SELF-REPORT AND DIRECT OBSERVER'S PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP PRACTICES OF CHIEF STUDENT AFFAIRS OFFICERS IN SELECTED INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

A Dissertation

by

DAVID J. ROZEBOOM

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

August 2008

Major Subject: Educational Administration

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Approved by:

Chair of Committee, Christine A. Stanley
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Homer Tolson
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ABSTRACT

Self-Report and Direct Observer's Perceived Leadership Practices of
Chief Student Affairs Officers in Selected Institutions of
Higher Education in the United States. (August 2008)
David J. Rozeboom, B.A., Calvin College;
M.A., The University of Akron
Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. Christine Stanley

The purpose of this study was to determine the perceived leadership practices of chief student affairs officers in the United States in order to establish an understanding of current leadership practices and to assist chief student affairs officers in empowering their organizations to higher levels of excellence and in achieving greater influence in their institutions. Additionally, the researcher examined the relationship between the leadership practices of chief student affairs officers and the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database in order to offer a comparison with a cross-section of this leadership population.

Information on the chief student affairs officers' leadership practices was obtained from the self-assessments of 338 chief student affairs officers (using the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self) and from the assessments of 168 observers of the chief student affairs officers (using the Leadership Practices Inventory-Observer) in five key areas: (1) Challenging the Process; (2) Inspiring a Shared Vision; (3) Enabling

Others to Act; (4) Modeling the Way; and (5) Encouraging the Heart. Participants rated each of the 30 statements on the Leadership Practices Inventory from one through ten to indicate how frequently the chief student affairs officers engaged in the described behavior. By using the Leadership Practices Inventory, the researcher provides empirical data concerning the perceived leadership behavior of chief student affairs officers in the United States.

An analysis of the data revealed that chief student affairs officers perceive themselves as strong and effective leaders. The observers of the chief student affairs officers confirm this finding. A statistical analysis of the data demonstrated the existence of significant predictors related to level of education and type of institution for each of the five leadership practices as identified by Kouzes and Posner and confirmed in this study. However, the practical significance was found to be minimal. Additionally, the constructs for leadership practice differed somewhat from those of Kouzes and Posner. Also, the chief student affairs officers' self-described leadership ratings, when compared to those in the Leadership Practices Inventory database, tended to be in the high range (ranging from the 63rd percentile to the 77th percentile).

DEDICATION

Many have walked beside me along the doctoral journey. Clearly, I dedicate this work to those who have encouraged me, and to a few significant influences in particular.

First and foremost, praise be to the Lord my God. He sustained me when I lacked the motivation that I needed. He has blessed me with the ability to think logically, to push forward strategically, and to hold on to the possibility of what could be. I echo what my mentor Dub said, "I am thankful for God's ultimate gift, Jesus Christ, the savior of the world. Outside of relationship with Him, life is not worth living." May this work be glorifying to God.

To Deena: my wife, my co-laborer, my friend, my partner, and my faithful love: Your sacrifice of time spent with our children helped make this pursuit possible. Your unending belief in my abilities, and your timely accountability, has brought this project to completion. This literally would not have happened without you. Although many may not be able to tell from the words on the pages of text, I know in my heart that you helped make this dream come true. I love your commitment, integrity, honesty, loyalty, and beauty. I look forward to placing this book on a shelf in the homes we will live in, and it will be a continuing reminder to me of your love for me, and mine for you.

To my children Drew (10), Dani (8), Desi (2), and Dakota (6 months): Your love encourages and sustains me daily. I hope you know today and always that I love you very much. I am so proud of you. You are blessings from God!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many have walked beside me along the doctoral journey. I am very grateful for the insight and assistance the following people have offered:

My Texas A&M University doctoral committee simply is the best! My chair is Dr. Christine Stanley. Besides a wonderful *Teaching in Higher Education* class experience with Dr. Stanley early in my program, I had the opportunity to interact with her on numerous occasions along my journey, and have felt properly challenged and supported. Another major influence on my learning journey has been Dr. Bryan Cole. I was able to figuratively sit at his feet in a number of classes and have appreciated his wealth of knowledge and insight on a multitude of student affairs related topics. Dr. Homer Tolson was (and is) my statistics guru, and he has broadened my understanding of statistical analysis. Thank you Herr Professor Dr. Tolson sir! Finally, I was able to successfully recruit Dr. Barry Boyd as my outside committee member. I have a keen interest in leadership education and Dr. Boyd, professor of leadership education and currently President for the Association of Leadership Educators, shares that passion.

My study replicated on a national level the study that Dr. Dub Oliver used for the chief student affairs officers in Texas. Dub, currently Vice President for Student Life at Baylor University, not only offered helpful advice along the way, but he was one of my biggest cheerleaders. Dub had faith that I could do it. I greatly respect him and want to acknowledge the major role he played in this study, and more importantly, in my life.

Next, I would like to acknowledge my relatively new friend at Baylor, Dr. James Stamey. James helped me organize my data and run the analyses so I could speak somewhat intelligently with Dr. Tolson about my findings. Thank you James, for also letting me beat up on you in tennis!

Trey Guinn and Shannon Dean are currently two Residence Hall Directors under my tutelage at Baylor. A testament to their own professionalism and willingness to learn has been their consistent inquiry as to their supervisor's progress in the program. Additionally, Trey spent a good chunk of time helping me comb the database.

Nadine Bruner is also a current Residence Hall Director for me at Baylor. Nadine has been a fantastic cheerleader and also allowed me to borrow her car for three years worth of driving to College Station. Nadine is as spirited as they come, and I am so thankful for her prayerful support.

Ron Brown and Brady Dennis are two fellow doctoral program colleagues. In fact, Ron Brown and I met at our interviews back in 2003. I want to acknowledge their part in "cohorting" me on to completion.

Dr. Frank Shushok, Terri Garrett, and Elizabeth Wallace – all in my upline at Baylor sometime over the past six years – have each contributed to my growth and development and thus my completion of this program.

Additionally, I would like to acknowledge the contributions of the many student leaders and professional staff at Baylor who helped secure contact information for the database.

Finally, I would like to acknowledge my family (Washington, Pennsylvania, Michigan) and friends who encouraged me to press on to completion.

Though some may not be able to support multiple institutions with their heart, I can honestly say “Gig ‘Em” and “Sic ‘Em!”

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

TABLE OF CONTENTS (continued)

TABLE OF CONTENTS (continued)

TABLE OF CONTENTS (continued)

Page

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF TABLES (continued)

LIST OF TABLES (continued)

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Bolman and Deal (2003) stated that "leadership is thus a subtle process of mutual influence fusing thought, feeling, and action to produce cooperative effort in the service of purposes and values embraced by both the leader and the led" (339). Senge (1990) called for a shift in the mind regarding the concept of leadership, a shift to a view of leaders as designers, stewards, and teachers. Bolman and Deal (2003) recognized that leadership is often misunderstood and used as a solution to all organizational problems. DePree (1989) stated that despite an investment in teaching, discussing, writing, and thinking about concepts of leadership and leadership practices, the components of leadership still lack sufficient explanation. Komives, Lucas, and McMahon (2007) stated that although leadership is closely observed, it remains a difficult phenomena to understand. In fact, written opinions about leadership are more common now than ever before. Kauffman (1987) noted that while studies of business, political, and military leaders have always been of interest, the interest in leadership in educational institutions has recently increased exponentially. What is leadership?

Definitions of leadership have changed over time, particularly as influence in politics and business have taken different forms over time. Definitions are as varied as the authors who seek to define this elusive concept (Caskey, 1988). Kouzes and Posner

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This dissertation follows the style and format of *The Journal of Educational Research*.

(2002) shared that the fundamentals of leadership have not changed through the ages; however, what *has* changed are content and context. Efficient definitions do not do justice to the concept of leadership because it is complex, multi-faceted, multidisciplinary, and rich in depth. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) noted that leadership occurs any time one attempts to influence the behavior of an individual or group, regardless of the reason. Schein (2004) recognizes leadership as a unique function of culture creation.

Although there were few definitions of leadership prior to the 1980s, educators have adjusted leadership definitions with time. Frederick Taylor's (1998) concept of scientific management in the early twentieth century understood leadership in terms of productivity of each individual "cog in the machine." Hersey and Blanchard (1988) also pointed to the Human Relations Movement initiated by Elton Mayo as shaping thinking about leadership. At the same time, leadership was believed to exist only in a few elite individuals and these great male leaders were the result of hereditary properties (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007).

In fact, prior to 1945, the most common approach to leadership concentrated on these inherent qualities that gifted one toward leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). A leader had superior or endowed qualities that differentiate leaders from followers (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007).

Behavioral theories to leadership were given full support in the mid-twentieth century. Behavioral theories touted that there is one best way to lead and effectiveness

is the result of combined concern for both people and production (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007).

Leadership effectiveness was then measured by a situational approach to leadership (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988). That is, situations determined leaders because different leadership behaviors were required for different situations. Contingency theorists offered the solution of "it depends." Birnbaum (1988) pointed out that a contingency perspective cautions administrators to be wary of simple solutions to complex issues.

Reciprocal or relational approaches to leadership included transformational and servant leadership, each which viewed leadership as a process by which leaders share power and strive for higher purposes (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007). In fact, relational leadership is inclusive and empowers followers.

Bennis (1984) suggested that leadership is the key to managing change in culture, processes, and strategies. Oliver (2001) suggested that the value of studying leaders and leadership is enhanced by the overwhelming need we have in our society for leadership that will bring about greater effectiveness and improvement. Kouzes and Posner (2002) called for a deeper understanding of leadership because leading is an enterprise and a relationship that revitalizes an organization and brings growth and enrichment to a community. Thus, the concept of leadership demands further study.

Statement of the Problem

Drucker (1954), who was profoundly interested in management, suggested that no business is likely to be better than its top management, have broader vision than its top people, or perform better than they do. Additionally, organizational effectiveness depends upon infrastructure and mission as well. Leadership, though, is distinguishable from management. Blake and Mouton (1964) stated that leaders must use their ability to guide, motivate, and integrate the efforts of others in order to accomplish their objectives. Bolman and Deal (2003) stated that although leadership is a change-oriented process of visioning, networking, and building relationships, leadership is distinguishable from management primarily because of a systemic view of the challenges facing an organization. Buckingham (2005) differentiated between management and leadership by saying that the prime objective of managers is to focus on individual talents while the prime objective of leaders is to provide clarity for followers.

According to Drucker (1977), leadership was lacking in public institutions, including higher education. There were great demands upon leaders to address the issues facing the complex models of higher education, and a reframing of leadership was needed (Bolman & Deal, 2003). In fact, as society has seen dramatic changes in the last few decades, excellent leadership is expected in all organizations. Nuss (1994) exclaimed that the need for strong positive role models has never been more important.

Researchers have revealed that administrative behavior was the most powerful predictor of organizational effectiveness in colleges and universities (Cameron, 1986).

Such a finding suggests that an administrator's leadership capacity outweighs considerations of institutional type, institutional culture, governance structure, and institutional mission. Jim Collins (2001) pointed out that strong organizations place a greater weight on hiring the right people than on organizational direction. He also noted that leadership capability carries more significance than specific skills, knowledge, or work experience.

Shay (1984) offered that most college and university presidents value and welcome leadership assistance from chief student affairs officers. In fact, student affairs personnel have been called upon to be more assertive in institutional leadership. Burns (1995) stated that not only is there a need for competent leaders in an increasingly complex world, but a new partnership for developing leaders needs to be formed between academic departments and student affairs.

Many chief student affairs officers seemed reluctant to provide leadership beyond their areas because they perceived their role as one of support to the president rather than as an equal member in the decision-making process (Johnson, 1989). According to Brown (1997), the intense scrutiny of student affairs by the academic community is the direct result of the perception that chief student affairs officers lack leadership.

The communication of this function has been lacking and chief student affairs officers need to provide more aggressive leadership (Koltai & Wolf, 1984). Welch (1986) stated the case more directly when he called for chief student affairs officers who are aggressively committed to student development and have the ability to communicate

area goals to the president and board and marshal support to assist students in reaching their educational goals. An able leader fosters support for the mission of student affairs by explaining how student affairs complements and enhances the academic mission of colleges and universities (Brown, 1997).

Chief student affairs officers have the opportunity to help students make the most of their college experience by shaping the environment and campus culture to meet student needs. Bolman and Deal (2003) outlined four frames (structural, human resource, political, and symbolic) that chief student affairs officers may use to frame the culture of their institution of higher education. Schein (2004) sees leaders embedding their assumptions about mental models, basic principles and guiding visions in the culture of the organization.

Senge (1990) highlighted personal mastery of a leader and the ability to continually learn how to see current reality more clearly as being the reason too few chief student affairs officers advance to top executive positions. Given the scope of impact on student and organizational learning of the chief student affairs officer, why is student affairs not more central in the leadership of the institution? Brubacher and Rudy (1997) contended that this is a function of the historical roots of the profession, described as a passive role in support of the academic mission and classroom learning. The research by Richard Light (2001) captured the magnitude of learning that occurs *outside* the classroom, specifically in the residence halls. Additionally, current role perceptions focus more on the student affairs division than on the entire university (Oliver, 2001). Yet, it is the lack of leadership in student affairs that is problematic.

Many chief student affairs officers have failed to make the connection between development and influence. Schein (2004) notes that a commitment too many things, particularly to leading, can improve systemic thinking, open communication, efforts regarding diversity, and cultural analysis.

Despite the importance placed on institutional leadership, leadership development is still regarded with skepticism in the academy (McDade, 1989). McDade (1989) described chief student affairs officers as constantly working toward the maturation of students within the short-term framework of their stay in college, understanding and advancing the roles of student affairs within the larger context and academic mission of the institution, politically balancing the naturally arising conflicts between students and their environment, and continually changing structures and processes to meet new problems and needs. While most chief student affairs officers participated in the development of strategic plans for their divisions, few devoted similar time and energy to the development of a plan for their own leadership development. "Meeting the leadership challenge is a personal—and a daily—challenge for all of us" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, xxviii).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the perceived leadership practices of chief student affairs officers in selected institutions of higher education in order to establish an understanding of current leadership practices. In addition, the researcher reviewed specific demographic variables as well as differences between self-identified

leadership scores and observed leadership scores. The researcher used this study to determine leadership practices of chief student affairs officers and to provide direction for student affairs leaders and emerging professionals as to the strengths and weaknesses of the current leadership practices in student affairs.

To accomplish this purpose, chief student affairs officers were provided a leadership practices inventory and surveyed in five key areas as defined by Kouzes and Posner (2002): (1) challenging the process--leaders search for opportunities to change the status quo by experimenting and taking risks; (2) inspiring a shared vision—leaders passionately believe that they can make a difference and they not only envision the future, they enlist others in their dreams; (3) enabling others to act—leaders foster collaboration by creating an atmosphere of trust and mutual respect; (4) modeling the way—leaders establish principles by setting an example for others to follow and by setting goals for small accomplishments that build toward larger objectives; and (5) encouraging the heart—leaders recognize individual contributions and celebrate accomplishments so that team members feel valued.

As leaders in higher education, chief student affairs officers play a critical role in assuring student development outcomes are achieved. Researcher observations indicated practices which demonstrated common strengths for chief student affairs officers. The obtained information may provide substantive ideas for enriching the development of leaders in student affairs through graduate programs and professional staff development.

Additionally, the researcher used the study to examine the relationship between the leadership practices of chief student affairs officers in the United States and the

leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database. The results offer a descriptive comparison with a cross-section of this leadership population—all of the people who make up the Leadership Practices Inventory database.

Research Questions

This study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the self-reported, perceived leadership practices of chief student affairs officers in selected institutions of higher education in the United States?
2. Do chief student affairs officers at selected institutions of higher education in the United States who differ in terms of specific demographic variables, differ in terms of self-reported, perceived leadership practices as indicated by the Leadership Practices Inventory?
3. Are there differences between chief student affairs officers (LPI-Self) at selected institutions of higher education in the United States and those who observe them (LPI-Observer) in terms of perceived leadership scores on the five practices?
4. Are there differences between chief student affairs officers at selected institutions of higher education in the United States in terms of the five perceived practices of leadership scores and the leadership scores in Kouzes and Posner's database?

Operational Definitions

The findings of this study are to be reviewed within the context of the following definitions of operational terminology:

Leadership

Leadership is a subtle process of mutual influence fusing thought, feeling, and action to produce cooperative effort in the service of purposes and values of *both* the leader and the led (Bolman and Deal, 2003).

Leadership Practices

Leadership practices are the five behaviors that comprise more than 80% of leaders' actions and were established by Kouzes and Posner (1988) through empirical research. The five practices include challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart.

Challenging the Process

Leaders search for opportunities to change the status quo. They look for innovative ways to improve the organization. In doing so, they experiment and take risks. And because leaders know that risk taking involves mistakes and failures, they accept the inevitable disappointments as learning opportunities.

Inspiring a Shared Vision

Leaders passionately believe that they can make a difference. They envision the future, creating an ideal and unique image of what the organization can become. Through their magnetism and quiet persuasion, leaders enlist others in their dreams.

They breathe life into their visions and get people to see exciting possibilities for the future.

Enabling Others to Act

Leaders foster collaboration and build spirited teams. They actively involve others. Leaders understand that mutual respect is what sustains extraordinary efforts: they strive to create an atmosphere of trust and human dignity. They strengthen others, making each person feel capable and powerful.

Modeling the Way

Leaders establish principles concerning the way people (constituents, colleagues, and customers alike) should be treated and the way goals should be pursued. They create standards of excellence and then set an example for others to follow. Because the prospect of complex change can overwhelm people and stifle action, they set interim goals so that people can achieve small wins as they work toward larger objectives. They unravel bureaucracy when it impedes action; they put up signposts when people are unsure of where to go or how to get there; and they create opportunities for victory.

Encouraging the Heart

Accomplishing extraordinary things in organizations is hard work. To keep hope and determination alive, leaders recognize contributions that individuals make. In every winning team, the members need to share in the rewards of their efforts, so leaders celebrate accomplishments. They make people feel like heroes.

Leadership Practices Inventory

The Leadership Practices Inventory tool was established by Kouzes and Posner (1988) and is used to determine the perceived use of the five behaviors that comprise essential leadership practices. The Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI-S) is composed of thirty questions (ten-point Likert scale) answered by the chief student affairs officer and is used to give insight into the leadership practices of the chief student affairs officer. The Leadership Practices Inventory-Observer (LPI-O) is composed of thirty questions (ten-point Likert scale) answered by those working with the chief student affairs officer (designated by the chief student affairs officer) and is used to give insight into the leadership practices of the chief student affairs officer.

Direct Report

A direct report is a person who is directly supervised by the chief student affairs officer.

Leadership Style

Leadership style is the consistent behavior patterns that leaders use when they are working with and through other people, as perceived by those people (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Chief Student Affairs Officer

A chief student affairs officer is an individual holding the primary leadership position for student affairs at a college or university. Such individuals may hold a variety of titles including (but not limited to) Vice President for Student Affairs, Associate Provost for Student Life, or Dean of Students.

Selected Institutions of Higher Education

These institutions of higher education were representative across size and institutional type.

Specific Demographic Variables

The specific demographic variables refer to gender, ethnicity, number of years in present position, educational background, type of institution, and size of institution.

Assumptions

The findings of this study were based on the following assumptions:

1. College and university chief student affairs officers engage in observable leadership practices and those practices can be assessed and analyzed through the completion of the Leadership Practices Inventory.
2. The five dimensions comprising the Leadership Practices Inventory were valid measures of observable leadership behaviors and practices.
3. The chief student affairs officers were not unduly biased by the statements on the Leadership Practices Inventory and rated themselves honestly.
4. Those responding to the survey instrument were representative of the population for which the survey was designed.

Limitations

This research is bound by its context. The findings may not be generalized to any other groups of student affairs officers or other leaders within institutions of higher

education. There may be transferability depending on similarity of resulting leadership practices.

Significance of the Study

Leadership is a viable construct, and the researcher of this study attempted to understand and measure this phenomenon among leaders in the student affairs profession. Several authors and researchers (Bennis, 1989; Heifetz, 1994; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Peters & Austin, 1985; Senge, 1990) have determined that what a leader does or does not do has a significant impact on organizational effectiveness and individual motivation.

Kouzes and Posner (2002) conclude that leaders are influential through their actions and activities, not rhetoric. How chief student affairs officers utilize leadership practices often determines the significance of their impact on organizational effectiveness. This significance in leadership practice is primarily due to the fact that leaders are observed for how they lead in addition to what they say. That is, espoused values are strengthened or diminished by the actions chosen by the leader. Therefore, leaders set an example by how they behave. By using the Leadership Practices Inventory, the researcher gave empirical data concerning the behavior of chief student affairs officers in the United States.

Since there is a recognized general perception that leadership in higher education is not always effective, the knowledge gained from this study may permit chief student affairs officers to further assess their leadership actions and behaviors. This assessment will ultimately lead to an increased ability to influence the campuses and students they

serve, and to appropriately motivate those who follow. Ultimately, leadership in higher education will be strengthened.

Contents of the Dissertation

This dissertation is divided into five major units or chapters. Chapter I contains an introduction, a statement of the problem, a purpose of the study, research questions, operational definitions, assumptions, limitations, significance of the study, and contents of the dissertation. Chapter II contains a review of related literature. The methodology and procedures can be found in Chapter III, and Chapter IV contains the presentation and analyses of the data collected in the study. Chapter V contains the researcher's summary, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

In order to present a study that would reflect adequate planning, organization, background, and methodology, an in-depth review of the appropriate leadership literature was conducted. In this chapter the researcher provides a broad overview of the diverse theories and extensive literature surrounding leadership research studies. In the initial part of the literature review the researcher introduces and details four major categories of leadership theories. Additionally, in later segments the researcher discusses the leadership framework used in this study, leadership in higher education in general, and student affairs leadership in particular. The researcher's intent was not to summarize all of the leadership research, but to provide a context in which the current study may be understood.

Leadership has been a topic of interest to historians and philosophers since ancient times, but it was only around the early 1900s that scientific studies of leadership began. Since that time, scholars and other writers have offered more than 350 definitions of the term "leadership" (Daft, 1999). James MacGregor Burns (1978) concluded that leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth. In fact, Peter Northouse (2007) notes that leadership is a complex process that has multiple dimensions. Thus, for the purpose of this study, leadership was defined as a subtle process of mutual influence fusing thought, feeling, and action to produce cooperative effort in the service of purposes and values of *both* the leader and the led (Bolman &

Deal, 2003). Influence means that the relationship among people is not passive; however, also inherent in this definition is the idea that leadership is multidirectional and non-coercive (Daft, 1999).

Leadership is very much on everyone's mind today. The world is much more complex today than it was even 20 years ago. It changes before our eyes in endless variations. However, even as it becomes more difficult to be a leader, it becomes more and more necessary to have good leaders. Without leadership, an organization is like a lifeboat adrift in turbulent seas with no oars, no compass, no maps, and no hope (Nanus, 1992). Without leadership, learning and change are deterred (Schein, 2004).

Perhaps Browne and Cohn (1958) noted one of the most articulate and direct summaries regarding the status of leadership research when they stated:

> Through all of the subsequent history of man's attempts to record human experiences, leadership has been recognized to an increasingly greater extent as one of the significant aspects of human activity. As a result, there is now a great mass of "leadership literature" which, if it were to be assembled in one place, would fill many libraries. The great part of this mass, however, would have little organization; it would evidence little in the way of common assumptions and hypothesis; it would vary widely in theoretical and methodological approaches. To a great extent, therefore, leadership literature is a mass of content without any coagulating substances to bring it together or to produce coordination and point out interrelationships.

A cursory review of other attempts at summarizing the leadership literature, such as books, dissertations, and papers, suggested that many authors and researchers have discussed the leadership information according to four fundamental categories: trait, behavioral, contingency, and reciprocal theories.

Any organization of leadership literature will expose at least some overlap in the theories, as they are not mutually exclusive. Yet, examining these four broad theories will allow the identification and discussion of many of the classic studies of leadership and some contemporary models as well.

Leadership Theory Categories

Trait Theories

Early researchers thought that leaders might possess specific characteristics or personality traits that enabled them to assume and function effectively in leadership roles. This belief was grounded in the assumption that personal abilities and powers associated with being a leader were innate. Thus, the widely held view of trait theorists was that leaders are born as leaders. The traits and abilities of a leader could be developed, but only if the individual was born with those abilities. Fiedler and Chemers (1974) discovered that a wide range of personality attributes, such as intelligence, aggressiveness, and decision-making ability, were studied by trait theorists, as well as physical characteristics such as height, weight, and appearance, in attempts to identify qualities common in all leaders.

