" answers were summed for the structural frame, all "b" answers for the human resources frame, all "c" answers for the political frame, and all "d" answers for the symbolic frame. The frame with the highest score was the preferred leadership orientation of the group of respondents and the second highest score indicated a second preference.

To analyze the data to determine the leadership orientations, answers from 45 respondents were used (n = 45; 93.8%). Three respondents did not answer the six questions (a, b, c, or d) in Section Two, *Leadership Style*, and were excluded from the sums for all items and, subsequently, the final determined preferred leadership orientation frame, first and second preferences. The mean score and standard deviation was found for each answer, for each of the four Bolman and Deal frames in Section Two *Leadership Style* of the instrument. Next, a Cohen's *d*, using pooled variances was used to calculate the effect size between the answers with the highest mean and lowest mean scores in each frame to further determine if any significant differences existed.

Beginning with the Structural Frame, the item with the highest mean score in the Structural Frame was number 3, where respondents indicated that their ability to make good decisions helped most in their success (M = 2.87, SD = 1.26), followed by item number 1 where participants judged their strongest skill to be analytical skills (M = 2.84, 1.02). The means scores for the Structural Frame are shown in Table 20.

Table 20

Section II - Leadership Style, Structural Frame Means Scores, by Item (n = 45)

Structural Frame

Item and Descriptor		Mean	*SD*
1 a.	Analytical Skills	2.84	1.02
2 a.	Technical Expert	2.13	1.25
3 a.	Make Good Decisions	2.87	1.16
4 a.	Attention to Detail	2.22	1.11
5 a.	Clear, Logical Thinking	2.67	.98
6 a.	An Analyst	2.62	1.05

Items 4 and 6 in the Human Resource frame of *Leadership Style* held an equal mean score, indicating that participants best described themselves as "a humanist," and also thought that people would most likely notice their "concern for people" (*M* = 2.69, SD 1.18). Items 2 and 5 in the Human Resource frame tied for third among best descriptors by mean score, suggesting that participants felt that being "a good listener" was the best way to describe them and that being "caring and support for others" was their most important leadership trait (*M* = 2.60, *SD* = 1.25). The means scores for the Human Resource Frame are shown in Table 21.

Table 21

Section II - Leadership Style, Human Resource Frame Means Scores, by Item (n = 45)

Human Resource Frame

Item and Descriptor		Mean	*SD*
1 b.	Interpersonal Skills	2.67	1.28
2 b.	Good Listener	2.60	1.16
3 b.	Coach and Develop People	2.36	1.05
4 b.	Concern for People	2.69	1.18
5 b.	Caring and Support for Others	2.60	1.25
6 b.	A Humanist	2.69	1.16

The lowest mean score of all four frames was item 6 found in the Political Frame, where participants were reluctant to describe themselves as "a politician" (*M* = 2.02, *SD* = 1.10). However, the highest item in this area was number 2 where participants reported that the best way to describe them was as a "skilled negotiator" (*M* = 2.76, *SD* = .91). "Skilled negotiator," item number 2 in the Political Frame also held the highest mean

score as a descriptor in all four frames (*M* = 2.76). The mean scores for the Political Frame are shown in Table 22.

Table 22

Section II - Leadership Style, Political Frame Means Scores, by Item (n = 45)

Political Frame

Item and Descriptor		Mean	*SD*
1 c.	Political Skills	2.18	.94
2 c.	Skilled Negotiator	2.76	.91
3 c.	Build Strong Alliances and a Power Base	2.38	1.25
4 c.	Ability to Succeed, in Face of Conflict & Opposition	2.60	.96
5 c.	Toughness and Aggressiveness	2.22	1.35
6 c.	A Politician	2.02	1.10

"Imagination and creativity," item 5, was the most important leadership trait by the mean score in the Symbolic Frame (*M* = 2.51, *SD* = .82). Participants scored being "a visionary" as the best way to describe themselves with the highest mean score in the Symbolic Frame (*M* = 2.67, *SD* = 1.07). Being an "inspirational leader," item number 2, was reported as the second highest descriptor of the best way to describe the respondents (*M* = 2.51 *SD* = 1.06). The mean scores for the Symbolic Frame are shown in Table 23.

Table 23

Section II - Leadership Style, Symbolic Frame Means Scores, by Item (n = 45)

Symbolic Frame

Item and Descriptor		Mean	*SD*
1 d.	Ability to Excite and Motivate	2.31	1.12
2 d.	Inspirational Leader	2.51	1.058
3 d.	Energize and Inspire Others	2.40	.963
4 d.	Charisma	2.49	1.20
5 d.	Imagination and Creativity	2.51	.82
6 d.	A Visionary	2.67	1.07

Cohen's *d*

The effect size can be used to measure the standardized difference between two means, but unlike significance tests, effect size can compute the measure independent of the sample size. For this study, the answer with the highest mean score of the frame was considered "Group 1" and the answer with the lowest mean score of the frame was "Group 2."

Whalberg (1984) stated, "An effect size is a numerical way of expressing the strength or magnitude of a reported relationship, be it causal or not" (www.villanova.edu). According to Becker (2000), effect sizes range from 0.0 to 2.0. A small effect size of 0.00 to 0.29 denotes a small difference in scores, whereas a medium difference in scores will be indicated by a medium effect size of 0.3 to 0.59, and a large effect size of .06 to 2.0 indicates a large difference in the scores. In other words, the closer the effect size is to 2.0, the larger the difference is in the scores.

The mean scores of answers to the survey associated with the Structural Frame in Section Two *Leadership Style*, respondents scored item"3a. Make Good Decisions," as the ability that has helped the most in his or her success, with the highest mean score of the frame at 2.87 (*SD* = 1.16), and the answer that received the lowest mean score was "2a. Technical Expert," as the last choice answer to the best way to describe them with a mean of 2.13 (*SD* = 1.25). The effect size (*d* = .03) indicates there was a medium difference in the mean scores.

Regarding the Human Resource Frame, two answers garnered the same calculated mean score of 2.69, items "4b. Concern for People," as what people are most likely to notice about the respondent, and "6b. A Humanist," as the best way to describe the respondent; however, the standard deviations showed a slight difference. To determine effect size, the answer with the lowest standard deviation was used, and that item was "6b. A Humanist" as the best way to describe the respondent, with the highest mean score of 2.69 (*SD* = 1.16). The answer with the lowest mean score for this frame was "3b. Coach and Develop People" as the answer for what ability has helped the respondent the most to be successful (*M* = 2.36, *SD* = -1.05). The effect size for these two groups was (*d* = -.15), a negative relationship with no real differences.

The highest mean score in the Political Frame was "2c. Skilled negotiator," as the answer chosen as the best way to describe the respondents with a mean score of 2.76 (*SD* = .91), and the lowest mean score was 2.02 (*SD* = 1.10), for the best way to describe respondents is "6c. A Politician." The effect size for this comparison indicated a medium difference (*d* = .3).

The effect size of the groups compared in the Symbolic Frame indicated a small difference (d = .16) when the answer with the highest mean score, "6d. A Visionary," and the answer with the lowest mean score, "1d. Ability to Excite and Motivate" were compared. Respondents reported that the best way to describe him or her was as a visionary (M = 2.67, SD = 1.07). The respondents answered that exciting and motivating others were the least of their skills (M = 2.31, SD = 1.12).

Overall, in each of the sections where a Cohen's d was used to further examine the level of significances in the reported differences in mean scores, a medium effect was indicated; however, a closer examination of these differences, for practical purposes, showed a low standard deviation only slightly over one step from the mean in all areas. For practical purposes this indicated a normal Bell-curve distribution with no substantive differences found in the mean scores of any sections of the study. This dispersion also showed that the individual scores of ADCs in each section of the study were closely grouped because they indicated similar responses and rankings to the questions in the survey. The mean scores and standard deviations for the highest and lowest scored answers are shown in Table 24 with the effect size by frame.

Table 24

Section II, Leadership Style, Effect Size of Highest and Lowest Mean Scores, by Frame

Frame			Descriptor	Mean	*SD*
Structural					
	Highest	3a.	Make Good Decisions	2.87	1.16
	Lowest	2a.	Technical Expert	2.13	1.25
				Effect Size	*d* = .3
Human Resource					
	Highest	3b.	Coach and Develop People	2.36	1.05
	Lowest	6b.	A Humanist	2.69	1.16
				Effect Size	*d* = -.15
Political					
	Highest	2c..	Skilled Negotiator	2.76	.91
	Lowest	6c..	A Politician	2.02	1.10
				Effect Size	*d* = .34
Symbolic					
	Highest	6 d.	A Visionary	2.67	1.07
	Lowest	1 d.	Ability to Excite and Motivate	2.31	1.12
				Effect Size	*d* = .16

The preferred leadership orientation or leadership frame as offered by Bolman and Deal that was most frequently used by academic department chairs in educational leadership/administration programs at UCEA members institutions was the Human Resource Frame. The sum for the Human Resource Frame was 702 across all 6 items calculated from 45 respondents (n = 45; 93.8%) (M = 2.60, SD = 1.18). The second preferred leadership orientation or leadership frame was determined to be the Structural Frame (n = 45; 93.8%) (M = 2.56, SD = 1.13). Although outside of the scope of this study, the second preference was included as ancillary information. Table 25 lists the total and mean scores by frame used to calculate the first and second preferred leadership orientations of 45 academic department chairs at UCEA member institutions who responded to the questions in Section Two, *Leadership Style*, in this study.

