

THE PERCEIVED VALUE OF UNIVERSITY-BASED, CONTINUING
EDUCATION LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS
FOR ADMINISTRATORS IN HIGHER EDUCATION:
AN INTANGIBLES MODEL OF VALUE CREATION

by

GERALDINE LOUISE STONE

CLAIRE MAJOR, COMMITTEE CHAIR

NATHANIEL BRAY
KATHLEEN CRAMER
BEVERLY DYER
TOM HARRIS
MARK NELSON

A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Education in the
Department of Educational Leadership,
Policy, and Technology in
the Graduate School of
The University of Alabama

TUSCALOOSA, ALABAMA

2012

Copyright Geraldine Louise Stone 2012

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

ABSTRACT

This study examined the perceived value of leadership development programs (LDPs) provided by continuing education for administrators in colleges and universities. Included in this study were questions about the perceived value of non-credit, credit, and blended (credit and non-credit) programs at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels.

Eight research questions were developed for this quantitative study. Value scales were developed for the first three questions, which addressed the perceived value of LDPs designed of administrators at individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels. The next five questions addressed other aspects of LDPs: 1) their success at developing leadership competencies; 2) if they were considered a priority; 3) if they provided a competitive advantage; if there were sufficient number of LDPs; and, 4) the most effective type of LDPs. An original 75-item Value Creation Survey (VCS) was developed with the goal of achieving a comprehensive understanding of how leadership, leadership development, intangibles, and value creation came together. The VCS was sent to a sample of 217 Institutional Representatives in eight ACHE Regions, all members of the Association of Continuing Higher Education: 122 responses (56% response rate) were received.

Results indicated that the three value scales had coefficient alpha scores above .90. Based on gender differences or ACHE Region, statistical analyses indicated no significant differences in value attributions at the individual, institutional, or higher education enterprise levels. All correlations amongst the three value scales were significant at the 0.01 level. Results also indicated respondents believed that 1) LDPs help develop leadership competencies at all levels, especially at the individual level; 2) LDPs should be considered a priority; 3) LDPs

provide a competitive advantage at all levels, especially at the individual level; 4) adding to the set of LDP offerings was important; and, 4) the most effective type of LDPs was the non-credit, blended, and credit sequence.

The intent of this study was to add to the emerging research and scholarship in the field of continuing higher education regarding the perceived value of LDPs in terms of the intangible and tangible benefits they create. The evidence presented in this study provides justification of continued research of this topic.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my dear parents of blessed memory, my Father, Dr. Laddie J. Kulhanek, and my Mother, Norma H. Kulhanek, who encouraged, supported, and instilled in me the importance and value of higher education, and to accomplish to the best of my abilities the highest degree possible. I know they are watching over me and are so very proud of my Doctorate in Higher Education Administration. I feel this way about my in-laws also of blessed memory, Margie and Harry Stone, and my brother-in-law, David Stone.

I also dedicate this dissertation to my loving husband, Dr. Robert N. Stone, who also encouraged and supported me every step of the way. Thank you Mom and Dad, and Bob. I achieved this wonderful milestone in my life because of your love and enthusiastic support. Love forever and always.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

It is with deep appreciation that I wish to thank my dissertation committee, Dr. Nathaniel Bray, Dr. Kathleen Cramer, Dr. Beverly Dyer, Dr. Tom Harris, Dr. Claire Major, and Dr. Mark Nelson, for their support and kind words of encouragement throughout the dissertation process. I am especially grateful to Dr. Bray for advising and helping me with the Value Creation Survey developed for my dissertation. Lastly with respect to my dissertation committee, words cannot express how grateful I am to Dr. Claire Major, my dissertation chair, for her guidance throughout the dissertation process. Her patience, her wisdom, and her personal commitment to me as a doctoral student will never be forgotten.

I also wish to thank Dr. James Wardrop, Education Psychology Professor Emeritus, the University of Illinois, who was also a wonderful source of support and encouragement, especially with quantitative aspects of my dissertation, as well as the support and assistance I received from Dr. Rebecca Ballard, my dissertation editor.