Another description of trait theory leadership is the "great man" theory. Baird (1977) noted that this theory held that great leaders and their characteristics might best be explained on the basis of inheritance. Again, leaders are born with the abilities to lead, influence, and direct others. The great man theory is not surprising since history is full of examples of men who greatly influenced or dominated their eras. Woods (1913) is

one example of the many early researchers who conducted studies attempting to identify and understand leadership traits that might be inborn in leaders. This approach sought to identify the traits that leaders possessed that distinguished them from non-leaders. Generally, researchers found only a weak relationship between personal traits and leader success (Yukl, 1981). It is apparent today that the diversity of traits possessed by effective leaders indicates that leadership ability is not necessarily a genetic endowment.

However, during the 1940s and 1950s, with the advancement of the field of psychology, researchers began to use aptitude and psychological tests to examine a broad range of traits. The researchers began by trying to isolate the traits possessed by leaders that were not possessed by others. The desire was to create a checklist of leadership attributes that could predict leadership potential. Researchers investigated personality traits such as creativity and self-confidence, social traits such as tact and popularity, work-related characteristics such as desire to excel and task orientation, and physical traits such as activity and energy (Bass, 1981). Effective leaders were often identified by exceptional follower performance, or by a high status position within an organization and a salary that exceeded that of one's peers (Yukl, 1981).

Stogdill (1948) conducted a literature review of over 100 studies based on the trait approach. He discovered several traits that appeared consistent with effective leadership, including a basic willingness to be in a position of control over others, and being attuned to the needs of others. While his review revealed the possibility of several universal traits, the situation the leader found himself in was often a key determinant in whether or not the universal traits were effective. Creativity, for example, may

contribute to the success of a leader in one situation, but it may be irrelevant or detrimental to a leader in another situation. In light of Stogdill's work, many researchers stopped pursuing studies under the trait approach. Others, however, continued to expand trait lists. Stogdill's (1974) second review—25 years after the first—concluded that attempts to select leaders on the basis of traits had demonstrated very little success, there were a number of traits that differentiated leaders from subordinates, different traits were often needed by leaders depending on the particular situation, and the trait approach did not take into account the interaction between leaders and followers.

Trait theories, although useful for understanding the history and background of the initial leadership research efforts, eventually were abandoned for the emerging belief that different circumstances and followers required different types of leadership. Researchers (Locke et al., 1991) contend that some traits are essential to leadership, but only in combination with other factors (i.e., situation and followers). Three of the traits deemed essential are self-confidence, honesty, and drive (Locke et al., 1991). Pandolfini (2003) calls for dedication over dazzle.

Behavioral Theories

Behavioral theories involve the assessment of the actions and activities of leaders. The behavioral approach says that anyone who adopts the appropriate behavior can be a good leader. Thus, diverse research studies on leadership behavior sought to uncover the behaviors that leaders engage in rather than what traits leaders possess. One of the attractions of this approach is that behaviors can be learned more readily than traits, enabling leadership to be accessible to all.

Autocratic versus Democratic Leadership

Predating the behavioral approach, research studies that examined the differences in autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership were conducted by Kurt Lewin and his associates (1938, 1939) at Iowa State University. An autocratic leader is one who tends to centralize authority and derive power from position, control of rewards, and coercion. A democratic leader delegates authority to others, encourages participation, relies on subordinates' knowledge for completion of tasks, and depends on subordinates' respect for influence. A laissez-faire leader exerts very little influence, is uninvolved, and uninterested in providing any type of leadership. Lewin's studies had groups of children with adult leaders in each group. The leaders acted in an autocratic, democratic, or laissez-faire style of leadership. The results indicated that the groups with the autocratic leaders performed highly as long as the leader was present. However, group members often were frustrated and the groups were often characterized by feelings of hostility. Groups with laissez-faire leaders did not perform well and often demonstrated conflict because of goal confusion and lack of cohesion. The groups with democratic leaders performed almost as well as the groups led by autocratic leaders. However, positive feelings rather than frustration and hostility characterized the democratically led groups. The democratic leadership also freed the leader to leave the group for periods of time, and the group still functioned in the absence of the leader. The participative methods employed by the democratic leader helped train the group members for leadership.

This early work implied that leaders were either autocratic or democratic. Further work by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) suggested that leadership behavior could exist on a continuum reflecting different amounts of leader authority and group participation. In this revision, a leader might be autocratic, democratic, or a mix of both. Additionally, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) indicated that organizational context should be the most influential in deciding which leadership style to use.

Researchers involved in the Iowa State studies indicated that leadership behavior had a definite effect on outcomes. Equally important was the recognition that effective leadership was reflected in behavior, not simply personality traits. These studies became the genesis of future studies on the behavioral approach.

Ohio State University Studies

Researchers at Ohio State University conducted surveys to establish the dimensions of leader behavior. The researchers took a list of 2,000 leader behaviors, narrowed and honed the list into 150 examples of leader behaviors, and developed it into the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) (Hemphill & Coons, 1957). The LBDQ was then administered to hundreds of employees. The analysis of the ratings resulted in two broad categories of leader behavior types. The two categories were later called consideration and initiating structure. Consideration describes the extent to which a leader is sensitive to subordinates, respects their ideas and feelings, and establishes mutual trust relationships. Consideration may also be indicated by the degree to which the leader shows appreciation, gives encouragement, seeks input, and listens. Initiating structure describes the extent to which a leader directs subordinates' work toward goal

achievement. The initiating structure leader would engage in behavior that is very task oriented, works people hard, plans the work of subordinates, and rules the organization with tight control.

Leaders fall on a continuum in each of these two categories. However, in this model the two categories are independent of one another. For example, a leader might be high on consideration and low on initiating structure. Or, a leader might be low on consideration and low on initiating structure. Research indicates that all four possible combinations of the two categories can be effective leadership behavior (Nystrom, 1978).

University of Michigan Studies

Studies at the University of Michigan were used to compare the behavior of effective and ineffective supervisors (Likert, 1979). In this instance, the effectiveness of the leader was determined by the productivity of the subordinates. Over time, researchers established two types of leadership behavior, each type consisting of two dimensions (Bowers & Seashore, 1966). Some leaders are employee-centered, focusing on the needs of their subordinates. The two underlying behaviors of employee-centered leaders are leader support and interaction facilitation. The leader not only cares about the individual subordinates but also about the positive interactions of the group. The employee-centered leader would correspond roughly with one who scored high on consideration in the Ohio State University studies.

The other type of leader identified was the job-centered leader. Job-centered leaders direct activities toward accomplishment of the job, efficiency, and scheduling.

The two behaviors underlying job-centered leaders are goal emphasis and work facilitation. The leader cares most about getting the job done. This leadership type is similar to initiating structure, a dimension of the Ohio State University studies.

Unlike the Ohio State University studies, the University of Michigan studies saw these two leadership styles not just as distinct, but in opposition to each other. Therefore, a leader would be identified by one style or the other, but not both.

Blake and Mouton's Leadership Grid

Blake and Mouton (1964), two researchers from the University of Texas, proposed a two-dimensional leadership theory called The Leadership Grid. The theory was based on the Ohio State University and University of Michigan studies. The model developed by Blake and Mouton rates leaders on two scales: concern for people and concern for production. The result was that a leader would be identified by one of five styles (team management, country club management, authority-compliance management, middle-of-the-road management, or impoverished management) based on how he or she was rated on the two scales. The highest rating for each scale was symbolized by the numeral "9." A leader who scored a 9,9 was high in concern for people and high in concern for production. Team management (9,9) was the desired style. The Leadership Grid understood the two dimensions to be interdependent; the dimensions affected each other.

The grid was later adapted for use in higher education and became known as the "Academic Administrator Grid." The researchers suggested that the Academic Administrator Grid provided a framework for understanding and improving leadership in

colleges and universities. Five styles were identified: (1) caretaker, (2) authority-obedience, (3) comfortable-pleasant, (4) constituency-centered, and (5) team (Blake, Mouton, & Williams, 1981). In the higher education setting, as in the previous model, the high concern for people and high concern for institutional well-being (i.e., team) style was considered the best approach.

Through the behavioral approach studies at Ohio State University, the University of Michigan, and the University of Texas, two themes emerged concerning leader behavior. One theme focused around people orientation (called consideration, employee-centered, and concern for people) and the other theme focused around task orientation (called initiating structure, job-centered, and concern for production). What emerged from these behavioral studies was a theory that the best leadership was "high-high" leadership. Leaders who placed high value on people orientation and high value on task orientation were the best leaders. Although this is generally accepted as preferred leadership behavior, other researchers found the situation in which a leader finds himself or herself is also a powerful influence.

Contingency Theories

The recognition of the weaknesses and limitations of the trait and behavioral approaches suggested that new and different variables should be explored. Researchers had found that many different leadership traits and leadership behaviors were effective. The next natural step was to discover what determined the success of a particular leadership style. Contingency approaches bring together leadership style (the traits, behaviors, and characteristics of the leader), follower attributes (their needs, maturity,

cohesion, etc.), and organizational characteristics (environment, structure, size, etc.) to see how the three fit best together to enable successful leadership.

The failure to find one best trait (or set of traits) and one best leader behavior (or set of behaviors) led researchers in this new direction. With the rejection of the universal approach, the central focus of the research shifted to the situation. This is not to say that behavior was not still fundamental in the leadership research; however, it became behavior within the context of a situation. The central principle of this research is that leadership behavior might be effective in certain circumstances and ineffective in others. The effectiveness of the leadership behavior is contingent upon the situation. Chaffey and Tierney (1988) call situational leadership adaptive strategy that helps leaders align institutional mission and environment. Contingency theories explain relationships between leadership style and situations. In other words, the leadership behavior must be tailored to the particular situation, instead of always using the same approach. Assuming that a leader can properly diagnose a situation and behave according to the appropriate style, success is highly likely.

Fiedler's Contingency Model

Fred Fiedler (1967) developed one of the earliest contingency approaches. His basic idea was to match a leader's style with the situation most favorable for his or her success. Fiedler's model presents the leadership situation in terms of three key elements: the quality of leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. These elements can either be favorable or unfavorable to the leader.

Leader-member relations refer to the atmosphere of the group, and to feelings that followers have toward the leader. When trust is high and members feel good about the group and their leader, leader-member relations are considered good. When trust is low and there is little confidence in the leader, leader-member relations are poor.

Task structure indicates the extent to which tasks performed by the group are well defined and have clear goals for accomplishment. Groups with high task structure are considered favorable to the leader. Groups with low task structure are characterized by creativity and freedom. Objectives are not well defined, and goals are not always clear. Groups with low task structure are not considered as favorable to leaders.

Position power is the extent to which the leader has formal authority over the followers. In situations where the leader has the power to plan and direct the work of followers, evaluate the followers, and determine rewards or punishments, position power is high. High position power is considered favorable in this model. Lacking power over followers is considered low position power, and not as favorable to the leader.

Following this line of reasoning, a situation most favorable to the leader would be one where leader-member relations are good, task structure is high, and position power is high. Fiedler then looked at situations in which a task-oriented leader succeeded and situations in which a people-oriented leader succeeded. He found that task-oriented leaders performed better in situations that were either very favorable to the leader or very unfavorable to the leader (Fiedler, 1967). In the very favorable situation, everybody gets along, the goals are clear, and the leader has the power. All that is needed is for someone to come in and take charge. In the very unfavorable situation, the

leader needs to provide a lot of structure and task-orientation, of which he is very capable. Additionally, the relationships between members and leader are weak, so the leader needs not be concerned with people orientation. The people-oriented leader does better in situations of intermediate favorabilty because his or her human relations skills are needed to garner high group performance.

Leaders need to know two things to use Fiedler's contingency model. First, they need to understand if they are task-oriented or people-oriented. Second, they need to diagnose the situation to determine leader-member relations, task structure, and position power.

Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory

Another contingency approach is known as situational theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). The Hersey and Blanchard situational theory focused on the characteristics of the followers as the important element in a situation, and therefore in determining leadership behavior. Followers are identified on a readiness scale from low (R1) to high (R4). Followers low on the readiness scale may lack ability, training, or confidence to participate in the decision making. They would require a different leadership style than followers high on the readiness scale, who possess good skills, are well trained, and have self-confidence in their abilities.

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) described four styles (telling, selling, participating, and delegating). Telling (high task orientation and low relationship orientation) involves a very direct leadership style, and is used with followers who have the lowest levels of readiness to share in decision making. Selling (high task orientation and high

relationship orientation) involves giving direction, but also includes seeking input from others before decisions are made. Participating (low task orientation and high relationship orientation) focuses on supporting and guiding the development of others, and acting as a resource. Selling and participating are styles used with followers who have moderate levels of readiness to join in decision-making. Delegating (low task orientation and low relationship orientation) is characterized by employees taking responsibility for their work and the success of the organization. The followers are capable of leading the organization as well as or better than the leader.

The appropriate style is dependent on the development and readiness of followers. This model is simpler than Fiedler's model because it only focuses on the followers, and not the larger situation.

Path-Goal Theory

Another contingency approach to leadership is called the path-goal theory (Evans, 1970). Evans (1970) suggests that the leader's responsibility is to increase followers' motivation to attain personal and organizational goals. This is accomplished by either clarifying the follower's path to the rewards that are available or increasing the rewards that the follower values and desires. The leader's job is to increase personal payoffs to subordinates for goal attainment and to make the paths to these payoffs clear and easy to travel (House, 1971). This model is a contingency model because there are three sets of variables—leader behavior, followers and situation, and use of rewards.

The path-goal theory suggests a fourfold classification of leader behaviors (House & Mitchell, 1974). Supportive leadership shows concern for the well being and

personal needs of the followers. The leader behaves in an open, friendly, and approachable manner. Directive leadership tells followers exactly what they are supposed to do. The leader stresses performance goals, scheduling, and adherence to rules. Participative leadership consults with followers about decisions before the decisions are made. The leader asks for suggestions and options, encourages broad participation at all levels, and meets with subordinates in their workplaces. Achievement-oriented leadership sets clear and challenging goals for followers. The leader stresses high quality, continuous improvement, and confidence in the abilities of followers. The four types of leadership are not considered ingrained traits. Instead, they are viewed as behaviors that every leader is able to adopt.

The path-goal theory is used to describe the situation as the personal characteristics of group members and the work environment (Downey, Sheridan, & Slocum, 1976). Similar to Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory, the path-goal theory is used to take into account the development and readiness of the followers to participate in decision making. Additionally, the path-goal theory is used to view the larger context (similar to Fiedler's contingency model). In path-goal theory, a leader would shape his or her style based on both the followers and the organization.

The final piece of the path-goal theory relates to the use of rewards. Since the object of the leader is to clarify the path to rewards for followers and to increase the amount of rewards to enhance performance and satisfaction, the leader must understand which rewards will have the greatest impact on the followers, and will ultimately lead the organization to its goals. The leader may need to help the follower build the skills

necessary to attain rewards already available. In other situations the leader may need to modify rewards or create new rewards to meet the specific needs of a follower.

Vroom-Jago Contingency Model

The Vroom-Jago Contingency Model (V-J model) shares some basic principles with the other behavioral models discussed; yet it differs in significant ways as well. The V-J model focuses on the varying degrees of participative leadership that should be used, and how that participation will influence decisions. The V-J model is used to prescribe for the leader precisely the correct amount of participation by followers in a particular decision (Vroom & Jago, 1988). The model begins with a leader facing a problem that requires a solution. The model then is used to illustrate when the leader should make the decision alone and when to include others in the decision.

The three major elements of the model are leader decision styles, a set of diagnostic questions, and a series of decision rules. Leader decision styles range on a continuum from highly autocratic to highly democratic. Autocratic leadership styles are represented by AI (leader makes the decision alone) and AII (leader gathers information from followers and then makes the decision), consulting styles by CI (leader shares the problem with group members individually, gathers their ideas and suggestions, and then makes the decision) and CII (leader shares the problem with the group, collects ideas and suggestions in a group setting, and then makes a decision), and a group style by G (leader shares the problem with the group and allows the group to make the decision).

To determine which leadership decision style to use, a leader must ask eight diagnostic questions: (1) Quality Requirement (QR) – How important is the quality of

this decision?; (2) Commitment Requirement (CR) – How important is subordinate commitment to the decision?; (3) Leader's Information (LI) – Do I have sufficient information to make a high-quality decision?; (4) Problem Structure (ST) – Is the decision problem well structured?; (5) Commitment Probability (CP) – If I were to make the decision by myself, is it reasonably certain that my subordinates would be committed to the decision?; (6) Goal Congruence (GC) – Do subordinates share the organizational goals to be attained in solving this problem?; (7) Subordinate Conflict (CO) – Is conflict over preferred solutions likely to occur among subordinates?; and (8) Subordinate Information (SI) – Do subordinates have enough information to make a high-quality decision? (Vroom & Jago, 1988). Although the questions seem detailed, they can quickly narrow the options and focus the leader on the appropriate level of group participation in the decision.

The set of decision rules is based on a leader's answers to the diagnostic questions. A decision tree for determining an appropriate decision style is provided by Vroom and Jago (1988). The leader asks the diagnostic questions in sequence, follows the decision tree based on the answers to the questions, and ends up with a decision style.

Reciprocal Theories

Komives (2007) stated that the essence of reciprocal theories of leadership is a recognition that leadership is a process that meaningfully engages leaders and participants, values the contributions of participants, shares power and authority between leaders and participants, and views leadership as an inclusive activity. The major

reciprocal theories include the relational leadership model, transforming leadership, servant leadership, and followership.

Relational Leadership Model

The Relational Leadership Model (Komives, 2007) helps view leadership as a relational and ethical process of people together attempting to accomplish positive change. The five major components of the model are relational leadership is (1) purposeful, (2) inclusive, (3) empowering, (3) ethical, and (5) process-oriented.

The emphasis of purposeful leadership is a rejection of the status quo and working together toward positive change. The concepts of purpose and vision are often linked. The concept of socialized vision, as opposed to personalized vision, involves those external to the group. Clearly, inclusive leadership involves even those external to the group and there is a stated value of participant contribution. Empowering leadership allows participants to learn and seek new solutions. Relational leadership, then, invites participants to meaningful involvement and legitimacy. Relational leadership that is ethical is driven by values and standards that are good in nature. Relational leadership that is process-oriented provides room for cooperation and collaboration in meaning-making.

Transforming Leadership

Burns (1978) shared that the interaction of leaders and followers fosters a common pursuit of the needs and goals of followers. A powerful force for change results from the interaction between transformational leaders and their followers. Burns

continues by calling transforming leadership a reciprocal relationship between leaders and followers such that each elevates the other to higher moral standards and motivation. The end product is a synergistically produced outcome and higher ethical standards for those involved (Burns, 1978). Burns (2003) differentiated between the words transform and change and suggests that transformational leadership has a breadth and depth that fosters metamorphosis as opposed to a simple substitution. Northouse (2007) called transforming leaders social architects for their organizations because their leadership communicates a direction that transforms organizational values and norms. Transforming leadership is based on higher values such as order, equality, liberty, freedom, and justice (Komives, Lucas, McMahon, 2007). Mannoia (1996) believed that transformational leadership is the result of having a mind like a servant. The joint pursuit of higher values demonstrates the reciprocal theory of leadership.

Servant Leadership

Servant leadership theory contends that a leader is transformed by first acting as a servant for the goal of making a difference in the lives of others (Greenleaf, 1977). Greenleaf defines servant leadership as an inward journey of first finding one's self so that complete giving may occur. Maxwell (1999) states that servant leadership is about having the kind of attitude that puts others first, possesses the confidence to serve and initiates service, avoids a focus on position, and operates out of love. Hoyle (2002) noted that leading with love is the unselfish and loyal concern for the good of another, and the epitome of servant leadership. Servant leadership is, simply put, the conscious practice of the Golden Rule (Lad & Luechauer, 1998). The end goal of servant-leadership is the

growth in knowledge and skill on the part of those being served—so that they in turn may become servant leaders (Komives, Lucas, McMahon, 2007). Again, the relationship between servant leader, and those served, is reciprocal.

Followership

With a shift to leaders thinking about the needs of followers, the idea of followership blossomed. Strong followership fosters loyalty to institutional purpose. Although loyalty may carry a negative connotation, it often becomes the organizational glue. Giuliani (2002) called loyalty the vital virtue and illustrated the principal effect of standing by a follower. Guido-DiBrito (1995) said that loyalty is an important component of leadership. Effective followers need to be empowered, honored, and valued. Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) discussed the idea that resonant leadership—leadership that impacts—often depends on a dynamic interaction between leader and followers. Effective followership often results in effective leadership because of the nature of commitment not only in the reciprocal relationship, but also and more importantly in the success of the organization (Komives, Lucas, McMahon, 2007). Bennis (1999) believed that since the capacities of effective leaders are very similar to the qualities of effective followers, leaders must lead leaders. Sample (2002) noted that leaders work for the benefit of followers.

Trait research, after researchers were not able to produce significant links between leadership and specific leader characteristics, gave way to behavioral theory approaches. Behavioral theorists studied leadership from the perspective of task orientation and people orientation. Contingency approaches were used to extend the

behavioral studies by adding other variables into the leadership puzzle (e.g., followers and organizational context). Reciprocal leadership theorists emphasized the inextricable relationship between leader and follower and provide the best platform for discussing the work of Kouzes and Posner.

Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Framework

This model was chosen because it is broad based and lends itself well to effective leadership behaviors at the senior management level of institutions of higher education. In fact, Northouse (2007) pointed out that the Kouzes and Posner model emphasizes practice, not personality, and the model provides direction for people to become effective leaders.

Challenging the Process

Challenging the process, as envisioned by Kouzes and Posner (2002), includes searching for opportunities, experimenting, taking risks, and confronting and changing the status quo. Leaders search for opportunities for themselves and others to exceed their previous levels of performance. They regularly raise the standard. Buckingham (2007) called leaders to stop tiptoeing in order to reach outstanding levels of performance. Researchers have documented that challenge raises motivational and performance levels (Mento, Steel, & Karsen, 1987). But leaders also realize that the standard, while challenging, must be achievable. This awareness of the human need for challenge and the sensitivity to the human need to succeed at that challenge are among the critical balancing skills of any leader (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). In fact, Maxwell (2000, 7)

asked, “If your perception of and response to failure were changed, what would you attempt to achieve?” Through challenge and support, leaders help build the intrinsic motivation of followers to accomplish the goals of the organization.

Leaders must also challenge the routine of their organizations. Bennis (1989) warned leaders that routine work drives out nonroutine work and smothers to death all creative planning, all fundamental change in the university—or any institution. Leaders must not be trapped by the routine of their organizations, but must innovate and be agents of change. Kanter (1983), in her study of innovation-producing organizations, concluded that change requires leadership, and that leadership is a prime mover to push for implementation of strategic decisions.

Leaders take risks and learn from the accompanying mistakes. They are not paralyzed by fear of failure. They also create a culture in their organizations where others can take risks. It is important that leaders keep their word about not punishing people when they have done their best under the circumstances, regardless of how the situation turns out (Calvert, 1993). Effective leaders even honor risk takers (Peters, 1987). They know that in order to challenge the process they must create a climate where they and others feel free to risk, experiment, fail, and change.

Inspiring a Shared Vision

Vision has not always been part of the language of leadership. In years past, it was sometimes heard uttered by human potential psychologists or bandied about by community activists, but it did not often pass easily from the lips of businesspeople and management scholars (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). While investigating the lives of 90

leaders, Bennis and Nanus (1985) found that attention through vision was one of the key strategies of leaders. Other scholars also document the importance of vision (Barnard, 1968; Block, 1987; Burns, 1978; Collins & Porras, 1994; Covey, 1989; Nanus, 1992; Senge, 1990; and Quigley, 1993). Although there may be different terms used to convey this concept, the core of it is that leaders want to do something significant, to accomplish something that has not yet been achieved.

Vision is described as the capacity to be foresighted; it is suggested as an image of the future that is positive and powerful, even ideal. Hybels (2002) described vision-casting as a leader's most potent weapon. Vision is compelling in the sense that it has a unique quality that reminds others they are part of something special. Visions are based on the knowledge and experience of the past and the opportunity of the present. Hoyle (2002) stated that vision offers hope.

Once the leader establishes a vision, he or she must enlist others in the vision. Cleveland (1985) observed that decision making proceeds not by recommendations up or orders down, but by the development of a shared sense of direction. This shared vision becomes a powerful force. Senge (1990) claimed few, if any, forces in human affairs are as powerful as shared visions. Marcus Buckingham (2005) noted that former New York Mayor Rudi Giuliani's consistent and calm presence at ground zero during the September 11, 2001 tragedy earned his admiration, yet it was his empathy and articulation of the event that achieved an even bigger win with the general public.

Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) said that change begins when emotionally intelligent leaders actively question the emotional reality and cultural norms

and align followers with an ideal vision for the organization. Heifitz and Linsky (2002) described Inspiring a Shared Vision as getting a "balcony" perspective and helping those on the floor below understand that perspective. Buckingham (2005) described the effective leader as one who sifts through many employee missions to arrive at one vivid picture of the future that can be shared and realized. Powell (1997) said that all effective leaders create a climate where people are encouraged and rewarded for thinking ahead.

However, visions are not strategic plans. Planning is a function of management, while envisioning is a function of leadership. Mintzberg (1994) argued that strategic planning is not strategic thinking. Indeed, strategic planning often spoils strategic thinking, causing managers to confuse real vision with the manipulation of numbers. This confusion lies at the heart of the issue: the most successful strategies are visions, not plans (Mintzberg, 1994).

Enabling Others to Act

Enabling Others to Act involves fostering collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and mutual trust as well as strengthening others by sharing power and information (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Although it was once believed that leaders should control power and information, new paradigms of leadership behavior suggest otherwise. As leaders foster collaboration and strengthen others, the followers' assessments of the leaders' personal credibility, upward influence, and workgroup espirit de corps rise—as do followers' own levels of job satisfaction and commitment (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Tjosvold and Tjosvold (1991) found that leaders who had cooperative relationships

inspired commitment and were considered competent while competitive and independent leaders were seen as obstructive and ineffective.

Trust is at the core of fostering collaboration. Without trust, a leader cannot be effective because he or she cannot bear to be dependent on anyone else and becomes excessively controlling. This is born out by several research studies (Boss, 1978; Brunard & Kleiner, 1994; and Zand, 1972). When managers who have not shared power and information try to be open and honest, their messages are perceived to be fabrications (Boss, 1978). Lencioni (2002) went so far as to say an absence of trust is the primary dysfunction of teams. Trust is very powerful in determining an individual's satisfaction with their organization.

Pfeffer (1994) found that if behavior occurs in the presence of a great deal of external pressure—either positive in the form of monetary inducements or negative in the form of threats and sanctions—people are likely to conclude that the external forces both caused the behavior and were necessary to produce it. Leaders who desire excellence realize that they must empower people to achieve excellence. DePree (1992) described this as making room for other gifted people. Any leadership practice that increases another's sense of self-confidence, self-determination, and personal effectiveness makes that person more powerful and thereby greatly enhances the possibility of success (Conger, 1989).

Modeling the Way

Credibility is the foundation of leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). During their numerous studies, surveys, and interviews, Kouzes and Posner found that followers are

looking for leaders who do what they say they will do. Leader modeling, or setting the example, has a dramatic impact on the effectiveness of the organization being led. The axiom "actions speak louder than words" is one to which leaders must pay attention, because the leader is constantly being watched. Leaders model values and desired behaviors. Leaders understand that they bring shared values to life in a variety of settings (Heifetz, 1994). Maxwell (1999) pointed out that highly competent leaders not only perform at a high level, they also inspire others to do the same. Leaders must make and keep commitments.

Besides setting the example, modeling the way involves achieving small wins. Giuliani (2002) called this underpromise and overdeliver. Small wins build an expectation that the larger goals and vision of the organization can be accomplished. They promote consistent progress and build commitment. Small wins do not eliminate the possibility of a paradigm shift (Barker, 1993). However, since paradigm shifts are relatively infrequent, leaders must encourage constant, incremental progress and improvement.

Encouraging the Heart

Encouraging the Heart involves recognizing contributions and celebrating accomplishments (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Cohen, Fink, Gadon, and Willits (1994) reminded leaders that people repeat behavior that is rewarded, avoid behavior that is punished, and drop or forget behavior that produces neither result. When integrating performance with rewards, leaders must make certain that people know what is expected

of them, provide feedback about contributors' performance, and reward only those that meet the standard (Vroom, 1994).

In this leadership practice, leaders are also encouraged to be positive and hopeful. By having a positive outlook and being hopeful, leaders help people achieve even more than they thought they were able to achieve (Seligman, 1990). This positive outlook and hopefulness are followed by celebrations of accomplishments. Leaders reinforce the team spirit needed for extraordinary achievement by cheering about key values, making ceremonies public, being personally involved, and creating social support rituals (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Through their research Kouzes and Posner (2002) found that encouragement increases the chance that people will actually achieve higher levels of performance.

Use of the Leadership Practices Inventory in Higher Education

The Leadership Practices Inventory has been used in several studies of leaders in higher education settings. The leadership practices of college presidents (Bauer, 1993; Plowman, 1991), presidential assistants (Carlson, 1991), top women executives in higher education (Ottinger, 1990), and agricultural education department heads (Spotanski, 1991) have been studied. Additionally, the Leadership Practices Inventory has been adapted for use by college students (Posner & Brodsky, 1992). The student version of the instrument has been used in studies of resident assistants (Posner & Brodsky, 1993) and to study the effect of gender on the leadership practices of college student leaders (Posner & Brodsky, 1994).

Kouzes and Posner (2002) assert that leadership, opposed to standing isolated as some grand plan or strategy, pervades day-to-day routines. Rather than define leadership, they discuss the goals of leadership as releasing human potential, balancing the needs of the individual and the community, defending the fundamental values of the community, and instilling in individuals a sense of initiative and responsibility. According to Kouzes and Posner (2002), the believability and credibility so essential for leadership are earned when the leader's behavior is consistent with his or her beliefs.

Leadership in Higher Education

Since the mid-1980s, American higher education has experienced considerable change, often the result of public scrutiny and subsequent critique. Although he does not predict a third great transformation in higher education, Kerr (1994) was less than sanguine as he forecasted continuing change that will require educational leaders to be adaptable, savvy, and cooperative. In fact, Bennis (1973) identified adaptive capacity as a must for effective leadership. Students, faculty members, administrators, and the general public are concerned about the ability of educational organizations to adapt in the face of new demands (Baldridge & Deal, 1977). In the near future, there will be even greater pressures on colleges and universities to perform and be accountable for performance. A necessary first condition, of course, is to have institutional leaders who understand these problems and are willing to make significant efforts to deal constructively with them (Astin, 1993). When you take the traditional needs for leadership in higher education combined with the challenges of new forms of learning,

new technologies for teaching, and new requirements for graduate competence, there is no better time than right now for increased leadership competence in the academy. The future of an institution of higher education rests upon its ability to involve individuals who are flexible, willing to look at alternatives, and capable of themselves developing leadership characteristics (Dressel, 1981).

Colleges and universities are distinctly different from most other types of complex organizations. Autonomy and self-determination of priorities are still vitally important to academics. Ambitions for leadership, success in management and administration, a commitment to more efficient business operations—valued qualities in most organizations other than universities, even among professional employees—tend still to be looked on with disfavor by many academics (Ramsden, 1998). The result is that few institutions provide opportunities for the leadership development of administrators. Baldridge et al. (1978) pointed out that the organizational characteristics of colleges and universities include goal ambiguity, professional dominance, and environmental vulnerability. Cohen and March (1974) described colleges and universities as "organized anarchies." Birnbaum (1988) stated that effective leadership in an anarchical system includes spending time and focus on select issues, facilitating participation in decision-making, managing unobtrusively, interpreting history, and providing mechanisms for input. In institutions of higher education, power is more diffuse, lodged with professional experts and fragmented into many departments and subdivisions (Baldridge, 1978). Given the structure of higher education, administrators

must be both effective leaders and efficient managers if they wish to accomplish the goals of the institution and build for the future.

Draughdrill (1988) pointed out the essential elements of college or university leadership are a passion for the institution, a commitment to stewardship, a clear but far-reaching vision, and the courage of one's convictions. Leadership is not fundamentally about the attributes a leader has, but about what the leader does in the context of an academic department, research group, or course (Ramsden, 1998). Wilcox and Ebbs (1992) encouraged certain behaviors (creating the vision, empowering others, modeling the way, and acting ethically) from leaders in higher education that appear to energize institutions. This type of leadership is challenging. Shapiro (1998) pointed out that a single day often requires contemporary college and university presidents' attention to traverse back and forth from alumni concerns to developments in Washington or a state capital, from public policy issues to student discipline, and from faculty appointments to curricular reforms—all in an endless quest to help provide for his or her institution and to help secure the broadest acceptance of higher education's needs and responsibilities.

Bennis (2003) indicated that leadership in higher education is the capacity to infuse new values and goals into the organization, to provide perspective on events and environments which, if unnoticed, can impose constraints on the institution. Leadership involves planning, auditing, communicating, relating to outside constituencies, insisting on the highest quality of performance and people, keeping an eye out for forces which may lead to or disable important reforms (Bennis, 1973).

The connectedness of the college or university across departments and divisions of the institutions seems to be a key for leadership, not just for the president, but also for the chief student affairs officers and others on the leadership team. The ultimate success of a collegiate institution is predicated upon the abilities of its executive-level officers to develop staff teams who possess the capacities to initiate those critical interrelationships that lead to cooperative and collaborative educational activities of such impact that a rich collegiate experience is assured for all students (Stamatakos, 1991). Bensimon and Neumann (1993) stated that the collective practice of team building is essential to the reconstruction of collegiate leadership. Enhancing leadership ability among staff in higher education requires universities to practice, at all levels, the responsibilities of envisioning, enabling, developing, and learning.

Shared governance characterizes higher education. Although most of the attention goes to the role of the president as leader, an effective president realizes that a single leader is not effective in most higher education settings. Complex, team-centered leadership is likely to be more effective than one-person leadership because it demands shared responsibility for thinking as much as it requires shared responsibility for doing (Bensimon & Neumann, 1993). Leadership in higher education, perhaps more than any other institution, is a collective practice. It is the network of key administrators who actually make most of the critical decisions (Baldridge, 1978). Birnbaum (1988), who called for integrated leadership, echoes this sentiment. Leaders of the future will successfully lead organizations when their beliefs are in harmony with the transformations occurring in our world, when they value change over stability,

empowerment over control, collaboration over competition, relationships over things, and diversity over uniformity (Rost, 1993). For higher education organizations to thrive and grow in the future, the president and executive level administrators must all contribute in synergistic ways to the leadership of the institution.

Leadership in Student Affairs

Of almost 600 annotated studies of higher education governance, management, and leadership, only five are identified with student affairs (Peterson & Mets, 1987). However, Boyer (1987) acknowledged that leadership on the part of others (besides the president), specifically on the part of student and academic services, will be important in maintaining and improving the quality of institutions. Today's higher education problems call for the dedication, skills, knowledge, and leadership of chief student affairs officers. With their perspectives, priorities, commitments, and experiences, student personnel professionals are well equipped to grapple with the challenges currently facing higher education (Clement & Rickard, 1992).

However, the need to demonstrate the effectiveness of student affairs programs and services is not new (Upcraft & Schuh, 1996). Chief student affairs officers must develop all of their skills and abilities if they are to take their rightful place in the development of institutional strategies and higher education leadership. Explaining clearly how quality student affairs programming contributes to the academic success of students, as well as to the academic mission of the institution, is imperative (Brown, 1997).

A synthesis of the literature from the last 30 years indicates that to be successful as a student affairs administrator, well-developed administration, management, and human facilitation skills are key (Lovell & Kosten, 2000). Tillotson (1995) showed that interpersonal relationship skills, organizational skills, and directive skills necessary for working with others were foundational skills for student affairs administrators. Kane (1982) and Fey (1991) ranked leadership, personnel management, and communication as the most important skills for student affairs administrators. Other researchers ranked leadership, student contact, and communication as the most important skills (Gordon, Strode, & Mann, 1993). Additionally, developing effective partnerships between faculty and student affairs professionals is critical to maximizing the educational potential of colleges and universities (Streit, 1993).

Garland (1985) challenged student affairs administrators to assume leadership in formulating and managing institutional responses to changing conditions. Education in broader issues beyond student affairs is necessary for leadership that encompasses the full extent of the institution and the educational enterprise (McDade, 1989). As members of decision-making teams, chief student affairs officers should be as knowledgeable of their entire institutions as they are about their own divisions. In other words, if chief student affairs officers are going to provide greater leadership to their institutions, they must have knowledge of more than just student affairs.

In the new millennium, student affairs professionals will be expected to exercise leadership to successfully initiate and implement change processes in institutions of higher education, and they will be expected to create and implement campus programs to

empower students to develop such leadership as well (Rogers, 1996). With large numbers of professional, support, and student staff in the student affairs division, the chief student affairs officer must establish personnel practices that enable them to perform their duties, participate in the decision-making process, and have opportunities for professional advancement and growth (Sandeen, 1991).

The role of student affairs is evolving to one that is more central and critical to the achievement of other institutional goals, and one that is concerned about organizational development as a necessary complement to student development (Garland & Grace, 1993). Stamatakos (1991) calls for chief student affairs officers to assume eight roles (articulator of a philosophy, advocate for students' needs and interests, transmitter of values, interpreter of institutional culture, institutional leader and policy-maker, champion of causes, institutional planner, and public relations spokesperson) in order to be institutional leaders.

Chief student affairs officers have the opportunity to exercise greater leadership and influence over institutions of higher education. The current higher education context is open to such leadership. It is imperative that chief student affairs officers prepare themselves for such leadership by understanding their own leadership behaviors, and developing plans for their own leadership development.

Summary

The most important point of this chapter is that leadership has been and continues to be a distinct focus of study. Leadership comprises a set of behaviors and skills that has

the potential to have great impact on other people, organizations, and institutions. Leadership is different than management. Buckingham (2005) noted that though both leadership and management are critically important to the success of an organization, they are not interchangeable; in fact, they differ regarding responsibilities, starting points, and talents. Management is concerned with planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and controlling (Buckingham, 2005). Management is focused on efficiency. Leadership is about challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Leadership is directed at effectiveness. When excellent leadership is combined with quality management, the greatest possible outcomes are achieved.

Early leadership perspectives emphasized great men and the traits that enabled them to succeed. Behavioral approaches and contingency approaches followed to clarify the role of the leader, the led, and the situation in the mutual and subtle process of leadership. Reciprocal leadership perspectives further defined the leader-follower interaction. The leadership framework developed by Kouzes and Posner (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart) has been used in a number of settings inside and outside higher education. The Kouzes and Posner framework has broad applicability and is particularly suited for this study of chief student affairs officers.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

In Chapter III, the methodology and procedures used in the study are described. Specifically, detail concerning research design, target population and sampling procedures, instrumentation, data collection, response, and methods of data analyses are discussed.

Research Design

To answer the specific research questions, survey methodology was selected as the method of investigation. The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) was used to gather data on the leadership practices of chief student affairs officers. The Leadership Practices Inventory includes items to assess five key areas: (1) challenging the process; (2) inspiring a shared vision; (3) enabling others to act; (4) modeling the way; and (5) encouraging the heart. Because the Leadership Practices Inventory is a copyrighted publication, the authors of the instrument were contacted via an electronic mail letter (Appendix F) to obtain permission for its use in this study. The authors agreed to the use and reproduction of the Leadership Practices Inventory, at no charge, with the understanding: that the instrument would be used only for research purposes and would not be sold or used in conjunction with any compensated management development activities; that copyright of the Leadership Practices Inventory would be retained by Kouzes Posner International, and that the copyright statement "Copyright © 2005 James

M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. All rights reserved. Used with permission" would be included on all copies of the instrument; that one electronic copy of the dissertation, and one copy of all papers, reports, articles, and the like which make use of the Leadership Practices Inventory data would be sent promptly to the authors' attention; and that the researcher agreed to allow an abstract of the study, and any other published papers utilizing the LPI, be included on various Kouzes Posner International websites (Appendix G).

The Texas A&M University Internal Review Board approved the study on March 22, 2007. After obtaining permission from James Kouzes and Barry Posner (authors of the Leadership Practices Inventory) and adding demographic questions of interest for the researcher, the instruments were electronically mailed to chief student affairs officers throughout the United States. Data analysis was conducted using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics to examine statistical differences and to explore relationships between variables.

Target Population and Sampling Procedures

The target population of the study consisted of chief student affairs officers employed at institutions of higher education in the United States. A complete list of colleges and universities (public and private, 2-year and 4-year) in the United States was obtained from a listing available through the University of Texas at Austin. The information was used to establish a database of the colleges and universities. This database consisted of 3037 schools representing all fifty states. Since about 237 of the

schools were on-line institutions, and thus did not have a chief student affairs officer, they were removed from the base, leaving a sample of 2800 institutions. Stratified randomly selected institutions from this database were searched to identify the name, title, and electronic mailing address of each chief student affairs officer.

All persons were identified through the use of electronic mail and invited to participate in the study. Since there were 2800 institutions of higher education identified, and one chief student affairs officer at each institution, a sample of 338 (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970) surveys of the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self were needed to draw inferences to the 2800 institutions of higher education.

Instrumentation

The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), developed by Kouzes and Posner, was used in this study. The current form of the instrument contains 30 statements (six statements measuring each of the five leadership practices). Each statement has a 10-point Likert scale. A higher value represents greater use of a leadership behavior (i.e., (1) almost never, (2) rarely, (3) seldom, (4) once in a while, (5) occasionally, (6) sometimes, (7) fairly often, (8) usually, (9) very frequently, and (10) almost always). There are two forms of the Leadership Practices Inventory that were used in this study. The two forms (LPI-Self and LPI-Observer) differ only in whether the respondent indicates the behavior described (LPI-Self) or a person observing the respondent indicates the behavior described (LPI-Observer). The LPI-Observer confirms or contradicts leadership characteristics and increases the objectivity rating of LPI-Self

scores. Because of this, Posner and Kouzes (1988) caution against interpreting LPI-Self scores independent of LPI-Observer scores.

Posner and Kouzes (1988) outlined the development of the instrument and its reliability. The Leadership Practices Inventory was the result of a research project by James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. The project involved the collection of over 650 surveys asking leaders to describe an experience where they achieved something extraordinary in their organizations. The idea was to find when these individuals, according to their own perceptions, set a standard of excellence when leading. This "personal best" survey was 12 pages long and consisted of 38 open-ended questions (e.g., What made you believe you could accomplish the results you sought? Did you do anything to mark the completion of the project, at the end or along the way?) An additional 450 people completed a shortened version. Kouzes and Posner discovered a fundamental pattern of leadership behavior that emerged when people are accomplishing extraordinary things in organizations. More than 80% of the behavior and strategies described in respondents' personal best case studies are accounted for in challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart (Posner & Kouzes, 1988). With this leadership practices framework in mind, Kouzes and Posner developed statements to use in an inventory that could be used to measure the practices. The thirty statements used in the Leadership Practices Inventory were developed by the authors and other experts familiar with the model. Through empirical analyses and respondent feedback, the items were honed to their current format. Internal reliabilities (Cronbach Alpha) on the Leadership Practices

Inventory ranged between .81 and .91 (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Test-retest reliabilities have been at the .90 level and above (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). A principal component factor analysis was used to examine the existence of the five constructs.

Demographic information was added to the survey in order to collect personal data on respondents. The demographic information collected included position title, number of years in present position, gender, race/ethnicity, educational background, type of institution, and size of institution (as determined by student enrollment).

Data Collection

An electronic cover letter assuring subject confidentiality, as well as providing instructions for completion of the instrument, was sent with each survey. Electronic invitations to complete the linked survey for chief student affairs officers in the United States and possible direct reports were initially distributed by electronic mail on June 19, 2007. Since the value of the research depended on an adequate number of responses (338 for the LPI-Self), care was given to the appeal for participation. The initial electronic message to the chief student affairs officer inviting his or her participation in the study included an attached link to the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Appendix B), as well as an introductory page outlining the parameters of the study. The final part of the survey asked participants to provide electronic mail addresses for direct reports. Thus, direct reports then also received an electronic message inviting his or her participation in the study and included a link to the Leadership Practices Inventory-Observer (Appendix

D). The direct reports also received an introductory page outlining the parameters of the study.

Two follow-up reminders were sent to the chief student affairs officers. The first reminder (Appendix E) was sent on July 10, 2007 to each chief student affairs officer who had failed to respond to the original request. A final reminder was sent on July 17, 2007 to each chief student affairs officer who had failed to respond to the original request.

The original closing date for collecting 338 Leadership Practices Inventory-Self reports was July 20, 2007. On that date, only 272 LPI-Self reports had been received, despite two reminders. Since 272 participants would not be sufficient to generalize to the complete database, another random set of 234 chief student affairs officers were identified from the database, and were sent the identical electronic invitations to participate in the study. These chief student affairs officers received the invitation on July 23, 2007. Follow up reminders were sent on July 30, 2007 and August 3, 2007 to each chief student affairs officer who had failed to respond to the original request. The closing date for these additional 234 possible participants was August 3, 2007. On August 4, 2007, 338 chief student affairs officers had completed the LPI-Self report. The researcher intended to determine if there was late responder bias, but the data was acquired as one group with no differentiation related to date of submission.

Response

Of the 1130 LPI-Self surveys mailed to chief student affairs officers in the United States, 338, or 30.0% were returned for inclusion in the study. Included in the survey that was linked to the invitation mailed to chief student affairs officers in the United States was a box that asked for electronic addresses of direct reports. The chief student affairs officer had the freedom to choose any individuals who were observers of his or her leadership and to include their electronic mail addresses in the survey. Those direct reports, whose electronic mail addresses had been volunteered by the chief student affairs officer, were then electronically sent a cover letter and link to the LPI-Observer. Of the 499 LPI-Observer survey invitations that were consequently mailed out, 168, or 33.6% were returned to the researcher for inclusion in the study.

Data Analyses

Quantitative data was obtained using basic survey research as outlined in *Applying Educational Research* (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 1999) and analyzed using the *JMP 6.02 Statistical Discovery Software,* the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, 14.0* (SPSS), and *R, a free version of a statistical package called S-Plus*. Descriptive statistics were generated for all variables. Results of the study were reported using numerical and graphical techniques to report means, frequencies, and standard deviations. Multiple displays such as tables and charts were used to present findings. To assure participant confidentiality, results were presented only in aggregate form.

Research question one, which asked, "**What are the self-reported, perceived leadership practices of chief student affairs officers in selected institutions of higher education in the United States?**" was answered by determining the leadership practices of chief student affairs officers in the United States by using frequency counts, percentages, means, and standard deviations. An exploratory factor analysis using Principal Component Analysis (PCA), with the factor loadings less than .40 suppressed, was also used to analyze the data. Although the researcher recognizes that factor analysis can be distinguished from principal component analysis, the terms will be used interchangeably.

Research question two, which asked, **"Do chief student affairs officers at selected institutions of higher education in the United States who differ in terms of specific demographic variables, differ in terms of self-reported, perceived leadership practices as indicated by the Leadership Practices Inventory?"** was addressed by investigating if position title, number of years in present position, gender, race/ethnicity, educational background, type of institution, and size of institution related to scores on the five practices of leadership for chief student affairs officers as indicated by the Leadership Practices Inventory. Statistics used included frequency counts and percentages. A multivariate regression was used to determine if there were any significant demographic variable predictors.

Research question three, which asked, **"Are there differences between chief student affairs officers (LPI-Self) at selected institutions of higher education in the United States and those who observe them (LPI-Observer) in terms of perceived**

leadership scores on the five practices?" was addressed by comparing mean scores on the five practices of leadership from the LPI-Self (the survey completed by the chief student affairs officers) with those from the LPI-Observer (the survey completed by observers of the chief student affairs officers' leadership). Potentially statistically significant differences between vectors of means were determined by using Hotelling's T^2. A paired *t*-test and Wilkes Lambda were used to determine where significant differences existed for each leadership practice.

Research question four, which asked, **"Are there differences between chief student affairs officers at selected institutions of higher education in the United States in terms of the five perceived practices of leadership scores and the leadership scores in Kouzes and Posner's database?"** was answered by comparing mean scores from the sample (chief student affairs officers in the United States) with those from Kouzes and Posner's database (a cross-section of leaders who had previously taken the Leadership Practices Inventory). The sample mean scores of chief student affairs officers in the United States were converted to percentile rank to determine how the sample participants compared with all the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's normative database. Additionally, a more in-depth statistical analysis was accomplished by using Hotelling's T^2.

Summary

A detailed discussion of the methodology and procedures was included in Chapter III. The chapter was organized into six sections as follows: 1) research design;

2) target population and sampling procedures; 3) instrumentation; 4) data collection; 5) response; and 6) data analyses.

Data to answer the research questions were collected through a 30-item questionnaire sent to chief student affairs officers at colleges and universities in the United States. Data analysis was performed through the use of the computer programs *JMP 6.02 Statistical Discovery Software*, the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, 14.0* (SPSS), and *R, a free version of a statistical package called S-Plus.* Descriptive and inferential statistics were obtained to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this research project was to determine the leadership behaviors of chief student affairs officers in the United States in order to establish an understanding of current leadership practices and to assist chief student affairs officers in empowering their organizations to higher levels of excellence and in achieving greater influence in their institutions. Quantitative data were obtained through survey research of chief student affairs officers in the United States and individuals who observed the leadership behavior of chief student affairs officers in the United States.