Table 25

Total and Means Scores, by Frame (n = 45)

Frame	***n***	**Sum**	**Min.**	**Max.**	**Mean**	***SD***
Human Resource	270	702	1.00	4.00	2.60	1.18
Structural	270	691	1.00	4.00	2.56	1.13
Symbolic	270	670	1.00	4.00	2.48	1.04
Political	270	637	1.00	4.00	2.36	1.11

Research Question Two

The second research question asked, "How does the utilization of Bolman and Deal's leadership frames by academic department chairs in Educational Leadership and Educational Administration programs at University Council for Educational

Administration (UCEA) member institutions vary by the ADCs' gender, age, racial/ethnic identification, and years of experience in their current chair position? Alpha was set at .05.

The ADC population group was closely split between the number of men and women respondents. The data was analyzed by employing an Independent Samples *t*-test. The mean score for the entire group (n = 48) in the Structural Frame is (M = 2.56, SD = 1.13), the Human Resource Frame (M = 2.60, SD = 1.18), the Political Frame is (M = 2.36, SD = 1.11), and the Symbolic Frame is (M = 2.48, SD = 1.04).

For this study, the Independent *t*-test analysis was used to determine if a difference exists in the mean score of the two groups, men and women. Using the Independent Samples *t*-test analysis to determine if there is a significant difference between the equality of variance of group 1, men, and group 2 women, the Levene's test showed that there is no significant statistical difference in the equality of variance between the groups regarding the Structural Frame, F = .89, p = .35. The Levene's test showed that there is also no significant statistical difference between the equality of variance between the groups regarding the Human Resources Frame, F = .00, p = .94. In addition, the Levene's test showed that there is no significant statistical difference in the equality of variance between the groups regarding the Political Frame, F = .59, p = .45. Therefore, equality of variance is assumed between the groups for these three frames. However, although the size of the two groups was almost equal, the Levene's test showed that there is a statistically significant difference in the equality of variance of men and women in reference to the Symbolic Frame, F = 7.11, p = .01.

The results of the Independent *t*-test showed for men who answered the question regarding the Symbolic Frame (group 1), the mean score is (M = 2.52, SD = 1.27). The results of the women for the Symbolic Frame (group 2), showed the mean score as (M = 2.09, SD = .92). A Cohen's d was used for further analysis of the difference in means scores between men and women in respects to the Symbolic Frame. The effect size (d = .19) showed a small difference in the mean scores between the genders for this frame. Table 26 shows the mean scores used to determine the preferred leadership orientation, and second preference, by frames. The figures in Table 27 show the results for the Levene's test analysis by frame and gender.

Table 26

Descriptive Statistics of Mean Scores, by Gender and Frame (n = 45)

Frame	**Male (*n*=23)**	***SD***	**Std. Error Mean**	**Female (*n*=22)**	***SD***	**Std. Error Mean**
Structural	2.61	1.03	.22	3.09	.97	.21
Human Resource	2.65	1.30	.27	2.68	1.29	.27
Political	2.22	.85	.18	2.14	1.04	.22
Symbolic	2.52	1.27	.27	2.09	.92	.20

Table 27

Independent Samples t-test, by Gender and Frame (n = 45)

		Levene's Test for Equality		***t*-test for Equality of Means**		
		F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Structural	Equal variance assumed	.885	.352	-1.611	43	.114
Human Resource	Equal variance assumed	.005	.943	-.077	43	.939
Political	Equal variance assumed	.590	.447	.287	43	.775
Symbolic	Equal variance assumed	7.111	.011	1.294	43	.202

An Independent Samples *t*-test analysis was used to determine if there was a significant difference between the equality of variance of group 1, those ADCs who self-identified as *White*, and group 2 those who self-identified as a race or ethnicity other than White (non-White, other, or minority). To be able to use a *t*-test, the population had to be divided and labeled into two independent variables. Included in the survey was a string variable labeled "race other" that allowed respondents to describe how they self-identified if they chose the category of *Other* from among the answer choices. Two respondents used this option. One self-identified as "Jewish" and the other as "Black/White." Both respondents were added into the *Other* category. The *White* category consisted of 36 respondents who answered the question of racial/ethnic identification, and identified themselves as *White* (*n* = 36; 82%). The *Other* category consists of 8 respondents who answered this question and self-identified a category other than *White* (*n* = 8; 18%).

The Levene's test showed that there is no significant statistical difference in the equality of variance between the groups regarding the Structural Frame, $F = 0.57$, $p = .81$. Alpha is set at .05. The Levene's test showed that there is also no significant statistical difference in the equality of variance between the groups regarding the Human Resources Frame, $F = 5.06$, $p = .03$. In addition, the Levene's test showed that there is neither a statistically significant difference in the equality of variance between the groups regarding the Political Frame, $F = .06$, $p = .81$, nor the Symbolic Frame, $F = .62$, p = .43. Therefore, equality of variance is assumed between the groups for all four frames. Table 28 shows the descriptive statistics of means scores by frame and race. Table 29 provides the resulting mean scores from the ANOVA by frames and race. The descriptive statistics of mean scores by frame and two racial groups are shown in Table 30. The results of the Levene's test are provided in Table 31 by frame and two racial groups.

Table 28

Descriptive Statistics of Mean Scores, by Frames and All Identified Races (n = 44)

Frame	***n***	**Mean**	***SD***
Structural			
White	36	2.89	1.04
Hispanic or Latino	1	4.00	
Black or African American	4	2.50	.58
Asian/Pacific Islander	1	4.00	
Other (Jewish, Black/White)	2	2.00	1.41
Human Resource			
White	36	2.67	1.22
Hispanic or Latino	1	1.00	
Black or African American	4	2.50	1.73
Asian/Pacific Islander	1	1.00	
Other (Jewish, Black/White)	2	4.00	.00
Political			
White	36	2.17	.94
Hispanic or Latino	1	3.00	
Black or African American	4	2.50	1.29
Asian/Pacific Islander	1	2.00	
Other (Jewish, Black/White)	2	2.00	.00
Symbolic			
White	36	2.28	1.16
Hispanic or Latino	1	2.00	
Black or African American	4	2.50	1.29
Asian/Pacific Islander	1	3.00	
Other (Jewish, Black/White)	2	2.00	1.41

Table 29

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for Mean Scores, by Frames and Race (n = 44)

Frame	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
Structural					
Between	4.63	4	1.16	1.11	.37
Within	40.56	39	1.04		
Human Resources					
Between	9.18	4	2.30	1.47	.23
Within	61.00	39	1.56		
Political					
Between	1.16	4	.29	.31	.87
Within	36.00	39	.92		
Symbolic					
Between	.94	4	.23	.17	.95
Within	54.22	39	1.39		

Table 30

Descriptive Statistics of Mean Scores, by Frame and Two Racial Groups (n = 44)

Frame	White (*n*=36)	*SD*	Std. Error Mean	Other (*n*=8)	*SD*	Std. Error Mean
Structural	2.89	1.04	.17	2.75	1.04	.37
Human Resource	2.67	1.22	.20	2.50	1.60	.57
Political	2.17	.94	.16	2.38	.92	.32
Symbolic	2.28	1.16	.19	2.38	1.06	.38

Table 31

Independent Samples t-test of Frames, by Two Racial Groups (n = 44)

		Levene's Test for Equality		***t*-test for Equality of Means**		
		F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Structural	Equal variance assumed	.06	.81	.34	42	.73
Human Resource	Equal variance assumed	5.06	.03	.33	42	.74
Political	Equal variance assumed	.06	.81	-.57	42	.57
Symbolic	Equal variance assumed	.62	.43	-.22	42	.83

To test if there were any statistically significant differences in the mean scores of each frame by age groups, a One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted by dividing the population into age groups. No ADCs who responded to the survey reported being under the age of 41. Three age groups were created from the responses. Group 1 consists of respondents who are 41 to 50 years of age (n = 14), group 2 consists of respondents who are 51 to 60 years of age (n = 13), and group 3 accounts for those respondents who are 61 years of age or over (n = 17). In total 44 respondents answered the questions regarding age, and are included in the analysis (n = 44; 92%).

There are no statistical significance in differences between the mean scores of the groups in the study and the leadership frames according to the results of the one-way ANOVA when Alpha level is set at .05. For the Structural Frame, F (3, 44), p = .513. In regards to the Human Resource Frame, F (3, 44), p = .786. The Political Frame also showed no significance, F (3, 44) p = .972. Also, there was no statistical significance in

the Symbolic Frame, F (3, 44) p = 269. Descriptive statistics for the mean scores of frames by age groups are shown in Table 32.