When I entered the doctoral program, Dr. Michael Miller was my professor and first dissertation chair. Dr. Miller then moved on to the San Jose State University, and Dr. Albert Miles, also one of my professors, became my dissertation chair. Before Dr. Miles passed away, he requested Dr. Claire Major to assume his role as my dissertation chair which she so kindly agreed to do, something for which I will be forever grateful. Dr. Miles was with me in spirit when I successfully had my final dissertation defense.

I am grateful to my late parents, Dr. Laddie and Norma Kulhanek, who always made me feel special and who instilled in me a sense of purpose, determination, and gave me the strength and confidence to carry on. I am grateful to the rest of my family for always believing in me. None of this would have been possible without the constant love and support of my dear husband, Dr. Robert Stone, for his unconditional love, patience, and support, and comments on many aspects of my dissertation, chapter-by-chapter.

I am grateful to Rabbi Ephraim Prombaum for his spiritual support and kind words of encouragement. Finally, I thank God, who is the source of my strength, and my abilities, and who embraced me with health, helping me achieve this honored accomplishment.

CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	ii
DEDICATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	xvi
LIST OF FIGURES	xix
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION.....	1
Background to the Study.....	3
Challenge to Organizations.....	4
External Challenges	4
Internal Challenges to Organizations.....	6
Other Internal Challenges Unique to Academic Organizations.....	8
Statement of the Research Problem	8
Purpose of the Study	12
Significance of the Study	13
Research Questions.....	14
Methodology	15
Assumptions of the Study	17
Limitations of the Study.....	19
Definitions of Terms	19
Organization of the Remainder of the Study	31

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	32
Definitional Issues: Leadership, Leadership Development, Intangibles, and Valuation/Value	32
Leadership.....	32
Leadership Development	34
Intangibles.....	36
Valuation/Value	39
Leadership.....	40
Conceptual and Definitional Issues	40
Historical Conceptions of Leadership.....	40
Theoretical Conceptions of Leadership	41
Research Approaches to Leadership Theory	44
Taxonomies of Leadership Paradigms and Theories	44
Historical Overview of Twentieth-Century Thought.....	45
Evolutionary Stages of Leadership Theory.....	47
Theories and Models of Leadership.....	49
Leadership Theory Movements	51
Trends in Leadership Theory and Research.....	53
Major Research Approaches	54
Linking Theories and Approaches to Leadership Paradigms	55
Summary of Main Theories of Leadership	57
Leadership Theories and Perspectives	59
Trait Theories.....	59
Behavioral Theories	62

Contingency/Situational Theories.....	62
Power and Influence Theories	64
Cultural and Symbolic Theories	67
Perceptual and Cognitive Theories.....	68
Hybrid Explanations	70
Excellence Theory	70
New Leadership Approaches	71
Integrative Theories	71
Constitutive, Constructivist Theory.....	72
Leadership within Learning Organizations.....	73
Post-Charismatic and Post-Transformational Leadership Theory.....	73
Leadership Paradigms.....	74
Objectivist and Subjectivist Perspectives of Leadership	75
Summary of Conceptions of Leadership, Theories and Research	77
Leadership Development	80
Historical Conceptions of Leadership Development.....	80
Commitment to and Investment in Leadership Development as Means to Address External and Internal Challenges.....	84
Non-Academic Organizations.....	84
Academic Organizations.....	86
Young Adult Student Leadership Development.....	87
University-based, Continuing Education Leadership Development.....	89
University-based, Continuing Education Leadership Development for Business.....	92