The completed and returned LPI-Self instruments were evaluated by assessing the ratings each chief student affairs officer assigned himself or herself on each of the 30 statements. Each statement had a ten-point Likert scale. A higher value represented greater use of a leadership behavior (i.e., (1) almost never, (2) rarely, (3) seldom, (4) once in a while, (5) occasionally, (6) sometimes, (7) fairly often, (8) usually, (9) very frequently, and (10) almost always). Each chief student affairs officer's ratings were tabulated to determine a total rating for each of the five leadership practices. Ratings could range from six through 60 on each of the five leadership practices. The Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI-Self) was completed by each participating chief student affairs officer and the five leadership practices were obtained by dividing the instrument

statements into five major leadership practices: (1) Challenging the Process, (2) Inspiring a Shared Vision, (3) Enabling Others to Act, (4) Modeling the Way, and (5) Encouraging the Heart.

The Leadership Practices Inventory-Observer (LPI-Observer) was completed by a direct report of the chief student affairs officer. The completed and returned LPI-Observer instruments were evaluated using the same protocol as with the LPI-Self instrument. Each direct report's ratings were tabulated to determine a total rating for each of the five leadership practices. Ratings could range from six through 60 on each of the five leadership practices.

The data from the 338 chief student affairs officers and 168 observers who participated in this study were entered into the *JMP 6.02 Statistical Discovery Software* for analysis. Additionally, *R, a free version of a statistical package called S-Plus*, was used. Four questions were answered in this study. In each of the next four sections of this chapter, the researcher addresses each of the research questions posed.

Analysis of Research Question One

In the first research question, the researcher asked, "**What are the self-reported, perceived leadership practices of chief student affairs officers in selected institutions of higher education in the United States?**" The five practices of leadership scores were obtained for each study participant by adding together the scores of six statements related to each practice (i.e., the 30 statements on the survey were grouped according to practice, with six statements for each one of the five practices).

Six statements related to Challenging the Process (CTP) on the surveys were completed by the chief student affairs officers. The six statements were:

- "I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities" (statement number 1)
- "I challenge people to try out new and innovative approaches to their work" (statement number 6)
- "I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do" (statement number 11)
- "I ask, "What can we learn?" when things do not go as expected" (statement number 16)
- "I experiment and take risks even when there is a chance of failure" (statement number 21)
- "I take the initiative to overcome obstacles even when outcomes are uncertain" (statement number 26).

Additionally, there were six statements related to Inspiring a Shared Vision (ISV). The six statements were:

- "I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done" (statement number 2)
- "I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like" (statement number 7)
- "I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future" (statement number 12)
- "I show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision" (statement number 17)
- "I am contagiously enthusiastic and positive about future possibilities" (statement number 22)
- "I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work" (statement number 27)

The third Kouzes and Posner leadership practice, Enabling Others to Act (EOA), also had six statements related to it. The six statements were:

- "I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with" (statement number 3)
- "I actively listen to diverse points of view" (statement number 8)
- "I treat others with dignity and respect" (statement number 13)
- "I support the decisions that people make on their own" (statement number 18)

- "I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work" (statement number 23)
- "I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves" (statement number 28)

Modeling the Way (MTW) was the next leadership practice.

- "I set a personal example of what I expect from others" (statement number 4)
- "I spend time and energy on making certain that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards that we have agreed on" (statement number 9)
- "I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make" (statement number 14)
- "I am clear about my philosophy of leadership" (statement number 19)
- "I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on" (statement number 24)
- "I make progress toward goals one step at a time" (statement number 29)

These are the six statements related to Modeling the Way.

Finally, there were six statements related to the leadership practice Encouraging the Heart (ETH). These six statements were:

- "I praise people for a job well done" (statement number 5)
- "I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities" (statement number 10)

- "I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects" (statement number 15)
- "I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values" (statement number 20)
- "I find ways to celebrate accomplishments" (statement number 25)
- "I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions" (statement number 30)

Chief student affairs officers in the United States responded to each of the 30 statements according to a ten-point Likert scale (a higher value indicated more frequent use of the leadership behavior associated with the statement). Thus, the maximum possible score on each of the five practices was 60 (six statements with a maximum of ten points each). The minimum possible score on each of the five practices was six (six statements with a minimum of one point each). Group means were then calculated for each of the five practices of leadership scores. Means and standard deviations for each of the five practices of leadership scores of the sampled chief student affairs officers in the United States are presented in Table 1, and rank-ordered in Table 2.

Table 1.—Means and Standard Deviations for the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI-Self) of Sampled Chief Student Affairs Officers in the United States (N=338)

Leadership Practice	Mean*	Standard Deviation
Challenging the Process	48.84	6.19
Inspiring a Shared Vision	47.51	7.23
Enabling Others to Act	53.75	3.90
Modeling the Way	51.62	5.30
Encouraging the Heart	49.94	6.60

*Maximum = 60

Table 2.—Rank-Ordered Leadership Practices by Means and Corresponding Standard Deviations of Sampled Chief Student Affairs Officers in the United States (N=338)

Leadership Practice	Mean*	Standard Deviation
Enabling Others to Act	53.75	3.90
Modeling the Way	51.62	5.30
Encouraging the Heart	49.94	6.60
Challenging the Process	48.84	6.19
Inspiring a Shared Vision	47.51	7.23

*Maximum = 60

Based upon mean scores, Enabling Others to Act was perceived by respondents as the leadership practice engaged in most frequently, while at the same time exhibiting the least variability. Modeling the Way, Encouraging the Heart, and Challenging the Process followed Enabling Others to Act's in terms of highest means. Respondents

perceived Inspiring a Shared Vision as the leadership practice engaged in least frequently. It was interesting to note that the standard deviation for the lowest scoring leadership practice, Inspiring a Shared Vision, was almost twice the variability of Enabling Others to Act, the highest scoring leadership practice. While the scores for Enabling Others to Act falling within two standard deviations ranged from 45.95 to 60, the scores for Inspiring a Shared Vision falling within two standard deviations ranged from 33.05 to 60. This indicated that there was less agreement regarding the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision than there was regarding the leadership practice Enabling Others to Act.

The researcher subjected the thirty Kouzes and Posner statements to a Principal Component Analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .932, and Bartlett's test of sphericity had a value of .000**.** Using a minimum eigen value equal to one, five factors were extracted and accounted for 58.3 percent of the variable space. A summary of the rotated factors from the Principal Component Analysis is presented in Table 3.

Table 3.—Rotated Component Loadings Matrix* Arranged by Statements Associated With Kouzes and Posner's Identified Leadership Practices

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
CTP Statement 1	0.74				
CTP Statement 6	0.71				
CTP Statement 11	0.67				
CTP Statement 16			0.52		
CTP Statement 21	0.64				
CTP Statement 26	0.46				
ISV Statement 2	0.78				
ISV Statement 7	0.76				
ISV Statement 12	0.71				
ISV Statement 17	0.56				
ISV Statement 22	0.57				
ISV Statement 27					
EOA Statement 3				0.70	
EOA Statement 8				0.44	
EOA Statement 13				0.71	
EOA Statement 18					0.68
EOA Statement 23					0.73
EOA Statement 28	0.43				
MTW Statement 4				0.60	
MTW Statement 9			0.59		
MTW Statement 14			0.52	0.53	
MTW Statement 19		0.43			
MTW Statement 24			0.59		
MTW Statement 29			0.61		
ETH Statement 5		0.73			
ETH Statement 10		0.64			
ETH Statement 15		0.58			
ETH Statement 20		0.59			
ETH Statement 25		0.72			
ETH Statement 30		0.76			

* Loadings of < .40 were suppressed for interpretation

A Principal Component Analysis was used to extract constructs. Five constructs were, in fact, extracted. Observing component number one, the factor loading of Statements 1, 6, 11, 21, and 26 (Table 3) all exceeded the criterion value of .40. These statements matched the Kouzes and Posner leadership practice Challenging the Process. Only statement 16 did not load with the other statements identified with that leadership practice. Statement 16 was, "I ask, "What can we learn?" when things do not go as expected." This statement loaded on component three, the component that also contained most of the statements related to the Kouzes and Posner leadership practice of Modeling the Way. Perhaps this can be explained by stating that an openness to the ideas of others, particularly in crises, was an inclusive leadership action, and therefore seen more as how to Model the Way as a leader than as a challenge to the process.

Additionally, the factor loading for statements 2, 7, 12, 17, and 22, almost corresponded completely with the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision, but also loaded on component one. The only statement identified with that practice that did not load on component one, was statement 27, which was "I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work." In fact, this statement did not load on any of the components. The highest loading for statement 27 was a .383, which, had it been slightly higher, *would* have placed it in the same construct as the other Inspiring a Shared Vision variables. Yet, since it did not load on that construct, or on any of the others for that matter, there was pause to consider its place in the instrument. In other words, perhaps statement 27 should not have been part of the thirty statement survey. Interestingly, it was the statement that ranked the highest for chief student affairs

officers under the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision. This suggests that, although chief student affairs officers personally identify with that statement, the statement itself does not fit (as well) with the other statements in the instrument.

Thus, eleven of the statements loaded on component one, corresponding with two distinct Kouzes and Posner leadership practices. For the Kouzes and Posner leadership practice Challenging the Process, five of the six statements were included in that eleven. Five of the six Inspiring a Shared Vision statements also loaded on component one. This suggested that chief student affairs officers did not perceive much difference between the two Kouzes and Posner leadership practices of Challenging the Process and Inspiring a Shared Vision.

The one statement to load on component one that was not linked to either the Challenging the Process or Inspiring a Shared Vision leadership practices was statement 28. This statement was one of Kouzes and Posner's Enabling Others to Act statements. Statement 28 stated, "I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing them." Perhaps it loaded on component one because chief student affairs officers saw ensuring growth in others as either Challenging the Process or Inspiring a Shared Vision.

Statements 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, and 30 all loaded on component number two, matching exactly the statements corresponding to the Kouzes and Posner leadership practice Encouraging the Heart. This suggests that the leadership practice Encouraging the Heart was distinctly different than the other leadership practices. However, one other statement also loaded on construct two, and that was statement 19. Statement 19

was, “I am clear about my philosophy of leadership.” Perhaps chief student affairs officers felt that being clear about philosophy had more to do with encouragement than with modeling. However, the researcher did not believe that this was the best fit for statement 19 since the research showed that clarity is more germane to modeling the way.

Statements 9, 14, 24, and 29, four of the six statements related to Kouzes and Posner’s leadership practice Modeling the Way, loaded on component number three. However, statements 4 and 19, also associated with Kouzes and Posner’s leadership practice Modeling the Way, did not load on component three. Statement 4 loaded on component 4, and statement 19 loaded on component 2. Statement 4 was, “I set a personal example of what I expect from others.” The researcher felt that this statement, like statement 19, was misplaced. That is, statement 4 should have loaded on component three along with the other Kouzes and Posner Modeling the Way statements. However, since it did not, an examination will follow as to with which other statements it loaded on component four. As noted above, statement 16 loaded on component three with the four noted Modeling the Way statements.

The loadings deviated even further from the Kouzes and Posner statements in relation to their leadership practice Enabling Others to Act. The six items comprising the Kouzes and Posner leadership practice Enabling Others to Act did not all load on the same construct. Perhaps this indicated that Enabling Others to Act was a leadership practice that was not as distinguishable from the other leadership practices. Looking more closely at the data, three of the Kouzes and Posner statements associated with their

leadership practice, Enabling Others to Act, did load on the same component. These were statements 3, 8 and 13. The statement 3 statement was, "I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with." The statement 8 statement was, "I actively listen to diverse points of view." The statement 13 statement was, "I treat others with dignity and respect." These three statements that loaded together indicated a construct that had something to do with Enabling Others to Act, but perhaps could be renamed as a new leadership practice. Component 4 held statements related to two different leadership practices. Statement 4, as noted above, also loaded on component 4. Statement 14 also loaded on component number four, which had already been identified with component number three. Statement 14 was, "I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make." Although this statement was "supposed" to load with the leadership practice Modeling the Way, apparently another leadership practice also included ideas related to upholding commitments. This double loading is unique to the study and could mean that the statement has elements pertaining to two different leadership practices.

The Kouzes and Posner statements 18 and 23, also associated with their leadership practice Enabling Others to Act, did not load with the three others just mentioned, but were the only statements to load on component 5. The statement 18 was, "I support the decisions that people make on their own." The statement 23 was, "I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work." These two statements seemed to more closely align with the Kouzes and Posner leadership practice Enabling Others to Act. Clearly, chief student affairs officers differed from the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database regarding this particular leadership practice.

All 30 statements related to Kouzes and Posner's leadership practices are presented in Table 4. They are arranged from highest mean to lowest mean, and include the corresponding standard deviations.

When the 30 statements were ranked in order from highest to lowest mean score (Table 4), statement number 13 (I treat others with dignity and respect) was rated the highest (mean = 9.67). This statement also had the smallest standard deviation (SD = 0.65) of any of the 30 statements. Four of the top seven mean scores were statements that relate to Enabling Others to Act. These were statements 13, 3, 23, and 8.

It seems, then, that chief student affairs officers perceive that they do indeed enable others to act. Since part of leadership is empowering others to do their best in the interest of the institution, this really is not a surprise. The other three top seven mean scores included two statements related to Modeling the Way (statements 14 and 4), and one statement related to Inspiring a Shared Vision (statement 27). These high Modeling the Way statements are not a surprise because the overall mean for that leadership practice was just below the overall mean for the leadership practice Enabling Others to Act. In fact, the lowest Modeling the Way mean was not even in the bottom five statements (statement number 9 which said, "I spend time and energy on principles"). This signaled that chief student affairs officers perceived that they Model the Way in addition to Enabling Others to Act.

Table 4.—Chief Student Affairs Officers' Mean Leadership Practices Inventory Ratings for Each Individual Statement Ranked Highest to Lowest

LPI Statement Number	Mean*	Standard Deviation
13. Treat others with dignity and respect	9.67	0.65
14. Follow through on promises	9.41	0.82
3. Develop cooperative relationships	9.37	0.85
4. Set a personal example	9.33	0.84
23. Give freedom and choice	8.90	1.09
27. Speak about purpose of work	8.80	1.48
8. Listen to diverse points of view	8.78	1.14
5. Praise people for a job well done	8.76	1.24
19. Clear about philosophy of leadership	8.65	1.40
30. Give appreciation and support	8.60	1.38
16. Ask, "What can we learn?"	8.59	1.29
18. Support decisions of others	8.56	1.02
28. Ensure that people grow	8.47	1.31
20. Recognize publicly	8.46	1.57
26. Overcome obstacles	8.44	1.25
10. Let people know confidence in abilities	8.44	1.30
6. Try new and innovative approaches	8.37	1.32
29. Make progress to goals one step at a time	8.20	1.47
22. Contagiously enthusiastic about future	8.17	1.46
2. Talk about future trends	8.16	1.40
24. Set achievable goals and concrete plans	8.13	1.44
1. Seek challenging opportunities	7.96	1.44
11. Search outside organization	7.95	1.69
25. Celebrate accomplishments	7.95	1.49
9. Spend time and energy on principles	7.91	1.72
17. Enlist others in common vision	7.73	1.65
15. Reward contributions to success	7.73	1.44
21. Experiment and take risks	7.66	1.54
7. Describe compelling image of future	7.57	1.64
12. Appeal to others to share dream	7.44	1.90

*Maximum = 10

The lowest statement according to mean score ranking was for statement number 12 (I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future) with a mean score of 7.44

(SD = 1.90). Interestingly, the two lowest statements on the mean score ranking were related to the Kouzes and Posner leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision. Although the lowest mean score was a 7.44, that still translated to a leadership practice that was engaged in fairly often (7) to usually (8). Therefore, even the leadership practice of Inspiring a Shared Vision was perceived to be strongly used by chief student affairs officers in the United States.

Challenging the Process

The researcher presented the chief student affairs officers' mean Leadership Practices Inventory ratings for each statement ranked from highest to lowest within each practice, as well as their corresponding standard deviations. The statements related to Kouzes and Posner's leadership practice Challenging the Process were grouped together and the sample means and standard deviations are presented in Table 5.

Table 5.—Chief Student Affairs Officers' Mean Leadership Practices Inventory Ratings for Statements Related to Challenging the Process

LPI Statement Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
16. Ask, "What can we learn?"	8.59	1.29
26. Overcome obstacles	8.44	1.25
6. Try new and innovative approaches	8.37	1.32
1. Seek challenging opportunities	7.96	1.44
11. Search outside organization	7.95	1.69
21. Experiment and take risks	7.66	1.54

Statement number 16 (I ask "what can we learn?" when things do not go as expected) ranked as the highest mean score under Challenging the Process, and the 11th highest mean out of the thirty statements. This suggests that chief student affairs officers are open to thinking systemically about processes. All of the means for the statements related to the leadership practice Challenging the Process were within one standard deviation of each other, signifying an agreement by chief student affairs officers that these practices are engaged in at a high level. The frequencies and corresponding percentages related to Kouzes and Posner's leadership practice Challenging the Process are presented in Table 6. Additionally, the same data is presented in Figure 1.

Table 6.—Frequency Counts and Percentages of Specific Scores on Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practice Challenging the Process from the LPI-Self Completed by Chief Student Affairs Officers

Score	Frequency	Percent
29	1	0.30
32	1	0.30
34	1	0.30
35	1	0.30
36	4	1.18
37	3	0.89
38	9	2.66
39	11	3.25
40	7	2.07
41	8	2.37
42	11	3.25
43	9	2.66
44	14	4.14
45	20	5.92
46	13	3.85
47	17	5.03
48	21	6.21
49	19	5.62
50	17	5.03
51	21	6.21
52	18	5.33
53	20	5.92
54	22	6.51
55	21	6.21
56	12	3.55
57	10	2.96
58	12	3.55
59	10	2.96
60	5	1.48
Total	338	100

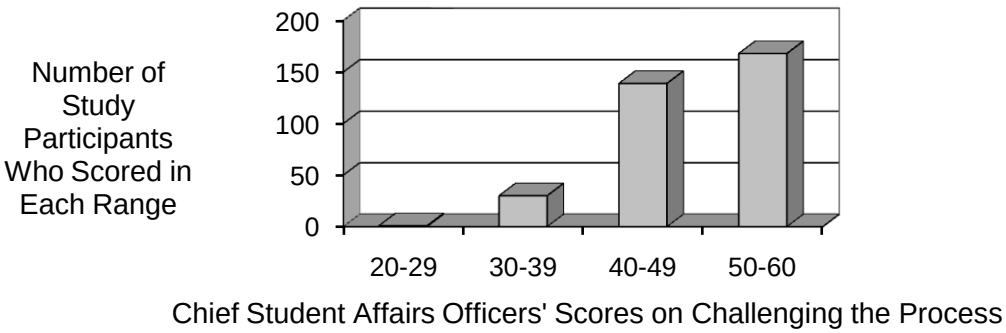

Figure 1. Histogram of Specific Scores on Challenging the Process

The frequency counts for the leadership practice Challenging the Process ranged from a low score of 29 to a high score of 60. The frequency table also demonstrated that almost 50 percent of respondents scored between a 47 and 57, corresponding with an average of about 8 and 9 per statement. Again, this signifies that chief student affairs officers perceive that they Challenge the Process usually to very frequently.

Inspiring a Shared Vision

The statements related to Kouzes and Posner's leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision were grouped together and the sample means and standard deviations are presented in Table 7.

Table 7.—Chief Student Affairs Officers' Mean Leadership Practices Inventory Ratings for Statements Related to Inspiring a Shared Vision

LPI Statement Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
27. Speak about purpose of work	8.80	1.48
22. Contagiously enthusiastic about future	8.17	1.46
2. Talk about future trends	8.16	1.40
17. Enlist others in common vision	7.73	1.65
7. Describe a compelling image of the future	7.57	1.64
12. Appeal to others to share dream	7.44	1.90

I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work (statement number 27) ranked highest under Inspiring a Shared Vision. As noted earlier, the lowest two means for the Inspiring a Shared Vision statements also happened to be the lowest two means overall (statements 7 and 12). Additionally, statement 17 also ranked in the bottom five of the thirty statements. This would seem to suggest that chief student affairs officers do not perceive that they Inspire a Shared Vision. However, a 7.44 corresponds to a practice used fairly often. Thus, one could conclude that chief student affairs officers believe that they do Inspire a Shared Vision, but do so less frequently than the other four leadership practices.

The frequencies and corresponding percentages related to Kouzes and Posner's leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision were presented in Table 8. Additionally, the same data is presented in Figure 2.

Table 8.—Frequency Counts and Percentages of Specific Scores on Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practice Inspiring a Shared Vision from the LPI-Self Completed by Chief Student Affairs Officers

Score	Frequency	Percent
23	1	0.30
25	1	0.30
27	1	0.30
30	2	0.59
31	1	0.30
32	1	0.30
33	2	0.59
34	3	0.89
35	5	1.48
36	5	1.48
37	8	2.37
38	8	2.37
39	13	3.85
40	9	2.66
41	12	3.55
42	14	4.14
43	12	3.55
44	14	4.14
45	17	5.03
46	11	3.25
47	16	4.73
48	15	4.44
49	19	5.62
50	15	4.44
51	19	5.62
52	18	5.33
53	20	5.92
54	18	5.33
55	19	5.62
56	8	2.37
57	10	2.96
58	8	2.37
59	9	2.66
60	4	1.18
Total	338	100

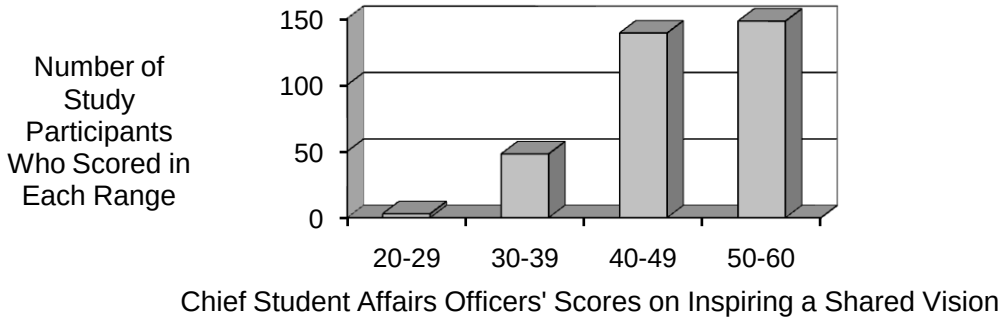

Figure 2. Histogram of Specific Scores on Inspiring a Shared Vision

The frequency counts for the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision ranged from a low score of 23 to a high score of 60. The frequency table also demonstrated that the highest number of respondents scored a 53, corresponding with an average of almost 9 per statement. This signifies that almost 17% of chief student affairs officers perceive that they Inspire a Shared Vision very frequently. In fact, almost a quarter (22.48%) of respondents perceive that they engage in this leadership practice very frequently to almost always. Thus, even though Inspiring a Shared Vision had the lowest overall mean, chief student affairs officers perceive that they are strong in this leadership practice.

Enabling Others to Act

The statements related to Kouzes and Posner's leadership practice Enabling Others to Act were grouped together and the sample means and standard deviations are presented in Table 9.

Table 9.—Chief Student Affairs Officers' Mean Leadership Practices Inventory Ratings for Statements Related to Enabling Others to Act

LPI Statement Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
13. Treat others with dignity and respect	9.67	0.65
3. Develop cooperative relationships	9.37	0.85
23. Give freedom and choice	8.90	1.09
8. Listen to diverse points of view	8.78	1.14
18. Support decisions of others	8.56	1.02
28. Ensure that people grow	8.47	1.31

Enabling Others to Act included several statements with high mean scores. In fact, all six statements scored in the top twelve of the thirty statements. The highest mean score in this leadership practice was statement number 13 (I treat others with dignity and respect), and it was the highest scoring statement of all. It appeared that chief student affairs officers perceived that they engaged in this leadership practice usually (8) to almost always (10). It was also interesting to note that the corresponding standard deviations were quite small, suggesting that chief student affairs officers were in agreement about the strength of this leadership practice.

The frequencies and corresponding percentages related to Kouzes and Posner's leadership practice Enabling Others to Act were presented in Table 10. Additionally, the same data is presented in Figure 3.