Table 32

Descriptive Statistics for the Mean Score of Frame, by Age Group (n = 44)

Frame	***n***	**Mean**	***SD***
Structural			
41-50	14	2.93	.92
51-60	13	3.08	1.04
61 or over	17	2.65	1.11
Human Resource			
41-50	14	2.79	1.25
51-60	13	2.69	1.32
61 or over	17	2.47	1.33
Political			
41-50	14	2.21	1.05
51-60	13	2.15	.90
61 or over	17	2.24	.90
Symbolic			
41-50	14	2.07	1.14
51-60	13	2.08	1.04
61 or over	17	2.65	1.17

An Independent Samples *t*-test analysis was used to determine if there was a significant difference between the equality of variance of group 1, those who had been in their current position of academic department chair for 5 or fewer years, and group 2 those who have been in their current position as academic department chair for 6 or more years. The Levene's test showed that there is no significant statistical difference between the equality of variance between the groups regarding the Structural Frame, $F = .03$, $p = .88$. Alpha was set at .05. The Levene's test showed that there is also no significant statistical difference between the equality of variance between the groups regarding the Human Resources Frame, $F = 1.84$, $p = .18$. In addition, the Levene's test showed that there is neither a statistically significant difference between the equality of variance between the groups regarding the Political Frame, $F = .03$, $p = .87$ nor the Symbolic Frame, $F = .53$, $p = .47$. Therefore, equality of variance is assumed between the groups for all four frames. Table 33 shows the descriptive statistics by means scores by frame and years in current position as academic department chair. Table 34 the results are shown for the Levene's test analysis by Frame and years in current position as academic department chair.

Table 33

Descriptive Statistics of Mean Scores, by Years in Chair Position and Frame (n = 44)

Frame	**0-5 Years (*n*=31)**	***SD***	**Std. Error Mean**	**More than 6 Years (*n*=13)**	***SD***	**Std. Error Mean**
Structural	2.87	1.02	.18	2.69	1.03	.29
Human Resource	2.58	1.34	.24	2.92	1.19	.33
Political	2.19	.91	.16	2.23	1.01	.28
Symbolic	2.35	1.11	.20	2.15	1.21	.34

Table 34

Independent Samples t-test of Frames, by Years in Chair Position (n = 44)

		Levene's Test for Equality		***t*-test for Equality of Means**		
		F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Structural	Equal variance assumed	.03	.88	.53	42	.60
Human Resource	Equal variance assumed	1.84	.18	-.80	42	.43
Political	Equal variance assumed	.03	.87	-.12	42	.91
Symbolic	Equal variance assumed	.53	.47	.53	42	.60

In addition, an Independent Samples *t*-test was used to compare means scores between those ADCs who had up to 10 years of total administrative experience in any organization and those ADCs who had accumulated more than 10 years of total administrative experience in any organization. No statistically significant difference was found between the mean scores of the two groups. Table 35 shows the means scores for the number of total years of administrative experience by frame, and the results from the Levene's test analysis by total years of administrative experience in any organization and frame are shown in Table 36.

Table 35

Descriptive Statistics of Mean Scores by Years of All Experience and Frame (n = 45)

Frame	**0-10 Years (*n*=19)**	***SD***	**Std. Error Mean**	**More than 10 Years (*n*=25)**	***SD***	**Std. Error Mean**
Structural	3.00	.94	.22	2.76	1.09	.22
Human Resource	3.00	1.20	.28	2.36	1.29	.25
Political	2.00	.82	.19	2.36	.99	.20
Symbolic	2.00	1.11	.25	2.52	1.12	.22

Table 36

Independent Samples t-test by All Years of Experience and Frame (n = 45)

		Levene's Test for Equality		***t*-test for Equality of Means**		
		F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Structural	Equal variance assumed	1.30	.26	.77	42	.45
Human Resource	Equal variance assumed	1.22	.28	1.68	42	.10
Political	Equal variance assumed	1.68	.20	-1.28	42	.21
Symbolic	Equal variance assumed	.54	.47	-1.53	42	.13

Section Three, *Overall Rating,* was included in the survey disseminated to participants, and the results are reported next; however, the responses were not used to answer either research question. The results are provided to give an overall description of how participants in this study rated themselves on their overall effectiveness as a manager and as a leader as compared to other individuals they have known with comparable experience and responsibility.

The question related to participants' overall effectiveness as a manager was answered by 45 participants (n = 45; 94%). Three study participants did not answer this question regarding overall effectiveness as a manager. Of the 45 responses, all participants rated themselves to be at least in the middle 20% of overall effectiveness as a manager when compared to other individuals they have known with comparable experience and responsibility (n = 45; 94%). Of the 45 participants, 31 rated themselves in the top 20% of overall effectiveness as a manager (n = 31; 68.9%). Effectiveness as a manager results were: (M = 4.38, SD = .94).

The 45 participants were also asked to rate themselves on overall effectiveness as a leader when compared to other individuals they have known with comparable experience and responsibility (n = 45; 94%). Three participants did not answer the question regarding overall effectiveness as a leader. Regarding overall effectiveness as a leader, 37 rated themselves in the top 20% (n = 37; 82.2%), whereas 8 participants rated themselves in the middle 20% (n = 8; 17.8%). None of the participants who answered questions on their overall effectiveness as a manager and as a leader responded that they were in the bottom 20% when compared to other individuals they have known with comparable experience and responsibility. Overall Leadership effectiveness results were:

(M = 4.64, SD = .77). Table 37 shows the frequencies and percentages of responses by overall effectiveness as a manager. Table 38 shows the frequencies and percentages of responses by overall effectiveness as a leader.

Table 37

Overall Effectiveness as a Manager (n = 45)

Effectiveness	Frequency	Percentage
Top 20%	31	68.9
Middle 20%	14	31.1

Table 38

Overall Effectiveness as a Leader (n = 45)

Effectiveness	Frequency	Percentage
Top 20%	37	82.2
Middle 20%	8	17.8

To determine if there was a statistically significant difference between male and female ADCs who responded to this question rated themselves on overall effectiveness as a manager and as a leader when compared to other individuals they have known with comparable experience and responsibility, an Independent Samples *t*-test was used to compare the mean scores between the groups. Both genders rated themselves higher in overall effectiveness as a leader than how they rated themselves on overall effectiveness as a manager when compared to others of comparable experience and responsibility.

The Levene's test showed that there is no statistically significant difference in the equality of variance of men and women respondents who rated their overall effectiveness

as a manager when compared to others they have known with comparable experience and responsibility, $F = .04$, $p = .85$. Alpha was set at .05. Also, the Levene's test showed that there is no statistically significant difference in the equality of variance of men and women respondents who rated their overall effectiveness as a leader when compared to others they have known with comparable skills and responsibility, $F = 2.02$, $p = .16$. Therefore, equality of variance is assumed between the groups for all four frames. Table 39 shows the descriptive statistics by means scores by overall effectiveness and gender. Table 40 the results are shown for the Levene's test analysis by overall effectiveness and gender.

Table 39

Overall Effectiveness as a Manager and a Leader, by Gender (n = 45)

Overall Effectiveness	***n***	**Mean**	***SD***
Effective Manager			
Male	23	4.39	.94
Female	22	4.36	.95
Effective Leader			
Male	23	4.57	.84
Female	22	4.73	.70

Table 40

Descriptive Statistics of Mean Scores of Overall Effectiveness, by Gender (n = 45)

		Levene's Test for Equality		***t*-test for Equality of Means**		
		F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Effective Manager	Equal variance assumed	.04	.85	.10	43	.92
Effective Leader	Equal variance assumed	2.02	.16	-.70	43	.49

Summary

This study analyzed data related to two research questions to determine the preferred leadership orientations of UCEA academic department chairs of Educational Leadership or Educational Administration programs, and sought to determine if any statistical significance exists among various demographics of the population such as gender, age, race, and years of experience. The first research questions asked, "Which leadership frames established by Bolman and Deal are the most frequently used by academic department chairs in educational leadership/administration programs at UCEA member institutions?

The second research question asked, "How does the utilization of Bolman and Deal's leadership frames by academic department chairs in educational leadership/ administration programs at UCEA member institutions vary by their gender, racial/ethnic identification, and years of experience? Each research question was analyzed using descriptive statics to report the frequencies and percentages. Question two, however, was answered by not only looking at descriptive statistics, but also by employing inferential statistics: Independent Samples *t*-tests and Analysis of Variances (ANOVA). Analysis of the data related to the first question determined the Human Resource Frame was the

preferred leadership orientation UCEA ADCs, and that the second preference was the Structural Frame.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is divided into the following four sections: summary, conclusions, discussion, and recommendations. The results of the study are summarized in the first section. The second section provides the conclusions reached from the findings of this study, the third section is the discussion of the importance of the findings and their relation to the literature on leadership, and the concluding section presents recommendations for practitioners and suggestions for future research.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to identify how frequently ADCs of colleges and universities that are member institutions of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) utilize the leadership orientations developed by Bolman and Deal. A secondary purpose was to examine the relationships between the preferred frames and selected personal demographic characteristics: the gender, racial/ethnic identification and years of experience of ADCs at UCEA member institutions.