University-based, Continuing Education Leadership Development for Government	92
University-based, Continuing Education Leadership Development for the Professions.....	93
University-based Leadership Development for Higher Education.....	95
Higher Education’s Leadership Development Pyramid	95
Other Reasons for the Lack of Attention Given to Leadership Development for Academic and Administrative Staff in Colleges and Universities.....	96
Types of University-based, Leadership Development Programs for Faculty Members and Administrators	102
Higher Education Administration Programs.....	102
Higher Education/Community College Programs	105
Continuing Education Programs	108
Campus-based Programs Linked to Continuous Quality Improvement	110
Intangibles.....	111
Key Issues in Comparison of Tangible and Intangible Assets	112
Importance	112
Hard and Soft Data.....	113
History of Intangible Assets.....	114
Taxonomies, Theory and Research on Intangible Assets	116
Identifiable and Unidentifiable Intangible Assets.....	116
Types of Intangible Assets Defined as Intellectual Capital	117
Leadership as an Intangible Asset.....	119
Leadership Knowledge, Skills, Competencies, Experiences	119
Measurement and Management Issues of Intangible Assets	127

Value/Valuation	134
Chapter Summary	135
CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY	139
Introduction.....	139
Significance of the Study	139
Research Problem	140
Value Creation Approach	141
Quantitative Research Design.....	143
Match Between Problem and Research Approach.....	143
Theoretical Perspective.....	144
Survey Research Strategy	144
Methods of Data Collection.....	145
Rational for the Selection of the Quantitative Research Design.....	146
Research Questions.....	147
Population and Sample	151
Implementation of the Study.....	153
Survey Instrument.....	154
Data Collection and Handling.....	155
Data Analysis	156
Measurement Properties of the Value Creation Survey.....	157
Chapter Summary	157
CHAPTER IV: RESULTS OF THE STUDY	158
Quantitative Results: Analysis of the Data	159

Characteristics of the Respondents	159
Respondents Primary Institutional Role	159
Respondents Length of Primary Institutional Role.....	160
Respondents Duties Pre-Primary Administrative Role.....	161
Respondents Also with an Academic Appointment	162
Respondents Also with Teaching Duties	162
Respondents Employment Length in Higher Education.....	163
Respondents Gender	164
Respondents Ethnicity	164
Respondents ACHE Region.....	165
Research Question 1	166
Research Question 2	168
Research Question 3	170
Correlation Results.....	172
Further Analysis: Correlations	172
In Sum.....	177
Independent Samples T-Test.....	177
Descriptive Statistics.....	180
Comparing Value Ratings by Region: Descriptive Statistics	183
Analysis of Variance.....	185
Research Question 4	186
Research Question 5	188
Research Question 6	193

Research Question 7	196
Research Question 8	199
ANOVA Results and Frequency Distribution: Part ID.....	202
Research Questions 4, 6, 7, 8.....	203
Descriptive Statistics: Part III (VCS 10, 11, and 12).....	205
Qualitative Results: Part III (VCS 13).....	210
Theme 1: Success of LDPs	211
Theme 2: Value of LDPs	211
Theme 3: Individual Responsibility.....	211
Theme 4: University Support of CE LDPs for Others But Not Internally.....	211
Theme 5: System Support.....	212
Theme 6: Mentoring and Outsourcing.....	212
Theme 7: Variability in LDPs.....	212
Theme 8: Budget Constraints.....	212
Theme 9: Issues with Answering Questions.....	212
Theme 10: Assumptions	213
Theme 11: Credit Degree Programs	213
Theme 12: Lack of CE LDPs.....	214
Chapter Summary	214
CHAPTER V: CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	220
Summary of the Study	222
Summary of the Findings.....	223
Discussions and Implications.....	229

Increasing Need for Leadership Development Programs (LDPs)	229
Leadership Development Focus.....	231
Education-Based Paradigm of Leadership Development	231
Value Creation Survey	232
Identifying Intangible Benefits	232
Recommendations for Future Practice.....	233
Recommendations for Future Research	235
Conclusions.....	240
REFERENCES	241
APPENDICES	254
A: Examples of Multi-frame Models in Higher Education Administration and Business Administration Relevant to Leadership in Higher Education Administration	255
B: Organization Frames, Leadership, and Related Skill Sets.....	257
C: Models of Organizational Functioning in Higher Education.....	260
D: Leadership Themes and Related Skill Sets.....	263
E: Academic Cultures, Qualities of Effective Leadership and Related Skill Sets	265
F: Four University Models and Organizational Cultures.....	269
G: Changing University Cultures and Changes in Academic Leadership.....	272
H: Types of Higher Education Institutions	274
I: The Culture of Leadership Concept in Higher Education	281
J: Organizational Perspective—Ecological: Characteristics of Learning Organizations	286
K: Leadership/Learning Disciplines: Related Competencies and Skills	288