Table 10.—Frequency Counts and Percentages of Specific Scores on Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practice Enabling Others to Act from the LPI-Self Completed by Chief Student Affairs Officers

Score	Frequency	Percent
38	1	0.30
40	1	0.30
42	1	0.30
43	2	0.59
44	4	1.18
45	3	0.89
46	6	1.78
47	6	1.78
48	11	3.25
49	9	2.66
50	19	5.62
51	23	6.80
52	23	6.80
53	36	10.65
54	29	8.58
55	34	10.06
56	40	11.83
57	37	10.95
58	26	7.69
59	17	5.03
60	10	2.96
Total	338	100

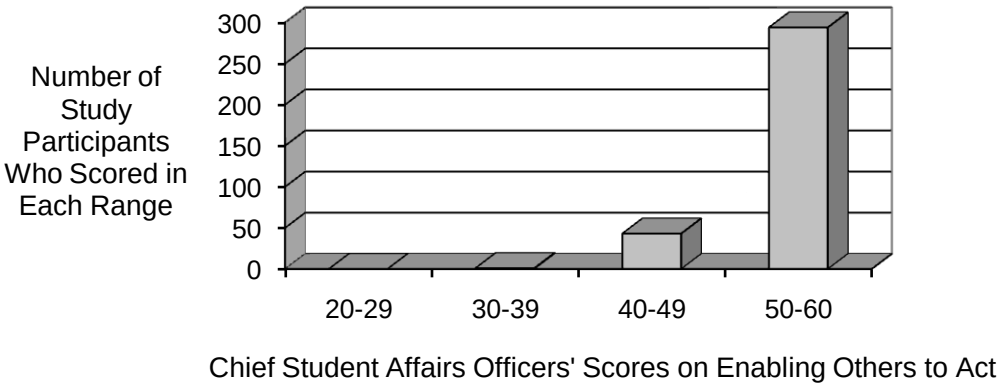

Figure 3. Histogram of Specific Scores on Enabling Others to Act

The frequency counts for the leadership practice Enabling Others to Act ranged from a low score of 38 to a high score of 60. In fact, 57.1% of respondents self-scored from a 54 to a 60, or an average of 9 or higher per statement. This means that chief student affairs officers perceive that they exhibit this leadership practice very frequently to almost always. The histogram (Figure 3) provided an excellent visual of this skewed self-perception regarding the leadership practice Enabling Others to Act.

Modeling the Way

The statements related to Kouzes and Posner's leadership practice Modeling the Way were grouped together and the sample means and standard deviations are presented in Table 11.

Table 11.—Chief Student Affairs Officers' Mean Leadership Practices Inventory Ratings for Statements Related to Modeling the Way

LPI Statement Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
14. Follow through on promises	9.41	0.82
4. Set a personal example	9.33	0.84
19. Clear about philosophy of leadership	8.65	1.40
29. Make progress to goals one step at a time	8.20	1.47
24. Set achievable goals and concrete plans	8.13	1.44
9. Spend time and energy on principles	7.91	1.72

Statement number 14 (I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make) held the highest mean score for Modeling the Way. Chief student affairs officers seemed to believe that the statement related to keeping their word best exemplified their leadership practices. In fact, the standard deviations for the first two statements indicated a strong agreement about the perceived leadership practice of Modeling the Way. The last statement (number 9) had the greatest standard deviation in addition to the lowest mean for this leadership practice. Even so, a mean of 7.91 corresponds to a perception of usually. Thus, chief student affairs officers perceived that they were Modeling the Way.

The frequencies and corresponding percentages related to Kouzes and Posner's leadership practice Modeling the Way are presented in Table 12. Additionally, the same data is presented in Figure 4.

Table 12.—Frequency Counts and Percentages of Specific Scores on Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practice Modeling the Way from the LPI-Self Completed by Chief Student Affairs Officers

Score	Frequency	Percent
32	1	0.30
34	1	0.30
36	1	0.30
37	3	0.89
38	1	0.30
39	2	0.59
40	3	0.89
41	7	2.07
42	4	1.18
43	5	1.48
44	6	1.78
45	7	2.07
46	15	4.44
47	9	2.66
48	18	5.33
49	17	5.03
50	22	6.51
51	25	7.40
52	30	8.88
53	24	7.10
54	25	7.40
55	30	8.88
56	20	5.92
57	13	3.85
58	27	7.99
59	15	4.44
60	7	2.07
Total	338	100

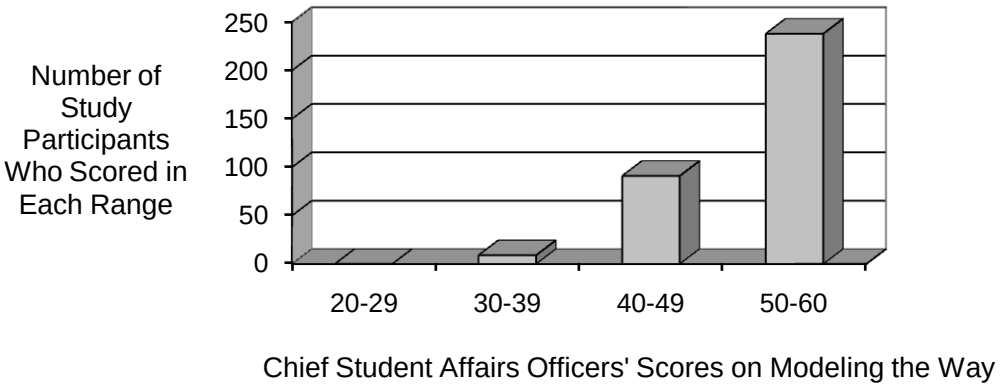

Figure 4. Histogram of Specific Scores on Modeling the Way

The frequency counts for the leadership practice Modeling the Way ranged from a low score of 32 to a high score of 60. According to the frequency table, almost 81% of respondents self-scored a 48 to 60 on this leadership practice, corresponding with a perception that the engagement was, at a minimum, usually. Clearly, chief student affairs officers believed that they Modeled the Way. Again, the histogram (Figure 4) provided an excellent visual of this skewed self-perception regarding the leadership practice Modeling the Way.

Encouraging the Heart

The statements related to Kouzes and Posner's leadership practice Encouraging the Heart were grouped together and the sample means and standard deviations are presented in Table 13.

Table 13.—Chief Student Affairs Officers' Mean Leadership Practices Inventory Ratings for Statements Related to Encouraging the Heart

LPI Statement Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
5. Praise people for a job well done	8.76	1.24
30. Give appreciation and support	8.60	1.38
20. Recognize publicly	8.46	1.57
10. Let people know confidence in abilities	8.44	1.30
25. Celebrate accomplishments	7.95	1.49
15. Reward contributions to success	7.73	1.44

I praise people for a job well done (statement number 5) was the highest rated statement under Encouraging the Heart. The scores for this leadership practice, compared to the other four, were quite spread out. Nevertheless, chief student affairs officers perceive that, even for the lowest scoring statement, they engaged in this leadership practice fairly often.

The frequencies and corresponding percentages related to Kouzes and Posner's leadership practice Encouraging the Heart are presented in Table 14. Additionally, the same data is presented in Figure 5.

Table 14.—Frequency Counts and Percentages of Specific Scores on Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practice Encouraging the Heart from the LPI-Self Completed by Chief Student Affairs Officers

Score	Frequency	Percent
26	1	0.30
28	1	0.30
29	1	0.30
32	1	0.30
34	2	0.59
35	4	1.18
36	5	1.48
37	3	0.89
38	4	1.18
39	8	2.37
40	8	2.37
41	8	2.37
42	4	1.18
43	6	1.78
44	11	3.25
45	11	3.25
46	7	2.07
47	12	3.55
48	17	5.03
49	21	6.21
50	22	6.51
51	27	7.99
52	21	6.21
53	14	4.14
54	23	6.80
55	20	5.92
56	23	6.80
57	18	5.33
58	21	6.21
59	7	2.07
60	7	2.07
Total	338	100

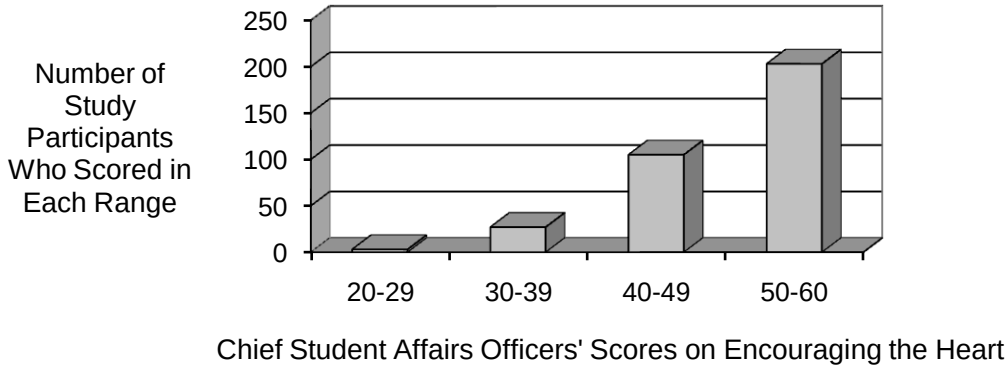

Figure 5. Histogram of Specific Scores on Encouraging the Heart

The frequency counts for the leadership practice Encouraging the Heart ranged from a low score of 26 to a high score of 60. Like the leadership practice Modeling the Way, 7 respondents scored themselves the highest possible for each statement related to the leadership practice Encouraging the Heart. Twenty-seven respondents scored a 51, accounting for almost 13% of all respondents. A score of 51 corresponded with the perception that chief student affairs officers usually engaged in this leadership practice.

In summary, the research suggested that chief student affairs officers perceive that they engaged in each of the leadership practices as identified by Kouzes and Posner. In fact, chief student affairs officers perceived that they engaged in all five leadership practices usually to almost always. However, the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision had the lowest score of all five leadership practices. In fact, out of the thirty statements used on the instrument, two pertaining to this leadership practice were lowest, namely, statement 7 ("I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like") and statement 12 ("I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future"). This

suggested that, though still strong, chief student affairs officers should afford some attention to the leadership practice of Inspiring a Shared Vision.

Analysis of Research Question Two

In research question two, the researcher asked, **"Do chief student affairs officers at selected institutions of higher education in the United States, who differ in terms of specific demographic variables (i.e., gender, ethnicity, number of years in present position, type of institution, and size of institution), differ in terms of self-reported, perceived leadership practices as indicated by the Leadership Practices Inventory?"**

The first step in answering this research question was to identify the different demographic variables in relation to the participants in the study. Demographic variables were obtained for both self-reports and direct-reports. However, while each chief student affairs officer was asked to provide email addresses of direct reports, not all did. For those who did provide email addresses, a number of direct reports did indeed fill out the LPI-Observer. In fact, there were a total of 152 LPI-Observer reports completed.

Gender

The gender demographic information for the chief student affairs officers and direct reports is exhibited in Table 15.

Table 15.— Gender Demographic Information For Chief Student Affairs Officers (CSAO) and Direct Reports

Gender	CSAO Frequency	CSAO Percent	Direct Report Frequency	Direct Report Percent
Male	192	56.8	62	40.8
Female	145	42.9	90	59.2
Transgender	1	0.3		
Total	338	100	152	100

Of the 338 chief student affairs officers who responded, 192 were male, 145 were female, and 1 was Transgender. The sole transgender score was discarded because an n of one results in zero degrees of freedom. One observation was that, given the sample size, there likely are other chief student affairs officers in the United States who would also mark transgender; however, based on this study the number would be too few to draw any inferences. Whereas there was a higher percentage of males than females who submitted the LPI self-reports (see Table 15), there was a higher percentage of female observer respondents than male observer respondents. This observation might support the thought that there is a "glass ceiling" for female aspiring chief student affairs officers; however, this data also may suggest a change in the gender for chief student affairs officers in the future. Since almost 43% of the sampled chief student affairs officers are currently female, the researcher would land with the latter rather than the former.

Ethnicity

The researcher used a survey instrument to ask participants to indicate their ethnicity by checking one of six boxes (Caucasian, African-American, Hispanic/Latino, Native American, Asian/Pacific Islander, Multicultural, and other). Due primarily to frequencies, these ethnic choices were reclassified (Caucasian was reclassified as White; African-American was reclassified as Black; Hispanic/Latino was reclassified as Hispanic; and Native American, Asian/Pacific Islander, Multicultural and other was reclassified as Other). The researcher used Table 16 to show the ethnicity of chief student affairs officers based on the new classifications. The ethnicity for the direct reports, also presented in Table 16, is somewhat similar to that of the Chief Student Affairs Officers.

Table 16.— Ethnicity of Chief Student Affairs Officers (CSAO) and Direct Reports

Ethnicity	CSAO Frequency	CSAO Percent	Direct Report Frequency	Direct Report Percent
White	267	79.0	131	86.2
Black	51	15.1	11	7.2
Hispanic	10	3.0	3	2.0
Other	10	3.0	7	4.6
Total	338	100.0	152	100.0

`Two hundred sixty-seven (or 79.0%) of the 338 chief student affairs officers indicated their ethnicity as White. Another forty-nine (or 14.5%) survey respondents

indicated their ethnicity as African American. However, since one respondent self-identified as African, and one respondent self-identified as Black, these 51 respondents (or 15.1%) were reclassified as Black. Next, ten individuals selected the Hispanic/Latino option, accounting for 3.0% of the respondents. Finally, since the numbers for Asian/Pacific Islander and Multicultural respondents were so few, the remaining 10 participants were thus classified as Other and also accounted for 3.0% of the total respondents. While recognizing that direct reports may not represent all direct reports for chief student affairs officers, there are a higher percentage of White direct reports than all the other ethnicities combined. This finding might support the thought that aspiring chief student affairs officers of the future may, in fact, come from a less diverse pool.

Number of Years in Present Position

The researcher was interested in the number of years each participant had served in their present position. The frequencies and percentages for these categories, for chief student affairs officers and direct reports, are displayed in Table 17. The researcher used Figure 6 to display the data in a histogram.

Table 17.— Chief Student Affairs Officers (CSAO) and Direct Reports' Number of Years in Present Position

Number of Years in Present Position	CSAO Frequency	CSAO Percent	Direct Report Frequency	Direct Report Percent
0-5 years	168	49.7	80	52.6
6-10 years	88	26.0	37	24.3
11-15 years	39	11.5	12	7.9
16-20 years	20	5.9	12	7.9
21-25 years	9	2.7	6	3.9
More than 25 years	14	4.1	5	3.3
Total	338	100.0	152	100.0

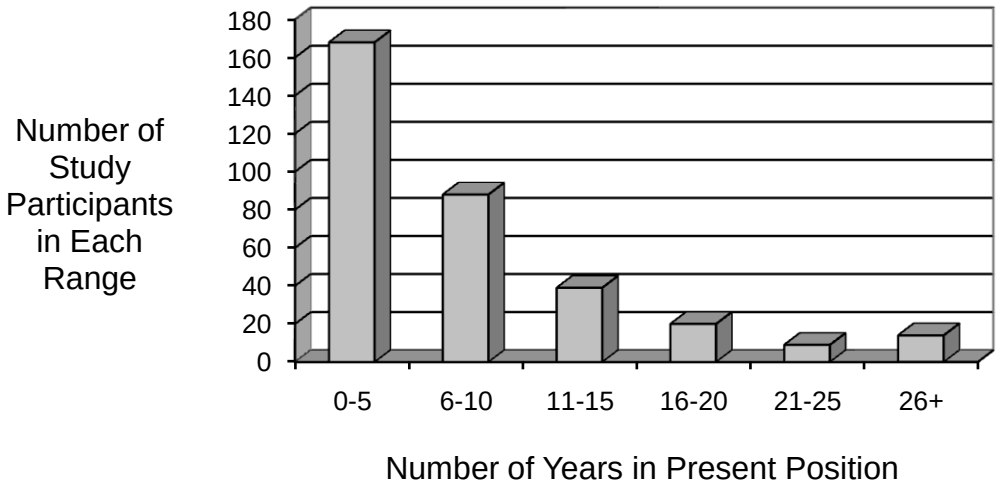

Figure 6. Histogram of Sample Chief Student Affairs Officers' Number of Years in Present Position

The options for the number of years in present position included 0-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years, 21-25 years, and 26+ years. One hundred and sixty-eight chief student affairs officer respondents (or 49.7%) marked the 0-5 years category. The 0-5 years category was reclassified as "new" for later data analysis. Eighty-eight respondents (or 26.0%) selected 6-10 years while thirty-nine respondents (or 11.5%) selected 11-15 years. For later data analysis, these two ranges of years, or 127 respondents, were collapsed into one category that could be called "medium" and accounted for 37.6% of respondents. While twenty respondents (or 5.9%) selected 16-20 years and nine respondents (or 2.7%) selected 21-25 years, fourteen respondents (or 4.1%) claimed to have been in their present position for 26 years or longer! These last three ranges (16-20, 21-25, and 26+), or 43 respondents, were collapsed into one category called "experienced" (or 12.7%) for later data analysis. Interestingly, only a slightly higher percentage of direct reports checked the 0-5 year category.

Since almost 50% of chief student affairs officers have been in their position a maximum of five years, and three-fourths for a maximum of 10 years, a majority of chief student affairs officers have not been in their position for most of their career. This finding seems plausible given that some chief student affairs officers eventually become Presidents or, since they serve at the request of the President, may be replaced when a new President is selected. It was also interesting to note that almost 7% of both chief student affairs officers and direct reports have remained in their same position for more than 20 years. This position longevity seems to indicate either a love for the work and a

desire to remain in the position or an inability, for whatever reason, to find different employment.

Educational Background

Educational background was another demographic variable. The frequencies and percentages for these categories are displayed in Table 18. The researcher used Figure 7 to display the data in a histogram.

Table 18.— Chief Student Affairs Officers (CSAO) and Direct Reports' Educational Background

Highest Degree Obtained	CSAO Frequency	CSAO Percent	Direct Report Frequency	Direct Report Percent
Doctoral Degree	201	59.47	27	17.8
Master's Degree	130	38.46	95	62.5
Bachelor's Degree	5	1.48	27	17.8
High School	1	0.30	3	2.0
Total	337	99.70	152	100.0

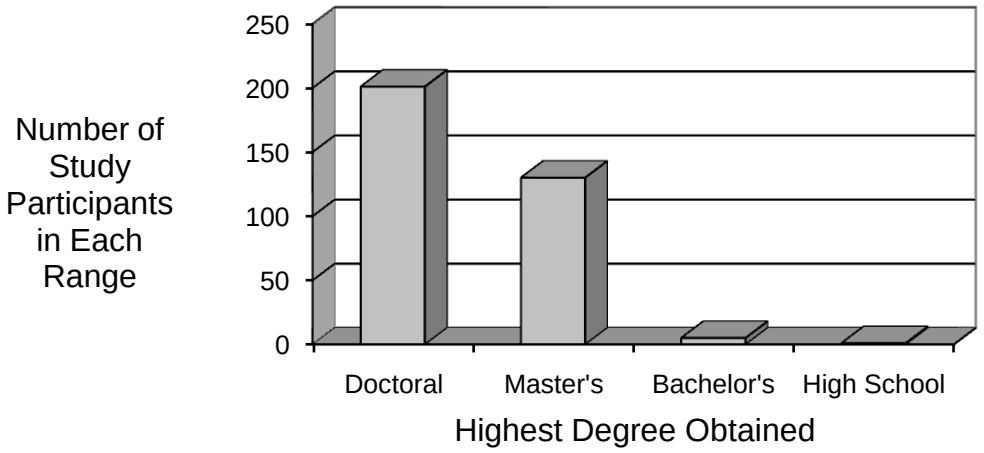

Figure 7. Histogram of Sample Chief Student Affairs Officers' Highest Degree Obtained

Two hundred and one of the chief student affairs officer respondents (or 59.5%) had completed a doctoral degree. An additional one hundred and thirty respondents (or 38.5%) had completed a master's degree, including seven respondents who noted that they were "all but dissertation." Only five (or 1.5%) did not progress beyond a bachelor's degree, and only one listed high school diploma as the highest degree earned. One of the 338 respondents did not provide this information. One hundred and twenty-two (or 80%) of the one hundred and fifty-two direct reports had obtained at least a master's degree. These findings for educational background were not surprising given that chief student affairs officer job description qualifications often either list doctorate required or doctorate preferred. Additionally, the direct report data provided a reasonable picture of educational background as well given that a majority of direct reports had completed their master's degrees but had not completed their doctorates.

Perhaps direct reports that were aspiring to be chief student affairs officers may recognize that the pursuit of a terminal degree is closely linked with promotion.

Type of Institution

The type of institution where the respondents served was also of interest. The frequencies and percentages for these chief student affairs officers and direct reports are explained in Table 19 and Figure 8.

Table 19.— Chief Student Affairs Officers (CSAO) and Direct Reports' Type of Institution

Type of Institution	CSAO Frequency	CSAO Percent	Direct Report Frequency	Direct Report Percent
4 year private	147	43.5	69	45.4
4 year public	125	37.0	61	40.1
2 year public	60	17.8	22	14.5
2 year private	6	1.8		
Total	338	100.0	152	100.0

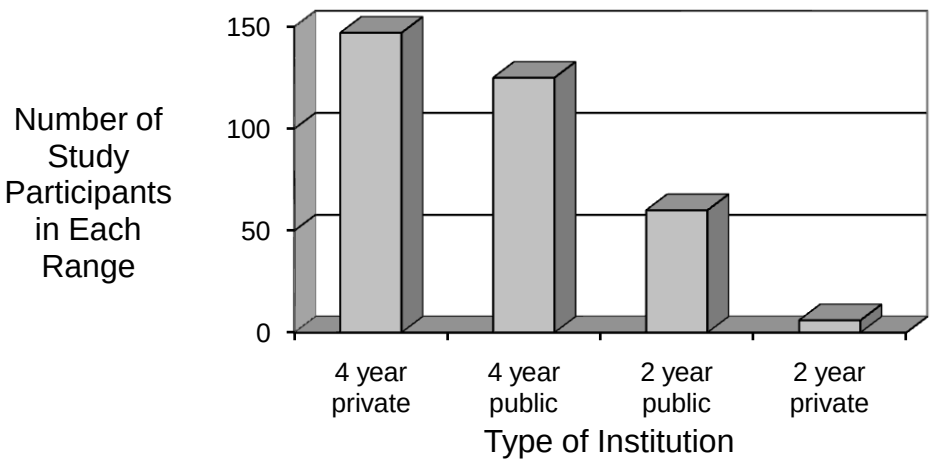

Figure 8. Histogram of Sample Chief Student Affairs Officers' Type of Institution

Four options were provided on the institutional type portion of the demographic part of the survey. The options included 2 year private, 2 year public, 4 year private, and 4 year public. Six chief student affairs officers (or 1.8%) marked the 2 year private option. Sixty respondents (or 17.8%) selected 2 year public. The largest number of respondents, or one hundred and forty seven, identified 4 year private. This number accounted for 43.5% of the chief student affairs officers. Additionally, one hundred and twenty-five respondents (or 37.0%) selected the 4 year public option. Not surprising, the numbers for direct reports were very similar to those of the chief student affairs officers.

Size of Institution

The size of the institution where the chief student affairs officers served was also of interest. The researcher made eight options available for this demographic variable. These eight options corresponded with the enrollment classifications for *College Universe Selections* found at www.schooldata.com. The researcher used Table 20 to

indicate the resulting frequencies and percentages of these categories for chief student affairs officers and their direct reports. The researcher used Figure 9 to display the chief student affairs officers data in a histogram.