To answer the two research questions, the Leadership Orientations Self© survey instrument created by Bolman and Deal (1991) was sent electronically to 74 academic chairs to the population of 74 UCEA member institutions that could be accurately

identified. Reminders were mailed to all prospective participants who had not completed the survey in the first two weeks, including an endorsement letter from the organization's Executive Director, Michelle Young, Ph.D. to prompt responses. Descriptive and inferential statistics were computed and analyzed from the data collected through the survey. Findings were reported in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 is the discussion of those findings.

Research Question 1: Which leadership frames established by Bolman and Deal are the most frequently used by academic department chairs (ADCs) of Educational Leadership and Educational Administration programs at University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) member institutions? The data revealed the preferred leadership orientation or leadership frame using Bolman and Deal's four-frame theoretical model, for academic department chairs of Educational Leadership or Educational Administration programs at University Council for Educational Administration member institutions, is the Human Resource Frame. The second preferred leadership frame is the Structural Frame. The Symbolic Frame was the third preferred Bolman and Deal orientation. Subsequently, the least preferred leadership frame was the Political Frame.

Research Question 2: How does the utilization of Bolman and Deal's leadership frames by academic department chairs in Educational Leadership and Educational Administration programs at University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) member institutions vary by the ADCs' gender, age, racial/ethnic identification, and years of experience in their current chair position? Of the four variables, no statistically significant differences were found to signal variances in the utilization of the leadership

frames by ADCs in Educational Leadership and Educational Administration programs at University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) member institutions by gender, age, racial/ethnic identification, or by the number of years of experience the ADC possessed from the current position as department chair.

*Gender***.** Men and women exercised similar leadership behaviors in the chair position, as indicated by comparable mean scores in Section One, *Behaviors*. In addition, there were no statistically significant differences found in the preferred Bolman and Deal leadership frame by men or women chairs; both sexes scored the Human Resource Frame as the preferred frame, and the second preferred frame was the Structural Frame.

*Age***.** Responses indicated that no statistically significant differences were found between academic department chairs regardless of age or age group. None of the ADC respondents reported being under the age of 41 years old. The respondents were divided into three age groups by their reported age (41-50, 51-60, and 61 or over). It was determined that regardless of the respondents' age group, no statistically significant differences occurred in their preferences of leadership frame or exercise of leadership behaviors.

*Race***.** The self-reported racial/ethnic identification of respondents yielded no statistically significant differences in the utilization of leadership styles or behaviors. Those who identified as "White" and those categorized as "Non-White" exhibited comparable self-perceived preferences and behaviors; therefore, race is not a factor in the utilization of Bolman and Deal leadership frames.

*Years as Chair***.** The data also showed that it did not matter if the chair had been in position for five or fewer years, or 6 or more years in their programs. There was no

statistically significant difference between the groups based on years of experience. Newer chairs and seasoned chairs alike preferred the Human Resource Frame, and exercised similar leadership behaviors.

Additional Findings

An additional question included in the demographic section by the researcher asked ADCs to indicate the level each respondent saw himself or herself as an administrator and/or a faculty member in their current role as department chair. All 48 respondents reported that they, at a minimum, saw themselves equally balanced as a faculty member and administrator or they perceived themselves as more of an administrator than a faculty member. None of the respondents saw themselves solely as a faculty member, and only one respondent indicated that he or she perceived the chair position as solely an administrator position. A smaller number of respondents did report perceiving themselves as more of a faculty member than an administrator in their current role.

Section Three, *Overall Rating,* asked the respondents to rate themselves on their overall effectiveness as a manager when they compare themselves to other individuals they have known with comparable experience and responsibility. All of the respondents who answered this question reported that they considered themselves at least in the middle 20% of overall management effectiveness, and 31 of the 45 respondents rated themselves higher, indicating that they perceived their management effectiveness in the top 20% when compared to contemporaries.

On their overall effectiveness as a leader, the results were similarly reported, although the women respondents self-rated themselves higher in leadership effectiveness

than management effectiveness compared to others. Of the 45 respondents, 37 reported that they were in the top 20% of overall effectiveness, and the remainder felt they were in the category of the middle 20%. None of the participants rated themselves in the bottom 20%. These results did not show a statistically significant difference by the independent variable of gender. Mean scores were comparable between men and women in their self-ratings of overall effectiveness as a manager and as a leader in the current position at the UCEA member institution.

Conclusions

The researcher reached the following conclusions from the findings of this study:

1. Leadership frames are individual perceptions, lenses, filters, or tools to interpret situations that can become an administrator's primary orientation. Bolman and Deal categorized these frames as Structural, Human Resource, Political, or Symbolic.
2. Common amongst human beings, whether they manage or lead departments, or are faculty, is that they are individuals of value, a means unto themselves and not just a means to an end in fulfilling the goals of the organization.
3. The Human Resource Frame is the most preferred among administrators regardless of demographics of age, gender, racial or ethnic identification, and years of experience in the position.
4. The Human Resource orientation is primarily focused on the people in the organization and their interpersonal relationships with each other, and administrators tend to overrate themselves on their HR leadership behaviors.

5. Leadership and management are two entirely different concepts. Leadership consists of more transformational qualities, such as growth in the organization and the development of people; whereas, management involves maintaining order.
6. Administrators' self-perceived effectiveness in leadership and management, two mutually exclusive concepts, is often contradicted by the subordinates' opinions of the administrator's self-perceived effectiveness in these areas.
7. An administrator may undermine his or her own effectiveness not adjusting one's leadership style to compensate for the situation at hand, or not employing multi-frame thinking by discounting that different situations, involving humans, will differ and may have many viable solutions.
8. The Structural Frame, the second preferred frame in this study, is the frame researchers consider the "go to" for the inexperienced, but it has not been the second preference in all leadership frame studies. It is sometimes replaced by the Symbolic Frame in research on higher education administrators' and is associated with effectiveness in management, not necessarily with leadership.
9. ADCs often short-change themselves by not being more astute in the Political Frame, the least preferred frame of this study, since higher education is an environment where academic department chairs often compete for resources in fluctuating economies. The Political Frame and the Symbolic Frame are more closely associated to effectiveness in leadership; therefore, administrators should consider improving their political acumen.
10. This study showed that UCEA ADCs of educational leadership programs chose the Symbolic Frame as their third preference. Since symbolism represents the

heart of the organization through ceremony and rituals, administrators should find moments to make bold statements that may yield strong results by positively affecting subordinates' perceptions of the administrator's leadership.

11. No significant differences were found in the mean scores of men and women respondents in their choices of preferred frames or leadership behaviors.
12. The composition of the responding ADCs in this study was consistent with the data on age, race, and rank of studies on faculty and administrative positions in higher education. In over 20 years, the only visible growth is in the increase of women in the chair position. The biggest disparity was in the racial component of the chairs – minorities were less than 8% of those who responded.
13. Overall, women scored themselves higher than the men in their effectiveness as a leader when compared to other people with comparable responsibilities and experience that that they have known. However, both men and women rated themselves higher in the area of leadership effectiveness than in effectiveness as a manager. The genders were evenly divided in their self-reported effectiveness as managers.

Discussion

A current snapshot of today's academic department chairs in Educational Leadership or Educational Administration programs at UCEA member institutions looks quite similar to the demography of chairs as late as 2004. As the literature stated, in 2004, the findings of a national study showed that chairs were 96% White, 3% Asian, and only 1% Black (Carroll, 1991; Carroll & Wolverton 2004). Carroll's (2004) study suggested

that chairs are roughly, on average, 46 years old and about 10% are women. Women chairs tend to be on average around 44 years of age, younger than their male counterparts, and they are less likely to be full professors when they start the position or have been a full professor for a short time (Carroll & Wolverton, 2004).

The picture of today's chairs emerged from the respondents' demographics: Majority of UCEA program chairs are White. Whites account for over 83% of chairs in this study. They are evenly split between White males and females, but the age line is clear. All of the respondents are over the age of 41 years old. The average age of women in the chair position is 44 years of age, younger than the average age of males in this position (Carroll, 1991). Many administrators in higher education, are 40 years of age or older (Brower & Balch, 2005; Carroll & Wolverton, 2004; Mills, 2006).

The largest group of chairs in this study reported being new to the position, having only been in this role for five or fewer years at their current institution. They are new to the chair position, but over 35 of the 48 surveyed reported having a faculty career that spans 10 or more years. The next largest group reported that 11 chairs had 10 or fewer years experience as faculty in an education program. Just as the literature predicted, 32 of the chairs are at full professor rank, and 13 are at associate professor rank. None of the respondents reported being a lower rank such as assistant professor or instructor. This is also in line with the literature that suggested that due to the nature of the chair position, for legal reasons, chairs are often at a higher rank and tenured in institutions. Carroll and Wolverton (2004) found in their research that chairs were commonly tenured.

In addition, in this study and aligned with the research by institution, the respondents reported considering him or herself on the side of more administrator than faculty. Walzer (1975) found that over 83% of those chairs viewed themselves as faculty members and not as administrators. Carroll and Wolverton (2004) also stated that chairs do not see themselves as administrators, but instead identify as faculty. They said less than 5% of chairs will define their role as exclusively administrative. Contrary to Walzer's 1975 article, in this study only 19% viewed themselves as more of a faculty member than an administrator. The majority of respondents, 44% considered themselves to be equally balanced as a faculty member and an administrator. The second largest group, 35%, viewed themselves as more of an administrator than as a faculty member. However, just as the literature from Carroll and Wolverton stated, only one chair reported that he or she viewed the role as solely an administrator (2%). This is very closely aligned with the less than 5% predicted by Carroll and Wolverton (2004).