L:	Conceptions of Leadership and Related Skill Sets	294
M:	Conceptions of Leadership and Leadership Communities and Related Skill Sets	298
N:	Value Creation Survey (VCS)	301
O:	Survey Cover Letter	310
P:	IRB Approved Application	311

LIST OF TABLES

1.	Historical Overview of Twentieth-Century Thought.....	46
2.	The Evolutionary Stages of Leadership Theory	48
3.	Theories and Models of Leadership.....	51
4.	Leadership Theory Movements	53
5.	Trends in Leadership Theory and Research.....	54
6.	Linking Theories and Approaches to Leadership Paradigms	56
7.	Summary of the Main Theories of Leadership	58
8.	Comparison of Tangible and Intangible Assets.....	113
9.	Comparison of Hard Data and Soft Data.....	114
10.	The Twelve Intangibles That Drive Performance.....	132
11.	Research Questions and Methods of Investigation.....	149
12.	Demographic 1: Respondents Primary Institutional Role	160
13.	Demographic 2: Respondents Length of Primary Institutional Role.....	161
14.	Demographic 3: Respondents Duties Pre-Primary Administrative Role.....	161
15.	Demographic 4: Respondents Also with an Academic Appointment	162
16.	Demographic 5: Respondents Also with Teaching Duties	163
17.	Demographic 6: Respondents Employment Length in Higher Education.....	163
18.	Demographic 7: Respondents Gender	164
19.	Demographic 8: Respondents Ethnicity.....	164
20.	Demographic 9: Respondents ACHE Region.....	165

21.	Frequency Distribution of Responses to Questionnaire Items Concerning Beliefs about the Value to Individuals of Leadership Development Programs	167
22.	Frequency Distribution of Responses to Questionnaire Items Concerning Beliefs about the Value to Institutions of Leadership Development Programs.....	169
23.	Frequency Distribution of Responses to Questionnaire Items Concerning Beliefs about the Value to the Higher Education Enterprise of Leadership Development Programs	171
24.	Correlations Matrix: VCS Items D1-D12 with each other and with VCS Value Scales at the Individual, Institutional, and Higher Education Enterprise Levels.....	175
25.	Correlations Summary: Four LDP Aspects with Each Other at the Three Levels	176
26.	t-test Comparison of Males and Females: Value Scales.....	179
27.	Descriptive Statistics: Ethnicity (a)	182
28.	Comparative Value Ratings by ACHE Region: Descriptive Statistics (Individual Value).....	183
29.	Comparative Value Ratings by ACHE Regions: Descriptive Statistics (Institutional Value).....	184
30.	Comparative Value Ratings by ACHE Regions: Descriptive Statistics (Higher Education Enterprise).....	184
31.	Analysis of Variance to Compare Value Ratings by Region: 2-ANOVA.....	185
32.	Frequencies Distribution of Responses to Part II-1 Questionnaire Items Concerning Program Rankings (non-credit, credit, blended) at the Individual Level	189
33.	Frequencies Distribution of Responses to Part II-2 Questionnaire Items Concerning Program Rankings (non-credit, credit, blended) at the Institutional Level.....	190
34.	Frequencies Distribution of Responses to Part II-3 Questionnaire Items Concerning Program Rankings (non-credit, credit, blended) at the Higher Education Enterprise Level.....	191
35.	ANOVA Summaries For Part I-D (items 1-12) Comparing Average Responses to Each Item Across the Eight ACHE Regions.	203
36.	Frequency Distribution of Responses to Questionnaire Items Concerning Beliefs about the Four Aspects of Leadership Development Programs	204