Table 20.— Chief Student Affairs Officers (CSAO) and Direct Reports' Size of Institution (based on enrollment)

Size of Institution	CSAO Frequency	CSAO Percent	Direct Report Frequency	Direct Report Percent
0-500	15	4.4	2	1.3
501-1,000	36	10.7	12	7.9
1,001-2,500	92	27.2	38	25
2,501-5,000	60	17.8	38	25
5,001-7,500	29	8.6	12	7.9
7,501-10,000	21	6.2	12	7.9
10,001-16,000	41	12.1	19	12.5
16,001-25,000	25	7.4	14	9.2
More than 25,000	19	5.6	5	3.3
Total	338	100.0	152	100.0

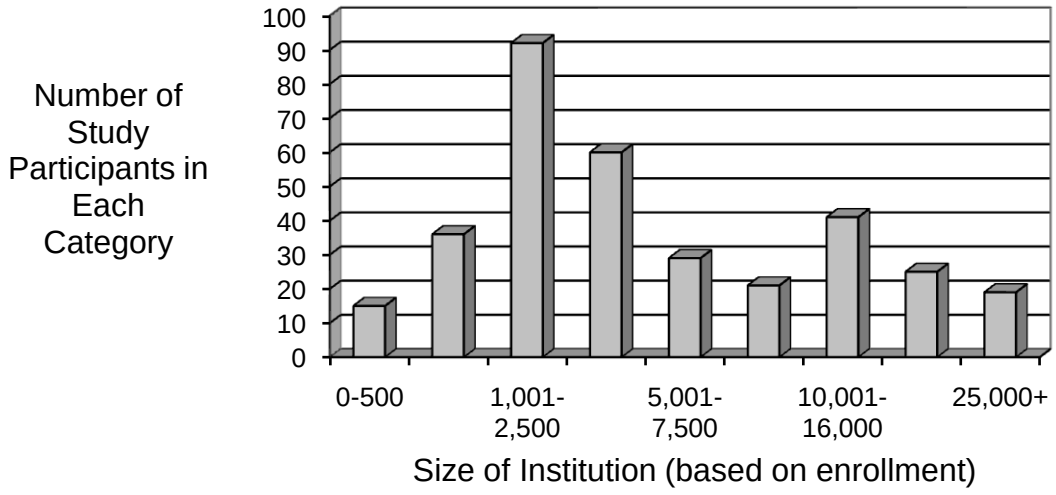

Figure 9. Histogram of Sample Chief Student Affairs Officers' Size of Institution (based on enrollment)

Fifteen chief student affairs respondents (or 4.4%) selected 0-500, thirty-six respondents (10.7%) selected 501-1000, and ninety-two respondents (or 27.2%) selected 1,001-2,500. For later data analysis, these ranges (or 143 and 42.3% of respondents) were collapsed into a category called "small." Sixty respondents (or 17.8%) selected 2,501-5,000, twenty-nine respondents (or 8.6%) selected 5,001-7,500, and twenty-one respondents (or 6.2%) selected 7,501-10,000. For later data analysis, these ranges (or 110 and 32.5% of respondents) were collapsed into a category called "medium." Finally, forty-one respondents (or 12.1%) selected 10,001-16,000 and twenty-five respondents (or 7.4%) selected 16,001-25,000 while nineteen respondents (or 5.6%) selected 25,000+ for a combined "large" category of 85 respondents or 25.1%. For direct reports, the corresponding numbers and percentages were 52 (or 34.2%) for "small", 62 (or 40.8%) for "medium", and 38 (or 25%) for "large."

The researcher wanted to see if any of the demographic variables were related to scores on the five practices of leadership. In order to run a multiple linear regression for each leadership practice, all of the demographic variables (number of years in position, gender, ethnicity, education, type of institution, and size of institution) had to be dummy coded because they contained nominal scale data. Number of years became variables X_1 (1 if "new" or 0-5 years, 0 if otherwise) and X_2 (1 if "medium" or 6-10 years, 0 if otherwise). The "experienced" group, or those in their position for more than 10 years, became the baseline used for comparison. Gender became variable X_3 (1 if female, 0 if male). The ethnicity variables were coded to X_4 (1 if "Other", 0 if otherwise), X_5 (1 if "Black", 0 if otherwise), and X_6 (1 if "Hispanic", 0 if otherwise). For ethnicity, White was the baseline used for comparison. Educational background was coded as variables X_7 (1 if attained less than a Master's degree, 0 if otherwise) and X_8 (1 if attained a Master's degree, 0 if otherwise). For educational background, the baseline used for comparison was those who have attained a doctoral degree. Type of institution became variables X_9 (1 if private 2-year, 0 if otherwise), X_{10} (1 if public 2-year, 0 if otherwise), and X_{11} (1 if private 4-year, 0 if otherwise). For type of institution, public 4-year was the baseline used for comparison. Size of institution was coded to variables X_{12} (1 if "small" or 1-2500 students, 0 if otherwise) and X_{13} (1 if "medium" or 2501-10,000 students, 0 if otherwise). For size of institution, "large" or more than 10,000 students became the baseline used for comparison.

The multivariate regression scores for dependent variables are presented in Table 21.

Table 21.—Multivariate Regression Scores for Dependent Variables

Variable	Test	Value	Approx.F	Prob>F
Whole Model	Wilks' Lambda	0.6657	2.0845	<.0001
	Pillai's Trace	0.3825	2.0520	<.0001
	Hotelling-Lawley	0.4339	2.1121	<.0001
	Roy's Max Root	0.1950	4.8288	<.0001
Number of Years	Wilks' Lambda	0.9570	1.4132	0.1701
	Pillai's Trace	0.0432	1.4076	0.1725
	Hotelling-Lawley	0.0448	1.4187	0.1676
	Roy's Max Root	0.0403	2.5722	0.0267
Gender	Exact F	0.0290	1.8430	0.1041
Ethnicity	Wilks' Lambda	0.9414	1.2952	0.1979
	Pillai's Trace	0.0930	1.2917	0.1999
	Hotelling-Lawley	0.0978	1.2979	0.1960
	Roy's Max Root	0.0621	2.8029	0.0171
Level of Education	Wilks' Lambda	0.9090	3.1063	0.0007
	Pillai's Trace	0.0930	3.1108	0.0007
	Hotelling-Lawley	0.0978	3.1017	0.0007
	Roy's Max Root	0.0621	3.9591	0.0017
Type of Institution	Wilks' Lambda	0.9147	1.9216	0.0183
	Pillai's Trace	0.0867	1.9029	0.0197
	Hotelling-Lawley	0.0917	1.9376	0.0169
	Roy's Max Root	0.0726	4.6488	0.0004
Size of Institution	Wilks' Lambda	0.9594	1.3315	0.2095
	Pillai's Trace	0.0409	1.3314	0.2095
	Hotelling-Lawley	0.0420	1.3316	0.2094
	Roy's Max Root	0.0327	2.0884	0.0666

Considering the variables involved in this analysis, Wilks' Λ for the whole model was calculated as 0.6657. According to the MANOVA for the whole model, all four tests yielded significance for specific variables. Particularly for Wilks' Λ, which is used

most often as a criterion measure, significance was found with the level of education and type of institution variables.

To complete the statistical analysis for this question, the researcher used a computer program to calculate Wilks' Λ (lambda), Pillai's Trace, Hotelling-Lawley, and Roy's Max Root, all with alpha set at 0.05. Using a multivariate multiple regression allowed the researcher to minimize the chances of making a Type I error (rejecting the null hypothesis when it is actually true). The multivariate multiple regression allowed the researcher to maintain alpha at the 0.05 level. If the researcher were to calculate the regression on each of the demographic variables separately, each with alpha at the 0.05 level, the researcher would have actually escalated the alpha level. The p values were calculated as .00096 (Challenging the Process), .012 (Inspiring a Shared Vision), .0003 (Enabling Others to Act), .0117 (Modeling the Way), and .00048 (Encouraging the Heart). When measured against the Bonferroni (adjusted) alpha level, these p values were found to still be statistically significant. Interestingly, there were no significant predictors related to number of years in position or to gender. However, significant differences were found in each of the five leadership practices. The researcher used Table 22 to show the *Y* intercept values and regression coefficients for the demographic variables and the five leadership practices.

Table 22.—Regression Coefficients For Demographic Variables and Scores on the Five Leadership Practices

Variable	Challenging the Process	Inspiring a Shared Vision	Enabling Others to Act	Modeling the Way	Encouraging the Heart
R-squared	0.11	0.13	0.12	0.13	0.13
Intercept	50.0418	49.2600	55.5014	53.9703	53.7360
X_{1} (0-5 Years)	0.6695	0.4293	-0.5092	-0.1711	-0.4853
X_{2} (6-10 Years)	0.5826	0.7025	0.1264	0.0873	0.1972
X_{3} (Female)	0.5690	0.2557	0.4613	0.1722	0.6158
X_{4} (Other)	1.0719	0.2134	1.2914*	-0.7390	-0.1589
X_{5} (Black)	0.8827	1.3791	0.4450	1.1987	1.3288
X_{6} (Hispanic)	-0.8572	-0.0886	-0.7359	0.9871	0.4038
X_{7} (<Master's)	0.1937	2.1561	1.3716	3.0457*	4.3616*
X_{8} (=Master's)	-1.1523	-2.6370*	-0.8770	-1.7499	-2.894*
X_{9} (2year Private)	1.7555	0.5442	0.0648	-1.1166	1.1764
X_{10} (2year Public)	-0.1169	0.2200	0.6859	1.5634*	0.2988
X_{11} (4year Private)	-1.7553*	-1.6706	-1.3223*	-1.4769*	-2.105*
X_{12} ("Small")	-0.4902	0.02508	0.1033	-0.0043	-0.2555
X_{13} ("Medium")	0.4668	-0.0812	0.1619	0.8157	0.7141

* Significance at .05 alpha

A multiple linear regression to identify significant predictors was calculated and is presented in Table 23.

Table 23.—Significant Predictor P Values of Demographic Variables For the Five Leadership Practices As Identified By Kouzes and Posner

Variable	Challenging the Process	Inspiring a Shared Vision	Enabling Others to Act	Modeling the Way	Encouraging the Heart
$X_{4\ (Other)}$			0.03		
$X_{7\ (<Master's)}$				0.03	0.01
$X_{8\ (=Master's)}$		0.01		0.02	0.00
$X_{10\ (2year\ Public)}$				0.04	
$X_{11\ (4year\ Private)}$	0.02		0.01	0.02	0.01

For the leadership practice Challenging the Process, the lone significant predictor was related to institutional type. Those in 4-year private institutions on average self-scored 1.76 points lower (p=.0241) than those in 4-year public institutions. This suggests that chief student affairs officers at 4-year public institutions perceived that they engaged more frequently in the leadership practice Challenging the Process. One may then perhaps conclude that the work environment at a 4-year private institution is more conducive to collaboration. However, an openness to and usage of Challenging the Process suggests a dedication to betterment, and ultimately a dedication to excellence.

For the leadership practice of Inspiring a Shared Vision, the lone significant predictor was related to educational background. Those who had attained Master's degrees on average self-scored 2.63 points lower (p=.0111) than those who had attained a doctoral degree. Given the discussion of the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision from research question one, it appears that completing the doctoral degree helps chief student affairs officers perceive themselves as inspirational.

There were two significant predictors for the leadership practice of Enabling Others to Act. The first was with ethnicity, where the "other" group (consisting of non-White, non-Black, non-Hispanic) self-scored on average almost a half of a point higher than Whites (p=.0284). Although statistically significant, half of a point does not engender confidence that there is indeed a practical significance. In fact, given the small number of Other respondents, this finding is negligible. The second difference had to do with institutional type. Those at 4-year private institutions on average scored 1.32 points lower (p=.0068) than those working at 4-year public institutions. This perhaps suggests that chief student affairs officers at 4-year private institutions felt less freedom to Enable Others to Act. If that is the case, cultural norms of 4-year private institutions may be the cause of the constraining feelings.

The data on the leadership practice Modeling the Way revealed the most significant predictors. First, those who had attained less than a Master's degree on average self-scored 3.05 points higher than those who had attained their doctorate (p=.0320), while those who had attained a Master's degree on average self-scored 1.75 points lower than those who had attained their doctorate (p=.0238). In essence, it

appears that the attainment of the Master's degree does indeed affect perception of this leadership practice. In fact, this data suggests that attaining a doctorate is accompanied by a sense that one does not Model the Way as well. Perhaps this is due to the better understanding of complexity by those who have obtained their doctoral degree.

Next, those in a 2-year public institution on average self-scored 1.56 points higher than those in a 4-year public institution (p=.0386) while those in a 4-year private institution on average self-scored 1.48 points lower than those in a 4-year public institution (p=.0244). In essence, those in 2-year public institutions perceived that they Modeled the Way very well for their direct reports. Those chief student affairs officers in 4-year private institutions, however, scored themselves lower than the public schools. Perhaps chief student affairs officers at 4-year private institutions felt that the institution limited their ability to Model the Way. The researcher would suggest that a point and a half difference does not allow one to jump to such conclusions.

Finally, for the leadership practice Encourage the Heart, there were two significant predictors. First, those who had attained less than a Master's degree on average self-scored almost 4.5 points higher than those who had attained their doctoral degree (p=.0142), whereas those who had attained their Master's degree on average self-scored almost 3 points lower than those who had attained their doctoral degree (p=.0029). This point differential was the most noticeable for all demographic categories measured against the Kouzes and Posner leadership practices. Since the doctoral degree was comparable for both those who did and did not have their Master's degree, one could draw the logical conclusion that those who did not have their Master's

degree on average scored 7.5 points higher than those who had attained their Master's degree. This would suggest that those yet to attain their Master's degree believed much more strongly that they were indeed Encouraging the Heart. Perhaps attaining a Master's degree provided a level of skepticism regarding this leadership practice. However, since those with doctoral degrees scored themselves more highly than those who had attained their Master's degree, it appears that the highest level of education does positively shape the self-perception regarding Encouraging the Heart.

Additionally, those in a 4-year private institution self-scored 2.1 points lower than those in a 4-year public institution ($p=.0104$) for the leadership practice Encouraging the Heart. Although this would seem pertinent, this scoring is consistent with the findings for Challenging the Process, Enabling Others to Act, and Modeling the Way.

In essence, the researcher found statistical significance for each demographic variable; however, even the greatest statistical difference (7.5 points) equated to only about 1 point of difference on the 10-point Likert scale used in the LPI instrument. Yet it was still interesting to note that perception on specific leadership practices were affected by institution type and educational background. In fact, chief student affairs officers at 4-year private institutions did not perceive their leadership practices as strongly as those at 4-year public institutions. This perhaps suggested that a cultural factor influenced that perception. Additionally, those with doctoral degrees tended to score themselves more critically than those with Master's degrees on a number of the

leadership practices. This perhaps suggested that those who had obtained their doctoral degree were more realistic about their ability to directly influence direct reports.

Analysis of Research Question Three

In research question three, the researcher asked, **"Are there differences between chief student affairs officers (LPI-Self) at selected institutions of higher education in the United States and those who observe them (LPI-Observer) in terms of perceived leadership scores on the five practices?"** In order to answer this question, the researcher consolidated observer ratings using the mean scores based on the observer numbers. The researcher then created one new data set. This data set included the chief student affairs officers in the United States who responded and their corresponding observers.

Even though one hundred and fifty-two direct reports completed the LPI-Observer, a number of them reported to the same chief student affairs officer. For a matched pair (one LPI-self survey and one LPI-observer survey), no adjustments were needed. However, for more than one direct report per LPI-self respondent, an adjustment was needed. In those instances, the averaged score of the direct reports was used. This matching of LPI-self survey with averaged LPI-observer surveys reduced the one hundred and fifty-two total observer surveys to seventy-one pairs of data.

In Table 24, the researcher displays the means and standard deviations for the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI-Self) of chief student affairs officers in the

United States and their observers (LPI-Observer). Table 25 reflects the same information displayed in descending mean score for chief student affairs officers.

Table 24.—Means and Standard Deviations For the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI-Self) of Chief Student Affairs Officers in the United States and Their Observers (LPI-Observer)

Leadership Practice	Mean (LPI-Self)	Standard Deviation (LPI-Self)	Mean (LPI-Observer)	Standard Deviation (LPI-Observer
Challenging the Process	48.84	6.19	46.67	8.05
Inspiring a Shared Vision	47.51	7.23	46.16	8.81
Enabling Others to Act	53.75	3.90	51.85	6.61
Modeling the Way	51.62	5.30	50.09	7.06
Encouraging the Heart	49.94	6.60	47.55	9.53

Table 25.—Ranked Means and Standard Deviations For the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI-Self) of Chief Student Affairs Officers in the United States and Their Observers (LPI-Observer)

Leadership Practice	Mean (LPI-Self)	Standard Deviation (LPI-Self)	Mean (LPI-Observer)	Standard Deviation (LPI-Observer
Enabling Others to Act	53.75	3.90	51.85	6.61
Modeling the Way	51.62	5.30	50.09	7.06
Encouraging the Heart	49.94	6.60	47.55	9.53
Challenging the Process	48.84	6.19	46.67	8.05
Inspiring a Shared Vision	47.51	7.23	46.16	8.81

The ranked means and corresponding standard deviations revealed a couple of patterns. First, chief student affairs officers and their direct reports ranked the five leadership practices in exactly the same order. This would suggest that the perceptions by chief student affairs officers regarding the strength of each leadership practice were substantiated, to some degree, by their direct reports. In fact, this would also suggest that leaders in student affairs perceive the leadership practice of Enabling Others to Act much more readily than they perceive the use of the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision. Next, each of the corresponding standard deviations grew as the means decreased for both chief student affairs officers and their direct reports, with the exception of the leadership practice Encouraging the Heart. This would suggest that there was a much wider range of perception regarding that particular practice for chief student affairs officers, and that same range extended to their direct reports.

In order to complete the statistical analysis of this question, the researcher first used a computer program to calculate Hotelling's T^2 and found significance at .013 for the vector of differences. Since the p value was less than .05, the researcher recognized that chief student affairs officers and their direct reports differ on some or all of the Kouzes and Posner leadership practices. The researcher used the Multivariate Two-Dependent Sample *t*-test with alpha set at 0.05. The researcher adjusted the alpha level to 0.01 in order to minimize the chances of making a Type I error, namely, of finding statistical significance when there in fact was none. It was found that there *was* significant differences between the leadership practices scores of chief student affairs officers (as measured on the LPI-Self) and those who observe them (as measured on the

LPI-Observer). Each of the leadership practices, as identified by Kouzes and Posner, were found to contain significance. The researcher used Table 26 to display the values for each of the five practices.

Table 26.—t-Tests of Differences Between Scores of Paired Samples (LPI-Self and LPI-Observer)*

Leadership Practice	Mean Difference (LPI-Self - Averaged LPI-Observers)	Standard Deviation	*t*	Degrees of Freedom	*p*-value (two-tailed)
Challenging the Process	3.13	8.82	2.99	70	.004
Inspiring a Shared Vision	2.45	10.20	2.03	70	.046
Enabling Others to Act	2.85	7.10	3.38	70	.001
Modeling the Way	1.80	7.50	2.02	70	.046
Encouraging the Heart	3.61	9.43	3.22	70	.002

*Bonferroni alpha level for significance (.01)

The significance for the practice of Challenging the Process suggested that chief student affairs officers believe that, more than the direct reports of chief student affairs officers, chief student affairs officers are making the efforts to try new and innovative approaches, search outside the organization for ideas, experiment and take risks, overcome obstacles, seek challenging opportunities, and ask about what can be learned. Direct reports also scored chief student affairs officers lower than self-reported scores by

chief student affairs officers on the leadership practice of Enabling Others to Act, including the areas of developing cooperative relationships, listening to diverse points of view, treating others with dignity and respect, supporting decisions, giving freedom and choice, and ensuring that people grow. Additionally, chief student affairs officers score themselves higher on the leadership practice Encouraging the Heart. This suggested that chief student affairs officers feel that they give praise, show individual confidence in abilities, give recognition and celebrate accomplishments, appreciate and support direct reports of chief student affairs officers more than direct reports of chief student affairs officers believe they are doing so. In essence, chief student affairs officers scored themselves less critically on all leadership practices than did their direct reports.

In summary for research question three, there were differences in perception between chief student affairs officers and those who observed them. These differences were evidenced by the consistently higher scores by chief student affairs officers. Clearly, chief student affairs officers perceive their leadership practices more strongly than direct reports. However, direct reports observed the leadership practices in the exact same order. This consistency suggested that chief student affairs officers may have realistic perceptions regarding their leadership practices.

Analysis of Research Question Four

In the fourth research question, the researcher asked, **"Are there differences between chief student affairs officers at selected institutions of higher education in the United States in terms of the five perceived practices of leadership scores and**

the leadership scores in Kouzes and Posner's database?" Kouzes and Posner and their associates have administered the Leadership Practices Inventory to managers and non-managers across a variety of organizations, disciplines, and demographic backgrounds. The scores from these instruments have been compiled in a normative database. Hotelling's T^2 was used to determine if there were significant differences between the data for the sampled chief student affairs officers and the data from Kouzes and Posner. The Hotelling's T^2 was calculated to be 638.47 with a p value less than .0001, signifying significant differences between sets of data. The mean scores for the sampled chief student affairs officers in the United States, the mean scores for the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database, and the difference in those means are presented in Table 27.

Table 27.—Mean Scores on Leadership Practices of Sampled Chief Student Affairs Officers in the United States and Corresponding Means from Leaders in Kouzes and Posner's Database Used to Calculate the d, the Resulting Hotelling's T^2, and P

Leadership Practice	Mean Score of Sample CSAOs	Mean Score of Leaders in Database	d	T^2	P
Challenging the Process	48.84	43.90	4.94	638.47	< .0001
Inspiring a Shared Vision	47.51	40.60	6.91		
Enabling Others to Act	53.75	48.70	5.05		
Modeling the Way	51.62	47.00	4.62		
Encouraging the Heart	49.94	43.80	6.14		

Based upon mean scores, chief student affairs officers in the United States perceive Enabling Others to Act as the leadership practice most frequently used. Additionally, chief student affairs offices in the United States also perceive Inspiring a Shared Vision as the leadership practice least frequently used. As with the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database, chief student affairs officers in the United States rank the leadership practices as Modeling the Way, Encouraging the Heart, Challenging the Process, and Inspiring a Shared Vision after Enabling Others to Act.

The mean scores for chief student affairs officers in the United States on Challenging the Process, Inspiring a Shared Vision, Enabling Others to Act, Modeling the Way, and Encouraging the Heart were compared with the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database, and are presented in Table 28.

Table 28.—Mean Scores, Percentiles, Classifications, and Standard Deviations on Leadership Practices of Chief Student Affairs Officers in the United States and Corresponding Means and Standard Deviations from Leaders in Kouzes and Posner's Database

Leadership Practice	Mean Score of CSAOs in USA	Percentiles and Corresponding Classification	SD	Mean Score of Leaders in Database	SD
Challenging the Process	48.84	66 - Moderate	6.19	43.9	6.8
Inspiring a Shared Vision	47.51	63 - Moderate	7.23	40.6	8.8
Enabling Others to Act	53.75	77 - High	3.90	48.7	5.4
Modeling the Way	51.62	75 - High	5.30	47.0	6.0
Encouraging the Heart	49.94	63 - Moderate	6.60	43.8	8.0

According to Kouzes and Posner (2002), researchers indicate that a high percentile level (dependent upon means) is one of 70 and above. A score between percentile ranks 31 and 69 is considered moderate, and low scores are at or below the 30th percentile. Chief student affairs officers in the United States were in the high category on the leadership practices Enabling Others to Act and Modeling the Way. They were classified in the upper end of the moderate category on the leadership practices Challenging the Process, Inspiring a Shared Vision, and Encouraging the Heart.

For chief student affairs officers, the mean score on Challenging the Process (48.84; SD = 6.19) fell at percentile rank 66 (i.e., chief student affairs officers in the United States scored higher than 66% of all the people who have taken the Leadership Practices Inventory and reported the scored to Kouzes and Posner). The mean score on Inspiring a Shared Vision (47.51) fell at percentile rank 63. The leadership practice Enabling Others to Act reflected a mean score of 53.75 and a corresponding percentile rank of 77. Modeling the Way had a mean score of 51.62 with a percentile rank of 75. The mean score on Encouraging the Heart (49.94) corresponded to a percentile rank of 63.

It was interesting to note that the sample of chief student affairs officers rated their leadership practices at a higher level in all five areas (mean difference ranged from 4.62 on Modeling the Way to 6.91 on Inspiring a Shared Vision). Additionally, the sample of chief student affairs officers' standard deviations were smaller than the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database, suggesting a greater common agreement among the

sample of chief student affairs officers than the leaders in the Kouzes and Posner database.

Based upon mean scores of the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database, Enabling Others to Act is perceived by respondents as the leadership practice most frequently used. Modeling the Way, Encouraging the Heart, and Challenging the Process followed Enabling Others to Act. Respondents perceived Inspiring a Shared Vision as the least frequently engaged in leadership practice, which was consistent with the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database. Since the scores for the sample of chief student affairs officers were consistently higher on all leadership practices than the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database, one could deduce that they were in fact stronger leaders. This perhaps suggests that chief student affairs officers not only perceive that they use these leadership practices, but also that they use them at optimal levels.

The Leadership Practices Inventory-Self completed by chief student affairs officers in the United States and the Leadership Practices Inventory-Observer completed by those who observe chief student affairs officers in the United States provided much valuable information. Data obtained were analyzed in order to establish an understanding of the current leadership practices of chief student affairs officers in the United States. The following chapter includes a summary of the findings, conclusions drawn from the findings, and recommendations for student affairs practitioners and higher education.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine leadership behaviors of chief student affairs officers in order to establish an understanding of current leadership practices and to assist chief student affairs officers in empowering their organizations to higher levels of excellence and in achieving greater influence in their institutions. The subjects for this study were chief student affairs officers in the United States. Of the 1130 solicited chief student affairs officers at selected institutions in the United States, 338 completed the Leadership Practices Inventory for this study.