The research was clear, in this study and across the gamut of research included in the literature for this research, regardless of gender, age, racial/ethnic identification, or the number of years in the chair position, the respondents preferred the Human Resource Frame (Bolman & Deal, 1992; Guidry, 2007; Kotti, 2008; Palestini, 1999; Probst, 2011; Sypawka, 2008; Welch, 2002). The second preference was the Structural Frame (Bolman & Deal, 1992; Probst, 2011). One possible cause for this phenomenon could be as researchers Bolman and Deal (1992) and Bensimone (1990) pointed out, that the less experienced an administrator is, the more likely he or she will revert to operating within the Human Resource and Structural Frame. The picture painted of a department chair at a UCEA member institution from the demographics of respondents in this study suggests that the

majority of chairs have been in their position for less than five years, and, thus, they are new, and assumed inexperienced chairs.

In line with research about leadership frames, the Human Resource frame tends to be the leadership orientation that most administrators perceive as their preferred frame and also as the leadership behaviors they exhibit the most (Bolman & Deal, 1992; Guidry, 2007; Kotti, 2008; Palestini, 1999; Probst, 2011, Sypawka, 2008; Welch, 2002). At the foundation of the Human Resource Frame is the humane belief in cultivating human relations through communication and respect for persons, as well as the development of human capital because of its perceived value. The highest ratings in the Human Resource frame were for respondents perceptions that they would be best described a humanist, being caring and supportive of others was their most important leadership trait, that people would most likely notice their concern for people, and they felt being a good listener was also strong descriptor for them.

At a time when most administrators are rating themselves as high in transformational leadership behaviors, such as the Human Resource Frame is, the volume of research on incidents of workplace complaints, incivility, and violence are increasing as these issues in higher education become more public (Hershcovis, 2011; Hollis, 2013; Keashly, 2010). If this is true, then how can administrators in supervisory positions over their faculty and staff laude their human relations skills? An inverse relationship appears to be present, at least in perceptions. However, Bolman and Deal (1992) stated that although the survey shows high reliability, the validity of the instrument is a limitation because it depended on the respondents to rate themselves honestly and accurately. Bensimone (1989) stated that her findings in a research study of higher education

presidents that self-ratings in the Human Resource Frame are often inflated by respondents.

The study showed the least preferred frame of ADCs in UCEA member institutions was the Political Frame. This is in keeping with the literature (Guidry, 2007; Kotti, 2008; Palestini, 1999; Probst, 2011; Welch (2002). Bolman and Deal (1992) advocated that administrators learn to become more adept at playing the political game in their institutions, particularly since it is an environment in which everyone is competing for resources their people and programs need to survive, grow, and sustain. The research suggested that this is the frame that most people apply a negative connotation to, but this is also the frame concerned with building coalitions, developing relationships with those who have power and can assist a chair in obtaining what is needed to fulfill the demands of the position, and it is also the frame where personal power is highlighted. The studies of Guidry (2007), Kotti (2008), Palestini (1999), Probst (2011), and Welch (2002) all reported the Political Frame to be the least preferred. Interestingly, Probst (2011) also found that whether or not a participant was involved in a leadership training program, the preferred frame was not affected. The type of leadership program might be key to the effect it would have on participants' orientations.

This research study focused on personal and professional variables (gender, age, racial/ethnic identification, and the years of experience in the current chair position) and how they might have affected the preferred frame and leadership behaviors exhibited by academic department chairs. The results of this study showed that no statistically significant differences were found between the mean scores of the respondents by any of the test variables. This finding is in keeping with the research of Kotti (2008) and Guidry

(2007). However, Palestini (1999) did find a difference in how men reported themselves as being more Structural more than the females, but Palenstini's study also showed that the years in the current position did not have an impact as a variable. Sypawka (2008) also found that number of years in the administrative position showed no significance.

Recommendations for Practitioners

This study focused on individuals who hold academic department chair positions at UCEA member institutions only; therefore, the findings of this study are not intended to be generalized to other categories of schools or administrative positions. However, some of the findings in this study are supported in the literature and may be able to help administrators in higher education improve their decision-making pedagogy and also to adjust their leadership behaviors and styles.

1. Practitioners could be served by self-reflecting and asserting conscious effort into integrating frames, particularly political and symbolic, into their decision-making pedagogy. A reflection of past situations and how they can be reframed can serve as the basis of this new shift in paradigm.
2. Research supports that there are rarely any statistically significant differences between the leadership styles and behaviors of men and women, as such practitioners should evaluate their own preconceived biases to assess their perceptions of women's effectiveness as managers and leaders.
3. A comparative analysis can be done to determine how subordinates view the leadership styles of the chair of their department, then offer further training if significant differences are found in the perceptions by subordinates' gender.

4. Practitioners can analyze the policies in their departments to assess if they are human relations focused, structurally sound, appropriately applicable for all faculty, and evenly applied to find areas where statements can be made to symbolically demonstrate support for subordinates in the department.

Recommendations for Further Research

As indicated by the findings of this study, future research on leadership frames in higher education can benefit from the following recommendations.

1. The research indicated that most academic department chairs often rely on the Human Resource and Structural frames; thus, a study of the attitudes and opinions of newly positioned chairs compared to those chairs within retirement range could provide insight into attitudinal shifts.
2. A national study of all educational leadership or educational administration programs, by regions, could determine if personal history variables such as race, religion, economic background, and other characteristics have an effect on the emphasis of the chair in regards to people, policy, politics, and symbolism as the research suggested.
3. A qualitative or mixed-methods study giving voice to administrators' reasoning for how they manifest their preferred leadership frames could provide a better understanding of ADCs decision-making.
4. An analysis of the written missions and value statements for academic departments to determine the leadership orientation of the department; is it visionary, humanist, and etc. according to Bolman and Deal's descriptors.

5. A gap study could be conducted utilizing the orientations of Bolman and Deal, as a 360 feedback normative evaluation study.

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APPENDIX A: STUDIES ON LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS

APPENDIX A

Research on Leadership Orientations

Table 41

Research on Leadership Orientation

Authors	**Findings**
Bolman and Deal, 1992	In a study of 140 U.S. administrators and principals in Florida and 274 in Singapore, the leadership frame preferred was Human Resource for U.S. And, Structural for Singapore, who place heavy significance on authority. The second for the U.S. was Structural. The second for Singapore was Human Resource.
Guidry, 2007	The first preference of the 17 female deans in this study was the Human Resource Frame. The frames that followed are Symbolic, Structural, and Political. No statistically significant differences in the variables of age, race/ethnicity, time in position, and familial statuses. The majority of the 17 female deans in this study were White and ranged in age from 51-60. Female deans are usually new to the current position, with most in the 0-5 year range.
Jahanshahi, 1992	Female academic department chairs in public and private and doctorate-granting institutions had a dominant leadership style of S3-*Participating*, which was High Supportive and Low Directive and no respondent chose S1-*Telling* which was Low Supportive and High Directive using Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership model (1987).

Table 41 Cont…

Research on Leadership Orientation

Authors	**Findings**
Kotti, 2008	Found that the human resources frame was the frame preferred by Chief Development Officers at doctorate-granting, research institutions in the United States. Contrary to included studies, the CDO's second preference was Symbolic, followed by Structural and Political – the least preferred frame. No statistical differences were found among the variables of age, gender, highest degree earned, years in current position, years as a CDO, years at a doctoral/research university, years in the Advanced Development field, staff size, division size, and type of control.
Palestini, 1999	All administrators surveyed used all four frames at various times but the preferred leadership frame of all continuing education administrators (deans and directors) was Human Resource. Least used of all groups was Political Frame. Gender differences were found: Males described themselves as more structural (t = -4.86) and political (t-5.62) more often than females. Females described as more symbolic than males. No significant differences between the deans and heads regarding years in current position. Two categories differed significantly in use of Symbolic Frame. Directors used it more than deans.
Probst, 2011	Human Resources frame was preferred among 130 administrators (department chairs, academic deans and chief academic officers) in a Midwest community college. The sample was of 68 females and 62 males, not distinguished by position. For all types of administrators in this study, human resources was the preferred frame followed by the Structural Frame. For 72 chairs alone, the order was Human Resource, Structural, Symbolic and Political. There were no significant differences in the preferred frame of, and no significant difference was present regardless of participants' involvement in a leadership training program.

Table 41 Cont…

Research on Leadership Orientation

Authors	**Findings**
Sypawka, 2008	Studied division deans in the North Carolina Community College System and found that the human resources frame was most prevalent leadership frame. No statistically significant differences by educational level, prior business experience outside of education, or number of years as a dean. Gender was not a variable.
Thompson, 2000	Found that if any differences in perceived effectiveness of leaders are found in the three leadership groups was equally true for male and female.
Welch, 2002	13 White, female presidents at four-year public, research institutions in the United States found that the Human Resources was the predominant leadership orientation frame, followed by symbolic, structural, and political frames.