37.	LDP Program Types and Percentages Offered by Your CE Unit For Administrators	205
38.	LDP Program Types: Frequencies and Percentages Of Offerings	206
39.	III-12a Through III-12h (Other): Respondents Beliefs About Why LDPs Are Not Offered By the CE Unit At Their Institution	208

LIST OF FIGURES

1.	LDPs Should Be Considered a Priority at the Individual Level	187
2.	LDPs Should Be Considered a Priority at the Institutional Level	187
3.	LDPs Should Be Considered a Priority at the Higher Education Enterprise Level.....	188
4.	Types of LDPs Most Effective for Enhancing Leadership of Individuals.....	192
5.	Types of LDPs Most Effective for Enhancing Leadership For Institutions	192
6.	Types of LDPs Most Effective for Enhancing Leadership For the Higher Education Enterprise	193
7.	LDPs Provide a Competitive Advantage at the Individual Level.....	195
8.	LDPs Provide a Competitive Advantage at the Institutional Level	195
9.	LDPs Provide a Competitive Advantage at the Higher Education Enterprise Level	196
10.	LDPs' Success at Helping Individuals Develop Their Leadership Competencies	198
11.	LDPs' Success at Helping Academic Institutions Meet Their Needs For Developing the Leadership Competencies of Their Administrators	198
12.	LDPs' Success at Helping the Higher Education Enterprise Meet Its Needs For Developing the Leadership Competencies of Its Administrators.....	199
13.	LDPs' Sufficiency To Meet the Existing Leadership Development Needs At the Individual Level	201
14.	LDPs' Sufficiency To Meet the Existing Leadership Development Needs At the Institutional Level	201
15.	LDPs' Sufficiency To Meet the Existing Leadership Development Needs At the Higher Education Enterprise Level.....	202

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Leadership development within organizations is an important investment if organizations are to thrive and succeed in today's rapidly changing and uncertain environment. Speaking to the importance of leadership development in organizations, whether Fortune 500 companies, nonprofit or government organizations, including the military, Alexander (2004) emphasized that, "Organizations today are facing unprecedented challenges that often seem to exceed the individual and organizational capacity for leadership. The only effective response to these circumstances is development...." (p. xv).

The distinction between individual and organizational capacities for leadership, as noted by Alexander (2004), is a new and important understanding. Research studies have indicated that there has been a shift in perspective regarding leadership development (Vicere & Fulmer, 1998; McCauley, Moxley, & Van Velsor, 1998; Day, 2000; Day & Halpin, 2004; McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004). This new understanding suggests that leader development is one aspect of a broader concept of leadership development. This broadened, theoretical perspective treats leadership as an organizational, rather than strictly an individual capacity.

In this study of the perceived value of leadership development programs (hereafter referred to as LDPs) that are specifically designed for administrators in higher education who may or may not also be faculty members with some teaching responsibilities, the broadened conceptualization of leadership development, which "views leadership development as requiring more than the development of individual leaders" (McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004, p. xvii) was an important consideration. Other important considerations pertained to the following references

used in this study. In references to university-based LDPs, the term “university” was used to refer to all four-year institutions of higher education that have continuing education units that provide LDPs. Of the three types of LDPs examined, which included non-credit, credit, and blended non-credit and credit programs, the third program type was referred to as blended programs. The different levels of examination referred to the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels. The term “value” was used to indicate non-physical and non-financial value. All of these understandings provided a conceptual framework for this study.

The broad conceptualization of leadership development was used inclusively in this study to denote the development of both individual and organizational leadership capacities.

“[Leadership] capacity,” as further explained by McCauley and Van Velsor, (2004), “is not just embedded in individuals in leadership roles but is also found in the relationships, systems, and cultures of the organizations” (p. xix). These and other individual and organizational aspects are being viewed from new perspectives that are critical in today’s competitive economic environment.