Data were obtained from these administrators using the Leadership Practices Inventory developed by James Kouzes and Barry Posner. There were two versions of the Leadership Practices Inventory: the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI-Self) and the Leadership Practices Inventory-Observer (LPI-Observer). The participating chief student affairs officers used the LPI-Self to rate themselves, while direct reports of the chief student affairs officers used the LPI-Observer. The two versions of the Leadership Practices Inventory were used to measure leadership behavior in five categories: (1) Challenging the Process, (2) Inspiring a Shared Vision, (3) Enabling Others to Act, (4) Modeling the Way, and (5) Encouraging the Heart. Kouzes and Posner (1993) argued that those leaders who used the five practices more frequently were perceived to have higher personal credibility and were perceived to be more effective in meeting job-related demands.

Summary of the Findings

As a group, the sampled chief student affairs officers in the United States engaged in all of the leadership behaviors described by the Leadership Practices Inventory. Chief student affairs officers described themselves as engaging in most of the behaviors fairly often to almost always. The data indicate that chief student affairs officers perceive themselves as strong and effective leaders.

The first question the researcher asked was, "**What are the self-reported, perceived leadership practices of chief student affairs officers in selected institutions of higher education in the United States?**" Chief student affairs officers in the United States perceive Enable Others to Act as the most frequent leadership practice. Item number 13 on the survey (I treat others with dignity and respect) had a mean score of 9.67 (SD = 0.65), indicating that chief student affairs officers engaged in this behavior almost always, and also demonstrating that this behavior was the top leadership behavior of the 30 on the survey. Following the leadership practice of Enabling Others to Act, were Modeling the Way, Encouraging the Heart, Challenging the Process, and Inspiring a Shared Vision.

According to the frequency of their behavior, chief student affairs officers were most likely to treat others with dignity and respect, follow through on their promises and commitments, develop cooperative relationships with others, set a personal example, give people freedom and choice in deciding how they do their work, praise people for a job well done, and speak with conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of their work. Chief student affairs officers were less likely to experiment and take risks,

creatively reward people for their contributions, show others how their long-term interests can be realized, appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future, and describe a compelling image of the future.

Interestingly, the exploratory factor analysis revealed that the construct data for the sampled chief student affairs officers did not completely match the five factor construct pattern presented by Kouzes and Posner. Rather, only the leadership practice of Encouraging the Heart corresponded completely. Each leadership practice revealed noteworthy findings.

Challenging the Process

Statement 16 from the leadership practice Challenging the Process was, "I ask, "What can we learn?" when things do not go as expected." This statement loaded on component three, the component that also contained most of the statements related to the Kouzes and Posner leadership practice Modeling the Way. Perhaps this can be explained by stating that an openness to the ideas of others, particularly in crises, was an inclusive leadership action, and therefore seen more as how to Model the Way as a leader than as a challenge to the process.

Inspiring a Shared Vision

The leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision had the lowest score of all five leadership practices. In fact, out of the thirty statements used on the instrument, two pertaining to this leadership practice were lowest, namely, statement 7 ("I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like") and statement 12 ("I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future"). Although the lowest mean score for all

thirty statements was a 7.44 for statement 12, that still translated to a leadership practice that was engaged in fairly often (7) to usually (8). Therefore, even the leadership practice of Inspiring a Shared Vision was perceived to be strongly used by chief student affairs officers in the United States.

The only statement identified with that practice that did not load on component one with the other Inspiring a Shared Vision statements, was statement 27, which was "I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work." In fact, this statement did not load on any of the components. Since it did not load at all, there was pause to consider its place in the instrument. In other words, perhaps statement 27 should not have been part of the thirty statement survey. Interestingly, it was the statement that ranked the highest for chief student affairs officers under the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision. This suggested that, although chief student affairs officers personally identify with that statement, the statement itself did not fit (as well) with the other statements in the instrument.

Enabling Others to Act

Chief student affairs officers in the United States perceived that they Enable Others to Act more frequently than any other leadership practice. Enabling Others to Act seems to be a top commitment, particularly evidenced by the frequency of behaviors related to this practice of leadership. Four items (I treat others with dignity and respect; I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with; I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work; and I listen to diverse points of view) related to Enabling Others to Act appeared among the top seven items

when ranked by highest mean score. Item number 13 (I treat others with dignity and respect) had a mean score of 9.67 (SD = 0.65), indicating that chief student affairs officers engage in this behavior almost always.

The six items comprising the Kouzes and Posner leadership practice Enabling Others to Act did not all load on the same construct. Perhaps this indicated that Enabling Others to Act was a leadership practice that was not as distinguishable from the other leadership practices. Looking more closely at the data, three of the Kouzes and Posner statements associated with their leadership practice, Enabling Others to Act, did load on the same component. These were statements 3, 8 and 13. The statement 3 statement was, "I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with." The statement 8 statement was, "I actively listen to diverse points of view." The statement 13 statement was, "I treat others with dignity and respect." These three statements that loaded together indicated a construct that had something to do with Enabling Others to Act, but perhaps could be renamed as a new leadership practice.

The Kouzes and Posner statements 18 and 23, also associated with their leadership practice Enabling Others to Act, did not load with the three others just mentioned, but were the only statements to load on component 5. The statement 18 was, "I support the decisions that people make on their own." The statement 23 was, "I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work." These two statements seemed to more closely align with the Kouzes and Posner leadership practice Enabling Others to Act. Clearly, the sampled chief student affairs officers differed from the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database regarding this particular leadership practice.

Modeling the Way

The leadership practice of Modeling the Way was perceived by chief student affairs officers in the United States to be the second most frequently used practice. Two items on the Leadership Practices Inventory (I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make; and I set a personal example of what I expect from others) were among the top four items when ranked by highest mean score. Here again, chief student affairs officers had a strong perception that they very frequently or almost always engaged in these behaviors. Treating others with dignity and respect, following through on commitments, developing cooperative relationships, setting a personal example, and giving people freedom and choice are behaviors that characterized chief student affairs officers in the United States.

It was interesting to note that statement 14, which was, "I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make," was "supposed" to load with the leadership practice Modeling the Way. Apparently another leadership practice also included ideas related to upholding commitments since it was the only statement to load twice. This double loading is unique to the study and could mean that the statement has elements pertaining to two different leadership practices.

High Modeling the Way statements were not a surprise because the overall mean for that leadership practice was just below the overall mean for the leadership practice Enabling Others to Act. In fact, the lowest Modeling the Way mean (statement number 9 which said, "I spend time and energy on principles") was not even in the bottom five

statements. This signaled that chief student affairs officers perceived that they Model the Way.

Encouraging the Heart

The statements for Encouraging the Heart all loaded on the same component, suggesting that this leadership practice was distinctly different than the other leadership practices. However, a statement associated with a different leadership practice also loaded on construct two, and that was statement 19. Statement 19 was, "I am clear about my philosophy of leadership." Perhaps chief student affairs officers felt that being clear about philosophy had more to do with Encouraging the Heart than with Modeling the Way. However, the researcher did not believe that this was the best fit for statement 19 since the research showed that clarity is more germane to Modeling the Way.

Findings Across Leadership Practices

It was also interesting to note that the standard deviation for the lowest scoring leadership practice, Inspiring a Shared Vision, was almost twice the variability of Enabling Others to Act, the highest scoring leadership practice. While the scores for Enabling Others to Act falling within two standard deviations ranged from 45.95 to 60, the scores for Inspiring a Shared Vision falling within two standard deviations ranged from 33.05 to 60. This indicated that there was less agreement regarding the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision than there was regarding the leadership practice Enabling Others to Act.

Eleven statements loaded on component one, corresponding with two distinct Kouzes and Posner leadership practices (Challenging the Process and Inspiring a Shared

Vision). This suggested that chief student affairs officers did not perceive much difference between the two Kouzes and Posner leadership practices of Challenging the Process and Inspiring a Shared Vision.

The one statement to load on component one that was not linked to either the Challenging the Process or Inspiring a Shared Vision leadership practices was statement 28. This statement was one of Kouzes and Posner's Enabling Others to Act statements. Statement 28 was, "I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing them." Perhaps it loaded on component one because chief student affairs officers saw ensuring growth in others as either Challenging the Process or Inspiring a Shared Vision.

Frequencies and Percentages

While still in aggregate form, the researcher used the data in Tables 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 to highlight some of the individuality and differences among chief student affairs officers in the United States concerning their various leadership practices. Scores on Challenging the Process ranged from 29 to 60, and the most common score was 54 (twenty-two respondents). Scores on Inspiring a Shared Vision ranged from 23 to 60 with 53 being the modal score (twenty respondents). Enabling Others to Act scores ranged from 38 to 60 and the most common score was 56 (forty respondents). Scores on Modeling the Way ranged from 32 to 60. Bimodal scores on this practice were 52 and 55 (thirty respondents each). Encouraging the Heart scores ranged from 26 to 60, and the most common score was 51 (twenty-seven respondents).

As a group, chief student affairs officers in the United States consistently engaged in all of the leadership behaviors described by the Leadership Practices Inventory. Chief student affairs officers described themselves as engaging in most of the behaviors fairly often to almost always (see Table 4). The researcher used the data to indicate that chief student affairs officers perceived themselves as strong and effective leaders.

Encouraging the Heart, Challenging the Process, and Inspiring a Shared Vision were also leadership practices of chief student affairs officers in the United States, but not to the extent of Enabling Others to Act and Modeling the Way. The scores on these three practices were more spread out than Enabling Others to Act and Modeling the Way. There was less agreement among chief student affairs officers concerning how often they engage in behavior that Encourages the Heart, Challenges the Process, and Inspires a Shared Vision. It was interesting to note that the two Kouzes and Posner leadership practices clearly recognized by chief student affairs officers, Enabling Others to Act and Modeling the Way, had the least agreement in terms of component loading!

Overall, chief student affairs officers praised people for a job well done, took the initiative to overcome obstacles, and spoke with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of their work. However, they were not as likely to reward people creatively for their contributions, experiment and take risks, and describe a compelling image of the future. The lowest rated leadership practice (by mean score ranking) was the practice of Inspiring a Shared Vision, and specifically, appealing to others to share an exciting dream of the future.

Chief student affairs officers occasionally, sometimes, or fairly often showed others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision, appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future, and described a compelling image of what the future could be like. As chief student affairs officers fail to Inspire a Shared Vision more frequently, they miss valuable opportunities to shape direct reports, and, most importantly, the institutions they serve.

The second question the researcher asked was, **"Do chief student affairs officers at selected institutions of higher education in the United States who differ in terms of specific demographic variables, differ in terms of self-reported, perceived leadership practices as indicated by the Leadership Practices Inventory?"** It was clear from the demographic data that the chief student affairs officers who responded to the survey represented a wide range of all the chief student affairs officers in the United States, particularly in terms of number of years in present position, institutional type, and institutional size. The data was similar to the expected profile of gender and ethnicity of those holding chief student affairs officer positions in the United States. Additionally, there were an adequate number of respondents in most of the categories to conduct a thorough analysis, and, as stated earlier, some categories were collapsed in order to conduct meaningful analysis.

Chief student affairs officers and their direct reports differed in leadership practices for certain demographic variables (gender, ethnicity, number of years in present position, educational level, type of institution, and size of institution).

Gender

There were a higher percentage of female observer respondents than male observer respondents. This observation might support the thought that there is a "glass ceiling" for female aspiring chief student affairs officers; however, this data also may suggest a change in the gender for chief student affairs officers in the future. Since almost 43% of the sampled chief student affairs officers were currently female, the researcher would land with the latter rather than the former.

Ethnicity

While recognizing that direct reports may not represent all direct reports for chief student affairs officers, there were a higher percentage of White direct reports than all the other ethnicities combined. This finding might support the thought that aspiring chief student affairs officers of the future may, in fact, come from a less diverse pool.

Number of Years in Present Position

Since almost 50% of chief student affairs officers had been in their position a maximum of five years, and three-fourths for a maximum of 10 years, a majority of chief student affairs officers had not been in their position for most of their career. This finding seems plausible given that some chief student affairs officers eventually become Presidents or, since they serve at the request of the President, may be replaced when a new President is selected. It was also interesting to note that almost 7% of both chief student affairs officers and direct reports had remained in their same position for more than 20 years. This position longevity seemed to indicate either a love for the work and

a desire to remain in the position or an inability, for whatever reason, to find different employment.

Educational Background

The direct report data provided a reasonable picture of educational background given that a majority of direct reports had completed their master's degrees but had not completed their doctorates. Perhaps direct reports that were aspiring to be chief student affairs officers will recognize that the pursuit of a terminal degree is closely linked with promotion.

Type and Size of Institution

Not surprising, the numbers for direct reports were very similar to those of the chief student affairs officers.

Significant predictors were identified for each leadership practice. For the leadership practice Challenge the Process, the lone significant predictor was related to institutional type. Those in 4-year private institutions on average self-scored 1.76 points lower than those in 4-year public institutions. This suggested that chief student affairs officers at 4-year public institutions perceived that they engaged more frequently in the leadership practice Challenging the Process. One may then perhaps conclude that the work environment at a 4-year private institution is more conducive to collaboration. However, an openness to and usage of Challenging the Process suggests a dedication to betterment, and ultimately a dedication to excellence.

For the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision, the lone significant predictor was related to educational background. Those who had attained Master's

degrees on average self-scored 2.63 points lower than those who had attained a doctoral degree. Given the discussion of the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision from research question one, it appears that completing the doctoral degree helps chief student affairs officers perceive themselves as inspirational.

For the leadership practice Enable Others to Act, there were two significant predictors. The first was with ethnicity, where the "other" group (consisting of non-White, non-Black, non-Hispanic) self-scored on average almost a half of a point higher than Whites. Although statistically significant, half of a point does not engender confidence that there is indeed a practical significance. In fact, given the small number of Other respondents, this finding is negligible. The second difference had to do with institutional type. Those at 4-year private institutions on average scored 1.32 points lower ($p=.0068$) than those working at 4-year public institutions. This perhaps suggests that chief student affairs officers at 4-year private institutions felt less freedom to Enable Others to Act. If that is the case, cultural norms of 4-year private institutions may be the cause of the constraining feelings.

The data on the leadership practice Model the Way revealed a number of significant predictors. First, those who had attained less than a Master's degree on average self-scored 3.05 points higher than those who had attained their doctorate, while those who had attained a Master's degree on average self-scored 1.75 points lower than those who had attained their doctorate. In essence, it appeared that the attainment of the Master's degree does indeed affect perception of this leadership practice. In fact, this data suggested that attaining a doctorate is accompanied by a sense that one does not

Model the Way as well. Perhaps this is due to the better understanding of complexity related to leadership practice by those who have obtained their doctoral degree.

Next, those in a 2-year public institution on average self-scored 1.56 points higher than those in a 4-year public institution (p=.0386) while those in a 4-year private institution on average self-scored 1.48 points lower than those in a 4-year public institution (p=.0244). In essence, those in 2-year public institutions perceived that they Modeled the Way very well for their direct reports. Those chief student affairs officers in 4-year private institutions, however, scored themselves lower than the public schools. Perhaps chief student affairs officers at 4-year private institutions felt that the institution limited their ability to Model the Way. The researcher would suggest that a point and a half difference does not allow one to jump to such conclusions.

Finally, for the leadership practice Encourage the Heart, there were two significant predictors. First, those who had attained less than a Master's degree on average self-scored almost 4.5 points higher than those who had attained their doctoral degree, whereas those who had attained their Master's degree on average self-scored almost 3 points lower than those who had attained their doctoral degree. This point differential was the most noticeable for all demographic categories measured against the Kouzes and Posner leadership practices. Since the doctoral degree was comparable for both those who did and did not have their Master's degree, one could draw the logical conclusion that those who did not have their Master's degree on average scored 7.5 points higher than those who had attained their Master's degree. This would suggest that those yet to attain their Master's degree believed much more strongly that they were

indeed Encouraging the Heart. Perhaps attaining a Master's degree provided a level of skepticism regarding this leadership practice. However, since those with doctoral degrees scored themselves more highly than those who had attained their Master's degree, it appears that the highest level of education does positively shape the self-perception regarding Encouraging the Heart.

Additionally, those in a 4-year private institution self-scored 2.1 points lower than those in a 4-year public institution ($p=.0104$) for the leadership practice Encouraging the Heart. Although this would seem pertinent, this scoring is consistent with the findings for Challenging the Process, Enabling Others to Act, and Modeling the Way.

The researcher found statistical significance for each demographic variable; however, even the greatest statistical difference (7.5 points) equated to only about 1 point of difference on the 10-point Likert scale used in the LPI instrument. Yet it was still interesting to note that perception of specific leadership practices were affected by institution type and educational background. In fact, chief student affairs officers at 4-year private institutions did not perceive their leadership practices as strongly as those at 4-year public institutions. This perhaps suggested that a cultural factor influenced that perception. Additionally, those with doctoral degrees tended to score themselves more critically than those with Master's degrees on a number of the leadership practices. This perhaps suggested that those who had obtained their doctoral degree were more realistic about their ability to directly influence direct reports.

Statistically, the greatest difference given above was with the Kouzes and Posner leadership practice Encouraging the Heart. Since the LPI scale extended from a minimum of 6 points to a maximum of 60 points for each practice, the points outlined above, again, were quite negligible. In fact, the R^2 scores (Table 29) indicate that there was not much practical significance.

The third research question the researcher asked was, **"Are there differences between chief student affairs officers (LPI-Self) at selected institutions of higher education in the United States and those who observe them (LPI-Observer) in terms of perceived leadership scores on the five practices?"** The answer is yes. A statistical analysis of the data revealed the existence of significant differences between chief student affairs officers' ratings on each of the five practices of leadership and the ratings by their observers. Observers' evaluations of chief student affairs officers were lower than chief student affairs officers' self-evaluations. Although significant differences were found for all five leadership practices, the greatest differences were found with the scores for the Kouzes and Posner leadership practices Challenging the Process, Enabling Others to Act, and Encouraging the Heart.

The ranked means and corresponding standard deviations revealed a couple of patterns. First, chief student affairs officers and their direct reports ranked the five leadership practices in exactly the same order. This would suggest that the perceptions by chief student affairs officers regarding the strength of each leadership practice were substantiated, to some degree, by their direct reports. In fact, this would also suggest that leaders in student affairs perceive the leadership practice of Enabling Others to Act

much more readily than they perceive the use of the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision. Next, each of the corresponding standard deviations grew as the means decreased for both chief student affairs officers and their direct reports, with the exception of the leadership practice Encouraging the Heart. This would suggest that there was a much wider range of perception regarding that particular practice for chief student affairs officers, and that same range extended to their direct reports.

The significance for the practice of Challenging the Process suggested that chief student affairs officers perceived self-behavior higher than the direct reports of chief student affairs officers. Chief student affairs officers perceived that they were making concerted efforts to try new and innovative approaches, search outside the organization for ideas, experiment and take risks, overcome obstacles, seek challenging opportunities, and asking about what can be learned.

On the Kouzes and Posner leadership practice of Enabling Others to Act, chief student affairs officers also scored themselves higher than how direct reports scored chief student affairs officers. Chief student affairs officers scored themselves higher in the areas of developing cooperative relationships, listening to diverse points of view, treating others with dignity and respect, supporting decisions, giving freedom and choice, and ensuring that people grow.

Additionally, chief student affairs officers scored themselves more highly on the leadership practice Encouraging the Heart. This suggested that chief student affairs officers perceived that they offered praise, demonstrated individual confidence in abilities, gave recognition and celebrated accomplishments, and appreciated and

supported direct reports more than direct reports of chief student affairs officers believed they were doing. In essence, chief student affairs officers scored themselves more liberally than did their direct reports. This finding differs from the Oliver (2001) study for chief student affairs officers in the state of Texas since they scored themselves more critically than did their direct reports.

Interestingly, chief student affairs officers in the United States ranked the frequency of their behavior on the five leadership practices in the same order as their observers. Beyond the statistical significance regarding each leadership practice, an interesting observation from the comparisons of the LPI-Self means on the five practices of leadership and the corresponding LPI-Observer means became clear; namely, that the LPI-Self means were all higher than LPI-Observer means.

The differences in perception between chief student affairs officers and those who observed them were evidenced by consistently higher scores by chief student affairs officers. Clearly, chief student affairs officers perceive their leadership practices more strongly than direct reports. However, direct reports observed the leadership practices in the exact same order. This consistency suggested that chief student affairs officers may have realistic perceptions regarding their leadership practices.

The fourth and final research question the researcher asked was, **"Are there differences between chief student affairs officers at selected institutions of higher education in the United States in terms of the five perceived practices of leadership scores and the leadership scores in Kouzes and Posner's database?"** The chief student affairs officers' self-described leadership ratings tended to be higher than other

leaders when compared to those in the LPI database. Chief student affairs officers scored highest in terms of mean score (53.75, SD = 3.90) and percentile rank (77) for the leadership practice Enabling Others to Act. Kouzes and Posner list any practice at the 70th percentile and above as high. In this study, Enabling Others to Act and Modeling the Way both fell in the high range. Additionally, Challenging the Process, Inspiring a Shared Vision, and Encouraging the Heart all fell in the upper end of the moderate range (66th percentile, 63rd percentile, and 63rd percentile respectively). Although it may seem somewhat unusual that chief student affairs officers' leadership practices would be rated that high as compared to the thousands of leaders who had previously completed the instrument, those who observed them confirmed the strength of their leadership.

Respondents perceived Inspiring a Shared Vision as the least frequently engaged in leadership practice, which was consistent with the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database. Since the scores for the sample of chief student affairs officers were consistently higher on all leadership practices than the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database, one could deduce that they were in fact stronger leaders. This perhaps suggests that chief student affairs officers not only perceive that they use these leadership practices, but also that they use them at optimal levels.

Conclusions

For the purpose of this study, leadership was defined as a subtle process of mutual influence fusing thought, feeling, and action to produce cooperative effort in the

service of purposes and values of *both* the leader and the led (Bolman & Deal, 2003). Conclusions that correspond with each research question have been drawn.

Research Question One

"I treat others with dignity and respect" (statement number13) had the highest mean of any of the leadership behaviors (9.67, SD = 0.65) on the Leadership Practices Inventory. This was not surprising given the historical and current assumptions of the student affairs profession. One of the assumptions of the student affairs profession enumerated by the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (1989) was that each person has worth and dignity. The widespread and general understanding of this assumption has clearly taken root in the chief student affairs officers in the United States. Not only is this a core behavior, it is their leading behavior.

The factor analysis revealed that the leadership practices identified by Kouzes and Posner do not fit seamlessly with the leadership practices of chief student affairs officers. This was particularly clear for the Kouzes and Posner leadership practice Enabling Others to Act, which subsequently loaded on two different constructs. Statement 27 (I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work) did not load on any constructs, while statement 14 (I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make) loaded twice. One could thus conclude that chief student affairs officers need a new category of leadership to describe certain practices.

Interestingly, there was less agreement regarding the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision than there was regarding the leadership practice Enabling

Others to Act; however, Inspiring a Shared Vision was still perceived to be a strong leadership practice of chief student affairs officers. Nonetheless, the findings for the leadership practices identify the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision as the one with the most potential for development.

Research Question Two

All five Kouzes and Posner leadership practices were found to have statistically significant predictors. The representative numbers related to gender indicate a changing of the guard; that is, more women could be moving into chief student affairs officer positions. However, the direct reports appear to be less ethnically diverse than current chief student affairs officers, indicating that future leaders may emerge from a less diverse pool. Some demographic variables (in this study, ethnicity, level of education, and institutional type) were found to be statistically significant predictors of the leadership practices of chief student affairs officers. In fact, for educational level, those having earned a Master's degree felt that they did a better job of Modeling the Way than those who had earned their doctorate; however, they also perceived that those with an earned doctorate did a better job of Inspiring a Shared Vision and Encouraging the Heart. Thus, completing a terminal degree seems to raise perception regarding leadership practices.

Also noteworthy is type of institution. Those in 4-year private institutions on average self-scored lower than those in 4-year public institutions on the leadership practices of Challenging the Process, Modeling the Way, and Encouraging the Heart. Thus, chief student affairs officers at 4-year private institutions did not perceive their

leadership practices as strongly as those at 4-year public institutions. This would suggest that some cultural factors at 4-year public institutions more positively influence the self-perception of leadership practices for chief student affairs officers.

Despite this noted statistical significance for differences in relation to demographic variables, there was little *practical* significance since the R^2 scores were so small. Therefore, even the strongest conclusion is minimized to nothing more than a suggestion.