APPENDIX B: LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS SURVEY

APPENDIX B
Leadership Orientation Survey

Background Information

Please tell me about yourself:

***1. Are you male or female?**

- Male
- Female

2. What is your age?

- under 30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51-60
- 61 or over

3. How do you racially or ethnically self-identify?

- White
- Hispanic or Latino
- Black or African American
- Native American or American Indian
- Asian / Pacific Islander
- Other

Other (please specify)

4. How many years have you been a faculty member in an Educational Administration or Leadership program?

- 0-5
- 6-10
- 10-15
- over 15 years

APPENDIX B cont…

LEADERSHIP ORIENTATION SURVEY

5. How many total years of experience do you have as an administrator in any organization?

- 0-5 years
- 6-10 years
- 10-15 years
- over 15 years

6. How is your rank classified in your current position as chair?

- Instructor
- Assistant Professor
- Associate Professor
- Full Professor
- Other

7. How many years have you been chair at your current institution?

- 0-5 years
- 6-10 years
- 10-15 years
- over 15 years

8. How many faculty do you supervise in your current position as chair of your department?

- 0-7
- 7-12
- 13 -18
- 18 or more

9. Please indicate the level to which you see yourself as an administrator and/or as a faculty member? *In my current role as academic department chair, I see myself*:

- soley as a faculty member
- more a faculty member than an administrator
- equally balanced as faculty member and administrator
- more of an administrator than a faculty member
- soley as an administrator

APPENDIX B cont…

Leadership Orientation Survey

I. Behaviors

You are asked to indicate **how often each of the items below is true of you**. Please use the following scale in answering each item. Be discriminating! Your results will be more helpful if you think about each item and distinguish the things that you really do all the time from the things that you do seldom or never.

1. Think very clearly and logically.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

2. Show high levels of support and concern for others.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

3. Have exceptional ability to mobilize people and resources to get things done.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

4. Inspire others to do their best.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

5. Strongly emphasize careful planning and clear time lines.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

6. Build trust through open and collaborative relationships.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

7. Am a very skillful and shrewd negotiator.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

8. Am highly charismatic.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

9. Approach problems through logical analysis and careful thinking.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

10. Show high sensitivity and concern for others' needs and feelings.

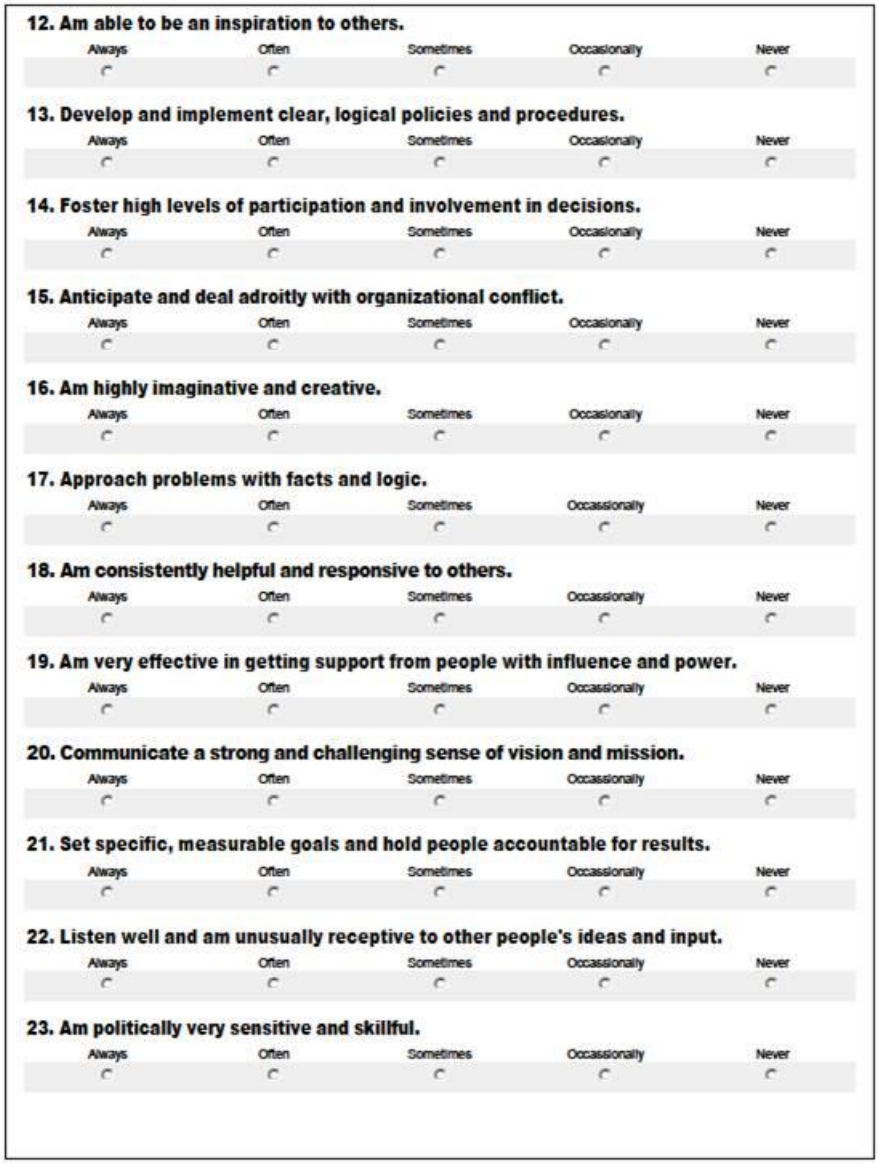
Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

11. Am unusually persuasive and influential.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX B cont…

Leadership Orientation Survey



12. Am able to be an inspiration to others.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

13. Develop and implement clear, logical policies and procedures.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

14. Foster high levels of participation and involvement in decisions.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

15. Anticipate and deal adroitly with organizational conflict.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

16. Am highly imaginative and creative.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

17. Approach problems with facts and logic.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

18. Am consistently helpful and responsive to others.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

19. Am very effective in getting support from people with influence and power.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

20. Communicate a strong and challenging sense of vision and mission.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

21. Set specific, measurable goals and hold people accountable for results.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

22. Listen well and am unusually receptive to other people's ideas and input.

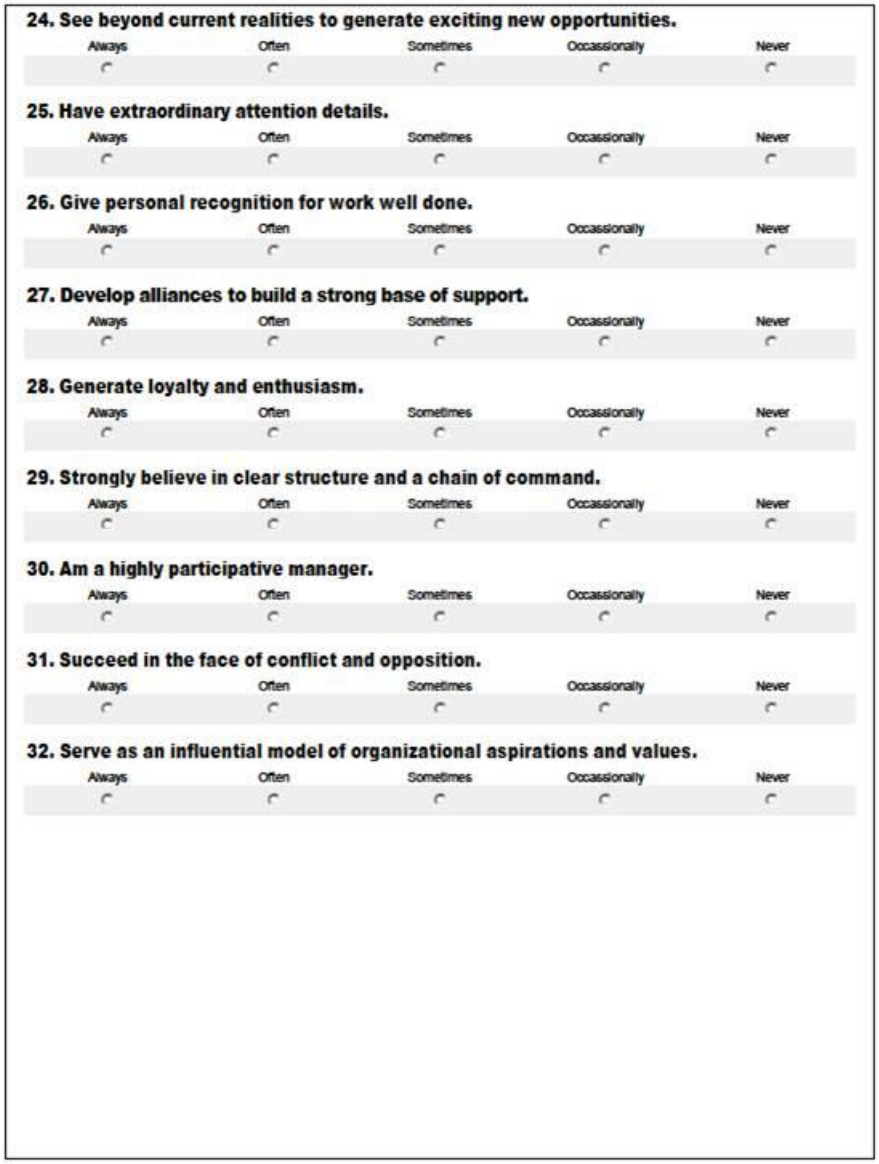
Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