Research Question Three

Observers of chief student affairs ranked the leadership practices in exactly the same order as the chief student affairs officers, albeit it with lower means. This would suggest that the perceptions by chief student affairs officers regarding the strength of each leadership practice were substantiated, to some degree, by their direct reports. In fact, this would also suggest that leaders in student affairs not only perceive the leadership practice of Enabling Others to Act much more readily than they perceive the use of the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision, but they use that leadership practice more often. Since each of the corresponding standard deviations grew as the means for each leadership practice decreased for both chief student affairs officers and their direct reports (with the exception of the leadership practice Encouraging the Heart), there must be a much wider range of perception regarding Encouraging the Heart. The consistency in scores suggests that chief student affairs officers may have realistic perceptions regarding their leadership practices. In each of these practices, self-reported ratings were significantly higher than the observer scores of the chief student affairs

officers. The data collection methodology employed attempted to minimize bias by guaranteeing respondent confidentiality and a promise to report findings only in aggregate form. This, perhaps, demonstrated the more critical nature with which direct reports tended to view chief student affairs officers. Nonetheless, observers of chief student affairs officers confirm the strength of leadership through the ratings they indicated for the chief student affairs officers.

Research Question Four

The frequencies with which chief student affairs officers engage in behaviors on the Leadership Practices Inventory are in the upper end of the moderate range or the high range of all who have completed the instrument before. This perhaps suggests that chief student affairs officers not only perceive that they use these leadership practices, but also that they use them at optimal levels. It can be concluded that chief student affairs officers in the United States are strong and effective leaders as a result of the high rankings resulting from a comparison with the Kouzes and Posner database of leaders.

When chief student affairs officers' mean scores on the five practices of leadership were compared with the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database, they were classified in the upper moderate range (64^{th} - 69^{th} percentile rank) or the high range (70^{th} percentile rank and above). Again, chief student affairs officers are strong and effective leaders. Still, there were some areas where chief student affairs officers in the United States might continue to develop as they seek to lead their organizations and institutions, and the researcher offered the following recommendations.

Recommendations For Chief Student Affairs Officers

Based upon the findings and the conclusions drawn from the study, the following recommendations are made:

1. The Kouzes and Posner leadership practice Enabling Others to Act is a strength and should continue to be emphasized. Particularly in the shared governance context of higher education, and if the researcher's sample is representative of all chief student affairs officers, the fact that chief student affairs officers in the United States ranked in the 77th percentile on this leadership practice indicates their leadership can be effective in higher education institutions (Baldridge, 1978; Birnbaum, 1988; Rost, 1993). To this end, chief student affairs officers should continue treating others with dignity and respect, developing relationships among people, giving people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work, listening to diverse points of view, supporting the decisions others make on their own, and ensuring that people grow in their jobs.

2. Conversely, the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision needs to be developed, enhanced, and acted upon. Chief student affairs officers need to engage more frequently in behaviors that describe a compelling image of the future, appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future, show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision, and be contagiously enthusiastic and positive about future possibilities. Because vision is such a key component of leadership (Barnard, 1968; Block, 1987; Buckingham, 2004; Burns, 1978; Collins & Porras, 1994; Covey, 1989; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002, Nanus, 1992; Senge, 1990; and

Quigley, 1993), this must continue to be a focus of leadership development for chief student affairs officers.

3. Chief student affairs officers in the United States should review the research study findings, by individual leadership practices, to obtain a sense of the discrepancies between self-described chief student affairs officers' leadership practices and perceptions by observers of those practices. Such an investigation may prove fruitful to understanding how perceptions are formed.

4. Chief student affairs officers should consider the development of procedures and mechanisms to obtain feedback from their administrative team members and others regarding their leadership actions and activities. The implementation of assessment methods, and the resulting reports, could assist chief student affairs officers by revealing how their leadership practices are being interpreted. Each chief student affairs officer should have his or her professional staff evaluate his or her leadership practices using the Leadership Practices Inventory. Chief student affairs officers who have leadership practices identified in the low and moderate categories (as identified through the national reference sample of Kouzes and Posner) should seek assistance in those areas and develop a plan for improving the leadership practices. Additionally, direct reports of chief student affairs officers should be able to articulate their perceptions without repercussions so that chief student affairs officers may further develop their leadership skills.

5. Chief student affairs officers should embrace a continuing education perspective and expand their knowledge base through updated literature reviews. Much

study has been conducted on leadership in the last decade. Current models of leadership must be understood to be effective as a leader in the future.

6. Chief student affairs officers should develop a leadership development plan, paying attention to their own leadership development and ways that they might influence their institutions. Significant attention seems to be given to annual plans, strategic plans, and budget plans, but perhaps more attention should be given to a personal leadership development plan. Such a plan would include particular attention to the leadership practices outlined in this study.

7. Chief student affairs officers should consider establishing leadership development programming within their own divisions, designed by the participants to meet their own evolving needs. This would provide a catalyst for development for a new generation of leaders in student affairs and higher education in general.

8. Chief student affairs officers should participate in community leadership programming, where appropriate, in order to gain a wider perspective about community issues and ways that students and institutions might assist community development. Chief student affairs officers should also encourage other members of their staffs to participate in such developmental opportunities.

9. Chief student affairs officers should attend regional and national conventions, administrative conferences, and institutes. Chief student affairs officers should attend seminars and workshops that are hosted by national organizations and are dedicated to leadership development. Besides the traditional student affairs meetings, chief student affairs officers should branch out to other areas by attending institutes on academic

leadership (such as ALE, the Association for Leadership Educators), conferences sponsored by the professional associations for business officers, and conventions focused on alumni, development, and fundraising. By attending a different conference each year, chief student affairs officers would develop a deeper leadership potential. This would offer chief student affairs officers an opportunity to learn more about the institutions they serve and higher education in general.

10. Chief student affairs officers should participate in internships and fellowships (e.g., American Council on Education (ACE) Fellows). Such internships and fellowships provide a breadth and depth of experience (some even internationally) that could assist the development of any participant. Additionally, these opportunities help prepare higher education leaders for positions such as president and chancellor.

Recommendations for Higher Education

Besides the recommendations to chief student affairs officers previously noted, two recommendations are made to higher education in general.

1. Graduate degree preparation programs in college student personnel and higher education administration must provide comprehensive instruction in the area of leadership. A graduate level course on leadership theory and practice, with emphasis on the historical and current understandings of leadership, is critical to developing the leaders needed in higher education. Additionally, assessment pieces (such as the Leadership Practices Inventory) to help students understand their leadership strengths

and weaknesses could be beneficial components of courses within the preparation programs.

2. Colleges and universities should invest resources to make the Leadership Practices Inventory and other instruments more available to administrators. Additionally, resources should be invested in the leadership development of all managers. Although specific resources are available via the website www.theleadershipchallenge.com, coordinated and comprehensive leadership development models and training could propel an institution toward its mission by elevating the leadership of the campus.

Recommendations for Further Study

While conducting the study, a number of observations were made about chief student affairs officers in the United States and their leadership practices. Further studies might prove useful in developing a better understanding of the leadership practices of chief student affairs officers. Several recommendations are listed below.

1. A perceived leadership practices study should be conducted where the data can be disaggregated in order to look at case studies. The researcher used the parameters of this study to analyze data only in aggregate form. There may be rich and robust information in individual cases that would be helpful to understand. Such a study would require a different methodology. Perhaps a qualitative study would help researchers find particular themes. Such a study may also require more risk to the participants as they would be identifiable.

2. A study to examine a group of student affairs leaders over time might be useful. Mid-managers could be identified for participation and surveyed. A researcher could use the study to track the careers of the participants by looking at those who scored higher on the Leadership Practices Inventory as compared to those who scored lower.

3. A study which further examines important differentiators, such as demographic variables for chief student affairs officers (gender, ethnicity, level of education or type of institution), may prove to be valuable for further understanding leadership perception.

4. A study designed to further examine one of Kouzes and Posner's five leadership practices for chief student affairs officers may account for the differences found in the study. Additionally, a replication study may confirm the findings found for leadership practices as related to different demographic variables for chief student affairs officers.

5. A number of the randomly selected chief student affairs officers in this study failed to respond because the study was administered during the summer of 2007. A similar study that is administered during the academic calendar year, when individuals are most likely to be available, may provide a greater return rate and possibly additional information.

6. A study that has researcher access to Kouzes and Posner's complete database (including individual cases as well as group means) would allow the researcher to use a different analysis tool to investigate questions related to differences between/among the

five practices of leadership scores of chief student affairs officers and the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database.

7. Since this study's factor analysis demonstrated a deviation for the sampled chief student affairs officers from the leaders in Kouzes and Posner's database, a further study using structural equation modeling (SEM) and path analysis may prove to be fruitful. Such a study would allow the researcher to investigate why the statements loaded the way that they did. In fact, a validation of this study could lead to an investigation of the researcher's newly created constructs for leadership practices.

Leadership is a viable construct, and the researcher used this study to attempt to understand and measure this phenomenon among leaders in the student affairs profession. By using the Leadership Practices Inventory, the researcher provided empirical data concerning the behavior of chief student affairs officers in the Untied States.

The researcher used the data in order to indicate chief student affairs officers in the United States are strong and effective leaders. While scoring above national averages on all leadership practices, chief student affairs officers in the United States Enabled Others to Act more frequently than any other leadership practice, a strength for leadership in higher education settings. However, since the leadership practices of chief student affairs officers do not completely align with the leadership practices of other leaders, one must consider how differently chief student affairs officers lead. It appeared that chief student affairs officers at all levels of experience, education and size of institution, and regardless of gender or ethnicity, were engaging in leadership practices

at moderate to high levels. Bain (2004) recognized that the best leaders continue to learn about leading. In fact, the knowledge gained from this study allows chief student affairs officers to further assess their leadership actions and behaviors in order to develop a plan for their personal leadership development. The particular challenge will be to more frequently use the leadership practice Inspiring a Shared Vision. This could ultimately result in their increased ability to influence the campuses and students they serve, in particular, and higher education in general.

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APPENDIX A

LPI-SELF ELECTRONIC INVITATION

A study is being conducted to examine perceived leadership practices of chief student affairs officers at institutions of higher education in the United States and to look for trends that may help shape practice as well as professional preparation and development programs.

You are being asked to complete the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI-self) and demographic information as well. The LPI-self survey consists of 30 questions and should only take 10-15 minutes to complete.

To complete the survey and participate in this study, please click on the following link:

Please complete the survey prior to Friday, July 20, 2007.

All procedures and results will be conducted in a confidential fashion for all participants, both on the personal and organizational levels. Results of the study will not refer to individuals or specific institutions.

This study has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board of Texas A&M University. You have a right to full and complete information regarding this project. Your participation in this study is voluntary.

If you have any questions, please contact me at (254) 710-1282. Thank you greatly for your assistance!

Sincerely,

Dave Rozeboom
Doctoral Candidate - Higher Education Administration

Dr. Christine Stanley, Doctoral Committee Chair
Executive Associate Dean for Faculty Affairs
Professor, Higher Education Administration
College of Education and Human Development
Texas A&M University
College Station, Texas 77843

APPENDIX B

LPI-SELF FORM

Demographic Characteristics

Please select the demographic information that best describes you from the choices provided for each characteristic.

1. Position Title: Please choose the position title that best describes your position within your organization.
- ☐ Chief Student Affairs Officer
- ☐ Vice President for Student Life
- ☐ Dean for Student Life
- ☐ Other (please specify)

2. Number of years in your present position
- ☐ 0-5
- ☐ 6-10
- ☐ 11-15
- ☐ 16-20
- ☐ 21-25
- ☐ 26+

3.Gender
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Male
- ☐ Transgender

4.Race/Ethnicity
- ☐ Caucasian
- ☐ African American
- ☐ Hispanic/Latino
- ☐ Native American
- ☐ Asian/Pacific Islander
- ☐ Multicultural
- ☐ Other (please specify)

5. Educational Background
- ☐ Masters
- ☐ Doctorate
- ☐ Other (please specify)

6.Institutional Type
- ☐ 4 year public
- ☐ 4 year private
- ☐ 2 year public
- ☐ 2 year private

7.Institutional Size
- ☐ 0-500
- ☐ 501-1,000
- ☐ 1,001-2,500
- ☐ 2,501-5,000
- ☐ 5,001-7,500
- ☐ 7,501-10,000
- ☐ 10,001-16,000
- ☐ 16,001-25,000
- ☐ 25,001+

LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY [LPI] SELF

INSTRUCTIONS

On the next few pages are thirty statements describing various leadership behaviors. Please read each statement carefully. Then look at the rating scale and decide *how frequently you engage in the behavior* described.

Here's the rating scale that you'll be using:

1 = Almost Never	6 = Sometimes
2 = Rarely	7 = Fairly Often
3 = Seldom	8 = Usually
4 = Once in a While	9 = Very Frequently
5 = Occasionally	10 = Almost Always

In selecting each response, please be realistic about the extent to which you *actually* engage in the behavior. Do *not* answer in terms of how you would like to see yourself behave. Answer in terms of how you *typically* behave—on most days, on most projects, and with most people.

To what extent do you typically engage in the following behaviors? Choose the number that best applies to each statement and record it in the blank to the left of the statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Almost Never	Rarely	Seldom	Once in a While	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Usually	Very Frequently	Almost Always

_____ 1. I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.

_____ 2. I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.

_____ 3. I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with.

_____ 4. I set a personal example of what I expect from others.

_____ 5. I praise people for a job well done.

_____ 6. I challenge people to try out new and innovative approaches to their work.

_____ 7. I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like.

_____ 8. I actively listen to diverse points of view.

_____ 9. I spend time and energy on making certain that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards that have been agreed on.

_____ 10. I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.

_____ 11. I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.

_____ 12. I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.

_____ 13. I treat others with dignity and respect.

_____ 14. I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make.

_____ 15. I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.

_____ 16. I ask “What can we learn?” when things do not go as expected.

_____ 17. I show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.

_____ 18. I support the decisions that people make on their own.

_____ 19. I am clear about my philosophy of leadership.

_____ 20. I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.

_____ 21. I experiment and take risks even when there is a chance of failure.

_____ 22. I am contagiously enthusiastic and positive about future possibilities.

_____ 23. I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.

_____ 24. I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.

_____ 25. I find ways to celebrate accomplishments.

_____ 26. I take the initiative to overcome obstacles even when outcomes are uncertain.

_____ 27. I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.

_____ 28. I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.

_____ 29. I make progress toward goals one step at a time.

_____ 30. I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.

The last step! Please provide email addresses for your direct reports so that I may send them a Leadership Practices (Observer) Inventory.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.

Thank you for taking the time to fill out the survey!!

Sincerely,

Dave Rozeboom
Doctoral Candidate - Higher Education Administration

Dr. Christine Stanley, Doctoral Committee Chair
Executive Associate Dean for Faculty Affairs
Professor, Higher Education Administration
College of Education and Human Development
Texas A&M University
College Station, Texas 77843

APPENDIX C

LPI-OBSERVER ELECTRONIC INVITATION

A study is being conducted to examine perceived leadership practices of chief student affairs officers at institutions of higher education in the United States and to look for trends that may help shape practice as well as professional preparation and development programs.

You are being asked to complete the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI-observer) and demographic information as well. The LPI-observer survey consists of 30 questions and should only take 10-15 minutes to complete.

To complete the survey and participate in this study, please click on the following link:

Please complete the survey prior to Friday, July 20, 2007.

All procedures and results will be conducted in a confidential fashion for all participants, both on the personal and organizational levels. Results of the study will not refer to individuals or specific institutions.

This study has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board of Texas A&M University. You have a right to full and complete information regarding this project. Your participation in this study is voluntary.

If you have any questions, please contact me at (254) 710-1282. Thank you greatly for your assistance!

Sincerely,

Dave Rozeboom
Doctoral Candidate - Higher Education Administration

Dr. Christine Stanley, Doctoral Committee Chair
Executive Associate Dean for Faculty Affairs
Professor, Higher Education Administration
College of Education and Human Development
Texas A&M University
College Station, Texas 77843

APPENDIX D

LPI-OBSERVER FORM

Demographic Characteristics

Please select the demographic information that best describes you from the choices provided for each characteristic.

1. Position Title: Please choose the position title that best describes your position within your organization.
- ☐ Chief Student Affairs Officer
- ☐ Vice President for Student Life
- ☐ Dean for Student Life
- ☐ Other (please specify)

2. Number of years in your present position
- ☐ 0-5
- ☐ 6-10
- ☐ 11-15
- ☐ 16-20
- ☐ 21-25
- ☐ 26+

3.Gender
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Male
- ☐ Transgender

4.Race/Ethnicity
- ☐ Caucasian
- ☐ African American
- ☐ Hispanic/Latino
- ☐ Native American
- ☐ Asian/Pacific Islander
- ☐ Multicultural
- ☐ Other (please specify)

5. Educational Background
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- ☐ Doctorate
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6.Institutional Type
- ☐ 4 year public
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- ☐ 2 year public
- ☐ 2 year private

7.Institutional Size
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- ☐ 1,001-2,500
- ☐ 2,501-5,000
- ☐ 5,001-7,500
- ☐ 7,501-10,000
- ☐ 10,001-16,000
- ☐ 16,001-25,000
- ☐ 25,001+

LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY [LPI] OBSERVER

INSTRUCTIONS

On the next few pages are thirty statements describing various leadership behaviors. Please read each statement carefully. Then look at the rating scale and decide *how frequently this leader engages in the behavior* described.

Here's the rating scale that you'll be using:

1 = Almost Never	6 = Sometimes
2 = Rarely	7 = Fairly Often
3 = Seldom	8 = Usually
4 = Once in a While	9 = Very Frequently
5 = Occasionally	10 = Almost Always

In selecting each response, please be realistic about the extent to which the leader *actually* engages in the behavior. Do *not* answer in terms of how you would like to see this person behave or in terms of how you think he or she would behave. Answer in terms of how the leader *typically* behaves—on most days, on most projects, and with most people.

To what extent does this person typically engage in the following behaviors? Choose the number that best applies to each statement and record it in the blank to the left of the statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Almost Never	Rarely	Seldom	Once in a While	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Usually	Very Frequently	Almost Always

He or She:

_____ 1. Seeks out challenging opportunities that test his or her own skills and abilities.

_____ 2. Talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.

_____ 3. Develops cooperative relationships among the people he or she works with.

_____ 4. Sets a personal example of what he or she expects from others.

_____ 5. Praises people for a job well done.

_____ 6. Challenges people to try out new and innovative approaches to their work.

_____ 7. Describes a compelling image of what our future could be like.

_____ 8. Actively listens to diverse points of view.

_____ 9. Spends time and energy on making certain that the people he or she works with adhere to the principles and standards that have been agreed on.

_____ 10. Makes it a point to let people know about his or her confidence in their abilities.

_____ 11. Searches outside the formal boundaries of his or her organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.

_____ 12. Appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future.

_____ 13. Treats others with dignity and respect.

_____ 14. Follows through on the promises and commitments that he or she makes.

_____ 15. Makes sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of projects.

_____ 16. Asks "What can we learn?" when things do not go as expected.

_____ 17. Shows others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.

_____ 18. Supports the decisions that people make on their own.

_____ 19. Is clear about his or her philosophy of leadership.

_____ 20. Publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values.

_____ 21. Experiments and takes risks even when there is a chance of failure.

_____ 22. Is contagiously enthusiastic and positive about future possibilities.

_____ 23. Gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.

_____ 24. Makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.

_____ 25. Finds ways to celebrate accomplishments.

_____ 26. Takes the initiative to overcome obstacles even when outcomes are uncertain.

_____ 27. Speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.

_____ 28. Ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.

_____ 29. Makes progress toward goals one step at a time.

_____ 30. Gives the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.

Thank you for taking the time to fill out the survey!!

Sincerely,

Dave Rozeboom
Doctoral Candidate - Higher Education Administration

Dr. Christine Stanley, Doctoral Committee Chair
Executive Associate Dean for Faculty Affairs
Professor, Higher Education Administration
College of Education and Human Development
Texas A&M University
College Station, Texas 77843

APPENDIX E

ELECTRONIC REMINDERS

REMINDER 1 (after 2 wks)

I recognize that this is a busy time of year. I would really appreciate your input on this survey. Your information will bring thoroughness to the study and will provide chief student affairs officers with some valuable information. Know that participants will receive findings of the report! Thanks for your consideration.

REMINDER 2 (after 3 wks)

This is the final reminder for the Leadership Practices Inventory survey. This is a study that you will want to participate in since the findings could directly impact your work. Know that participants will receive findings of the report!

I want to give you a final opportunity to provide your input. If you have already taken the survey, thank you! I appreciate your help as I seek to assess the leadership practices of chief student affairs officers. If you have not yet had an opportunity to take the survey, I encourage you to do so as soon as possible. The survey closes at 5 pm on Friday, July 20, 2007. It only takes 10-15 minutes to complete.

Thank you in advance for your help!

APPENDIX F

REQUEST TO USE LPI

September 6, 2006

Dr. James Kouzes and Dr. Barry Posner
Kouzes Posner International, Inc.
15419 Banyan Lane
Monte Sereno, California 95030

Dear Drs. Kouzes and Posner:

This letter is to request permission to use the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) in research I am conducting while pursuing a doctorate in higher education administration at Texas A&M University. The purpose of my research is to expand upon a 2001 regional study by Dr. Dub Oliver and assess the leadership practices of chief student affairs officers at colleges and universities throughout the United States. Additionally, I am requesting permission to use the instrument on the internet by reproducing the statements in the instrument and creating a protected electronic link for the survey for use by the identified survey population.

It is understood that I will place an appropriate copyright notice on the link for the LPI-Self and LPI-Other. In addition, I will forward to you copies of all reports, papers, articles, the completed dissertation, etc. that make use of the LPI data. It is also understood that the instrument would only be used as a research instrument and would not be sold or used in workshop settings.

The use of the information in your database would greatly assist the research. Any recent validity and reliability data would also be most helpful.

Please let me know your response as soon as practical. Thank you for your consideration of this request.

Sincerely,

Dave Rozeboom
4113 Pine Avenue
Waco, Texas 76710
(254) 235 – 4848 (home)
(254) 710 – 1282 (office)
Dave_Rozeboom@Baylor.edu

APPENDIX G

RESPONSE FROM KOUZES AND POSNER

KOUZES POSNER INTERNATIONAL
15419 Banyan Lane
Monte Sereno, California 95030 USA
FAX: (408) 354-9170

September 17, 2006

Mr. Dave Rozeboom
4113 Pine Avenue
Waco, Texas 76710

Dear Dave:

Thank you for your request to use the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) in your dissertation.. We are willing to allow you to *reproduce* and *modify* the instrument as outlined in your request, at no charge, with the following understandings:

(1) That the LPI is used only for research purposes and is not sold or used in conjunction with any compensated management development activities;
(2) That copyright of the LPI, or any derivation of the instrument, is retained by Kouzes Posner International, and that the following copyright statement is included on all copies of the instrument: "Copyright © 2005 James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. All rights reserved. Used with permission.";
(3) That one (1) **electronic** copy of your dissertation and one (1) copy of **all** papers, reports, articles, and the like which make use of the LPI data be sent **promptly** to our attention; and,
(4) That you agree to allow us to include an abstract of your study and any other published papers utilizing the LPI on our various websites.

If the terms outlined above are acceptable, would you indicate so by signing one (1) copy of this letter and returning it to us. Best wishes for every success with your research project.

Cordially,

Barry Z. Posner, Ph.D.
Managing Partner

I understand and agree to abide by these conditions:

(Signed) Dave Rozeboom Date: 9/21/06

APPENDIX H

THANK YOU TO KOUZES AND POSNER

September 21, 2006

Dr. James Kouzes and Dr. Barry Posner
Kouzes Posner International, Inc.
15419 Banyan Lane
Monte Sereno, California 95030

Dear Drs. Kouzes and Posner:

Thank you for your quick response to my request and your willingness to allow me to incorporate your instrument in my dissertation – I happily will follow the guidelines that you have set and look forward to communicating with you further on what I find!

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Dave Rozeboom
4113 Pine Avenue
Waco, Texas 76710
(254) 235 – 4848 (home)
(254) 710 – 1282 (office)
Dave_Rozeboom@Baylor.edu

VITA

David J. Rozeboom received his Bachelor of Arts degree in mathematics and secondary education from Calvin College in 1991. He received his Master of Arts degree in educational administration from the University of Akron in 1993. He received his Doctor of Philosophy degree in educational administration from Texas A&M University in 2008. Mr. Rozeboom has spent his career serving as an educator, including work at both the high school and college levels. His research interests include leadership, teaching, organizational culture and strengths development. He plans to publish an article on the leadership practices of chief student affairs officers.

Mr. Rozeboom may be reached at Baylor University, One Bear Place #97076, Waco, Texas 76798. His email is Dave_Rozeboom@baylor.edu.