23. Am politically very sensitive and skillful.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX B cont…

Leadership Orientation Survey



24. See beyond current realities to generate exciting new opportunities.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

25. Have extraordinary attention details.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

26. Give personal recognition for work well done.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

27. Develop alliances to build a strong base of support.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

28. Generate loyalty and enthusiasm.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

29. Strongly believe in clear structure and a chain of command.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

30. Am a highly participative manager.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

31. Succeed in the face of conflict and opposition.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

32. Serve as an influential model of organizational aspirations and values.

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occassionally	Never
○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX B cont…

Leadership Orientation Survey

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

1. My strongest skills are:

- a. Analytic skills
- b. Interpersonal skills
- c. Political skills
- d. Ability to excite and motivate

2. The best way to describe me is:

- a. Technical expert
- b. Good listener
- c. Skilled negotiator
- d. Inspirational leader

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

- a. Make good decisions
- b. Coach and develop people
- c. Build strong alliances and a power base
- d. Energize and inspire others

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

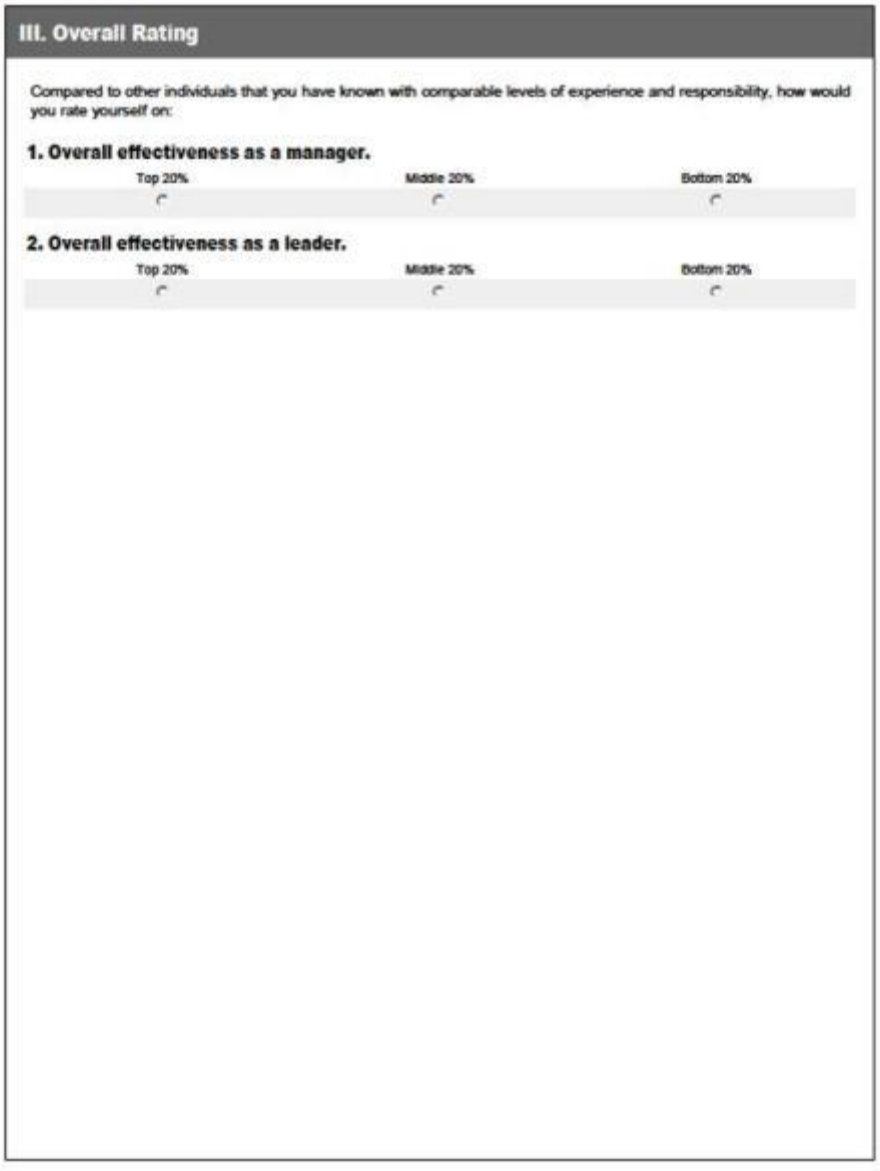
- a. Attention to detail
- b. Concern for people
- c. Ability to succeed, in the face of conflict and opposition
- d. Charisma

APPENDIX B cont…

Leadership Orientation Survey

APPENDIX B

Leadership Orientation Survey



III. Overall Rating

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

1. Overall effectiveness as a manager.

Top 20%	Middle 20%	Bottom 20%
○	○	○

2. Overall effectiveness as a leader.

Top 20%	Middle 20%	Bottom 20%
○	○	○

APPENDIX C: CONSENT FROM LEE BOLMAN

APPENDIX C

Consent from Lee Bolman

Gmail

Sonya Clark <ms.sonya.clark@gmail.com>

RE: Permission to use Leadership Survey

Bolman, Lee G. <BolmanL@umkc.edu> Mon, Oct 22, 2012 at 3:07 PM
To: "ms.sonya.clark@gmail.com" <ms.sonya.clark@gmail.com>
Cc: Lenford Sutton <lsutton@alasu.edu>

Dear Ms. Clark:

Thanks for your interest in the Leadership Orientations Survey. In response to your letter of October 10, I am happy to give you permission to use the instrument in your dissertation.

Best wishes for a successful study. I look forward to learning about the results of your research.

Lee G. Bolman, Ph.D.

Professor and Marion Bloch/Missouri Chair in Leadership

Bloch School of Management

University of Missouri-Kansas City

5100 Rockhill Road

Kansas City, MO 64113

Tel: (816) 235-5407

Web: www.leebolman.com

From: Lenford Sutton [mailto:lsutton@alasu.edu]
Sent: Monday, October 22, 2012 2:53 PM
To: bolmanl@umkc.edu
Cc: Sonya Clark
Subject: Permission to use Leadership Survey

Dr. Bolman:

My name is Lenford C. Sutton and I am an Associate Professor at Alabama State University. Please see the attached request for permisison to use your Leadership Survey. I am the major professor for the student seeking to use your instrument.
I became more familiar with your work while attending the Management Development Program for Higher Education at Harvard University in 2011, used the text as a supplement to teach school finance, and have recommended it for Sonya Clark's dissertation work. Thank you for considering this request.

Lenford Sutton

APPENDIX D: IRB APPROVAL

APPENDIX D

IRB Approval

ASU

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

To: Ms. Sonya Clark

From: Dr. Audrey Napier ara
Institutional Review Board Committee Member

Date: May 31, 2013

Re: Request for Approval of Proposal entitled "*University Council for Education Administration (UCEA) Department Chairs' Self-Perceived Utilization of Bolman & Deal's Four-Frame Theoretical Model.*"

In accordance with the Department of Human Services' Code of Regulations, Title 45 Part 46 -Protection of Human Subjects, I have considered your request for review of the research protocol entitled "*University Council for Education Administration (UCEA) Department Chairs' Self-Perceived Utilization of Bolman & Deal's Four-Frame Theoretical Model.*" Upon examination of your proposed protocol, I have determined that it should be *Exempt from Full Board Review* according to the categories identified in the Code of Federal Regulations Title 45 Public Welfare, Part 46. This approval is based upon the following criteria:

> "*Research conducted in established or commonly accepted educational settings, involving normal educational practices, such as (i) research on regular and special education instructional strategies, or (ii) research on the effectiveness of or the comparison among instructional techniques, curricula, or classroom management methods.*

*Your IRB approval number is **2013COED020A.** This approval is good for one calendar year from the date of this memorandum. Please submit Appendix D to renew your approval if your study has not been completed by May 31, 2014. If your study has been complete, please submit Appendix E, the Final Report, to close your proposal. Please email irb@alasu.edu if you have any further questions or concerns.* This document gives permission from the Alabama State University Institutional Review Board for you to conduct the study.

ara ara

ALABAMA STATE UNIVERSITY
915 S. JACKSON STREET
MONTGOMERY,
ALABAMA
Irb@alasu.edu
www.alasu.edu

APPENDIX E: CONSENT FORM SENT TO PARTICIPANTS

APPENDIX E: CONSENT FORM SENT TO PARTICIPANTS

APPENDIX
Leadership Orientations Survey

Consent Form

This is a dissertation study being conducted by Sonya L. Clark, a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership, Policy & Law (ELPL) program at Alabama State University under the direction of Ronald A. Lindahl, Ph.D., professor in the ELPL program. I would like to invite you to participate in my dissertation research study.

The purpose of this research project is to identify the predominant leadership orientations preferred by academic department chairs (ADCs) of colleges and universities which are member institutions of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA). It is based on research by Lee G. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal (1991). A secondary purpose is to create a profile by examining the relationships between the preferred frame and selected personal and institutional demographic characteristics, including the age, gender, race, and years of experience of the participant.

You are invited to participate in this research project because you are an academic department chair of an educational administration/leadership program in a UCEA member institution. Your participation in this research study is voluntary. You may choose not to participate. If you decide to participate in this research survey, you may withdraw at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you withdraw from participating at any time, you will not be penalized. Your decision whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with Alabama State University.

The self-reporting online questionnaire is estimated to take no more than 15 minutes. The survey uses a Likert rating scale and consists of questions on your leadership and management behaviors. It is designed to identify your preferred frame of leadership or orientation from the four described by researchers Bolman and Deal: human resources, structural, symbolic, or political.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that could identify you will remain confidential. To guarantee your anonymity, I will not collect identifying information such as your name, email address, or IP address. All data will be stored in a password protected electronic format. As part of the agreement with the instrument's authors, a research report and data collected will be provided to Lee Bolman without identifying information, if requested by him. The results of this study will be kept for five years and will be for scholarly purposes only. This research has been reviewed according to Alabama State University's IRB procedures for research involving human subjects.

If you have any questions about the research study, please contact me or my dissertation chair, Ronald A. Lindahl, Ph.D. The contact information follows:

Sonya Clark
Doctoral Student
Educational Leadership, Policy & Law
Alabama State University
915 South Jackson Street
Montgomery, Alabama 36104
(334) 229-5152 phone
(334) 229-4976 fax
ms.sonya.clark@gmail.com

Ronald A. Lindahl, PhD
Professor
Educational Leadership, Policy & Law
Alabama State University
915 South Jackson Street
Montgomery, Alabama 36104
334-229-8824 phone
334-229-5886 fax
rlindahl@alasu.edu

Address any research questions to Alabama State University's Institutional Review Board:

Alabama State University
Institutional Review Board
915 South Jackson Street

APPENDIX F: INVITATION SENT TO PARTICIPANTS

APPENDIX F

Invitation to Participate Sent to UCEA Chairs

Dear UCEA Academic Department Chair:

This is a dissertation study being conducted by Sonya L. Clark, a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership, Policy & Law (ELPL) program at Alabama State University under the direction of Ronald A. Lindahl, Ph.D., professor in the ELPL program. I would like to invite you to participate in my dissertation research study. It is my hope that this study will contribute to the body of knowledge surrounding the development of sound decision-making pedagogy for leaders of educational leadership programs.

The purpose of this research project is to identify the predominant leadership orientations preferred by academic department chairs (ADCs) of colleges and universities which are member institutions of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA). It is based on research by Lee G. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal (1991). A secondary purpose is to create a profile by examining the relationships between the preferred frame and selected personal and institutional demographic characteristics, including the age, gender, race, and years of experience of the participant.

You are invited to participate in this research project because you are an academic department chair of an educational administration/leadership program in a UCEA member institution. Your participation in this research study is voluntary. You may choose not to participate. If you decide to participate in this research survey, you may withdraw at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you withdraw from participating at any time, you will not be penalized. Your decision whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with Alabama State University.

The self-reporting online questionnaire is estimated to take no more than 15 minutes. The survey uses a Likert rating scale and consists of questions on your leadership and management behaviors. It is designed to identify your preferred frame of leadership or orientation from the four described by researchers Bolman and Deal: human resources, structural, symbolic, or political.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that could identify you will remain confidential. To guarantee your anonymity, I will not collect identifying information such as your name, email address, or IP address. All data will be stored in a password protected electronic format. As part of the agreement with the instrument's authors, a research report and data collected will be provided to Lee Bolman, if requested by him. Again, no identifying

APPENDIX F cont…

Invitation to Participate Sent to UCEA Chairs

information will be disclosed. The results of this study will be kept for five years and will be used for scholarly purposes only. This research has been reviewed according to Alabama State University's IRB procedures for research involving human subjects.

If you would like to know more information about this study, an information letter can be obtained by sending me an email to ms.sonya.clark@gmail.com. In addition, you may also request a copy of the research report and one will be sent to you at the conclusion of the study.

If you have any questions about the research study, please contact me or my dissertation chair, Ronald A. Lindahl, Ph.D. The contact information follows:

Sonya Clark
Doctoral Student
Educational Leadership, Policy & Law
Alabama State University
915 South Jackson Street
Montgomery, Alabama 36104
(334) 229-5152 phone
(334) 229-4976 fax
ms.sonya.clark@gmail.com

Ronald A. Lindahl, PhD
Professor
Educational Leadership, Policy & Law
Alabama State University
915 South Jackson Street
Montgomery, Alabama 36104
334-229-8824 phone
334-229-5886 fax
rlindahl@alasu.edu

Please feel free to address any research questions to Alabama State University's Institutional Review Board. The contact information follows:

Alabama State University
Institutional Review Board
915 South Jackson Street
Montgomery, AL 36104
334-229-6859
OIR@alasu.edu

Please do not hesitate to contact me, or any of the additional contacts, as needed. Thank you for your consideration.

Respectfully,
Sonya L. Clark
Graduate Student

APPENDIX G: UCEA MEMBER INSTITUTIONS SURVEYED

APPENDIX G

UCEA Member Institutions Surveyed

Table 42

74 UCEA Member Institutions Surveyed

Auburn University	University of Alabama
Bank Street College	University of Arizona
Brigham Young University	University of Arkansas
Clemson University	University of Central Arkansas
Duquesne University	University of Dayton
Florida Atlantic University	University of Georgia
Florida State University	University of Illinois at Chicago
Fordham University	University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Georgia State University	University of Iowa
Hofstra University	University of Kansas
Illinois State University	University of Kentucky
Indiana University	University of Louisville
Iowa State University	University of Maryland
Kent State University	University of Minnesota
Louisiana State University	University of Missouri
Michigan State University	University of Nebraska Lincoln
New Mexico State University	University of New Mexico
New York University	University of North Carolina at Greensboro
Nipissing University	University of North Texas
North Carolina State University	University of Northern Colorado
Northern Illinois University	University of Oklahoma
Ohio State University	University of Oregon
Oklahoma State University	University of Pennsylvania
Pennsylvania State University	University of Pittsburgh
Portland State University	University of Southampton
Rutgers University	University of Tennessee at Knoxville
Saint Louis University	University of Texas - Austin
Sam Houston State University	University of Texas - Pan American
San Diego State University	University of Texas at San Antonio
St. Johns University	University of Virginia
Stephen F. Austin State University	University of Washington
Temple University	University of Wisconsin-Madison
Tennessee State University	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
Texas A & M University	Vanderbilt University
Texas State University - San Marcos	Virginia Commonwealth University
Texas Womans University	Washington State University
The Chinese University of Hong Kong	
University at Buffalo, SUNY	

APPENDIX H: LETTER FROM MICHELLE YOUNG, PH.D. AT UCEA

APPENDIX H

Letter from Michelle Young, Ph.D. of UCEA

Gmail - Leading Educational Leadership Departments

Gmail

Sonya Clark <ms.sonya.clark@gmail.com>

Leading Educational Leadership Departments

Young, Michelle (mdy8n) <mdy8n@eservices.virginia.edu> Sun, Aug 18, 2013 at 9:42 AM
To: "Lakshman, Kiran (kal4g)" <kal4g@eservices.virginia.edu>
Cc: Sonya Clark <ms.sonya.clark@gmail.com>

Dear Kiran,

Please send this message to all UCEA Department chairs from the UCEA account on Monday. Thanks, mdy

***

Dear UCEA Department Chairs,

I hope you all have had a very pleasant and productive summer. If your summer was like mine, it passed much too quickly.

I am writing to you today with a friendly request. A doctoral student in the Educational Leadership, Policy & Law program at Alabama State University, Sonya Clark, is focusing her dissertation on academic department chairs in UCEA Institutions. She is gathering data on the leadership orientation of department chairs that provide leadership for and/or impact Educational Administration and Leadership programs. Like many doctoral students, she is hoping to have a strong return rate.

Although I'm certain that you have many responsibilities demanding your attention, I do hope that you will take a few minutes to complete Sonya's survey, which can be found at the following URL:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/TGSCNMK

Sonya has assured me that the survey should take no more than 15 minutes to complete. Your participation in her study is, of course, anonymous and voluntary. I would, however, encourage you to participate.

Also, I encourage you to visit the UCEA website for resources on fostering program quality and continuous improvement. Among our more recent resources you will find our "Designing Evaluation Evidence," which is a helpful resource in thinking through the kinds of data to collect, analyze and utilize for program improvement, and out Curriculum Mapping Guide, which provides guidance in intentionally developing curriculum and learning experiences within Educational Leadership programs. These and other resources can be found at www.ucea.org under preparation resources.

Finally, if UCEA can be of service to you or your program in this upcoming semester, please do not hesitate to contact us.

Have a wonderful semester!

Sincerely,

Michelle D. Young, UCEA Executive Director