For example, Low and Kalafut (2002), in their research on corporate valuation, strategy, and consumer behavior, linked the many aspects of a business that do not show up on a balance sheet or income statement to economic performance. These non-physical and non-financial aspects, referred to as “intangibles” (p. 6), were described as “quantifiable drivers of corporate-value creation” and as sources of “invisible advantage” (p. 6). From their list of twelve key clusters of intangibles, which encompasses management capacity, strategy execution, communication and transparency, leadership was argued as one of the most important intangibles for any organization. Low and Kalafut’s research, which estimated the degree to which intangibles are defining corporate value, ranging anywhere from 35% to 50% of total value,

concluded that intangibles are changing the ways in which business is conducted, and that “investment in intangibles can pay off beyond any conventional return on investment calculation” (p. 58). An assessment of “leadership quality” is a consequence of the leadership tangibles experienced by members of an organization. These tangibles rest on an intangible base: LDPs are challenged with developing these intangibles. Investing in leadership development programs is an investment that is becoming accepted as having much merit.

Background to the Study

The four main concepts just introduced, namely, leadership, leadership development, intangibles, and value, created the mix of concepts from which the idea for this research emerged. The link between leadership and leadership development has a well-established association in both the popular and scholarly literatures. However, the links between leadership, leadership development, intangibles, and value only recently have materialized as business organizations explore and experiment with some of these newer and interrelated concepts in their organizations (Lev, 2001, Low & Kalafut, 2002; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004; Phillips, Myhill, & McDonough, 2007; Phillips & Phillips, 2007). Higher education has begun to examine these new connections as well (Shannon, 2003; Roffe, 2003; Mattes & Maguire, 2004). This convergence of concepts provided the foundation for this study.

With specific focus on leadership development in organizations, Day and Halpin (2004) noted the many increasingly complex challenges facing corporate, educational, and political institutions. Also noted was the impending leadership gap being created by retirements throughout many organizations. As a result, organizations may not be prepared for the leadership challenges of the future. There is a growing understanding in many organizations that leadership needs to be developed “more comprehensively across all organizational levels

and...as quickly as possible” (p. 4). To do so, organizations will need to focus more attention on and commit more resources to leadership development. Through leadership development, individuals will be better prepared to accomplish the leadership tasks required, thereby adding value to their organizations.

Challenges to Organizations

Leadership development is critical as leaders and their organizations face increasingly complex challenges. The types of challenges influencing both academic and non-academic organizations are both external and internal. In addition, other internal challenges that are unique to academic organizations stem from the special characteristics of colleges and universities.

External Challenges. The current environment challenging American higher education is the same environment challenging business and industry (Alstete, 1995; Freed, Klugman & Fife, 1997; Murphy & Riggio, 2003). To catalogue some of the external challenges confronting today’s academic and non-academic organizations is to get an idea of how dramatically the environment has been altered in the last quarter of a century. For example, in the academic sector, reductions in direct state support for higher education, increased federal regulations, public demands for greater accountability, explosion of knowledge, new technologies, alternative providers, changing student demographics, universal access, international competition for funds, reduced enrollments, and steep declines in endowment portfolios associated with value losses in the stock market, are some of the trends influencing American colleges and universities (Lucas, 1996; Cohen, 1998; Ramsden, 1998; Gumport & Sporn, 1999; Moore & Diamond, 2000; Kerr, 2001; Ruben, 2004; Day & Halpin, 2004; Hoyt & Whyte, 2011). These trends, which have led to increased competition within and between colleges and universities, together with the projected shortfall of qualified leaders, particularly within community colleges (Boggs, 2003;

Duvall, 2003; Katsinas & Kempner, 2005; Hoyt & Whyte, 2011), also have increased the importance of leadership development and the need for new ways of leading and administering in the academic sector.

The external challenges confronting American business and industry over the past 25 years also have been unprecedented. For example, in the business sector, changes in the economy have been a major force affecting business and industry. The evolution from a traditional industrial economy, based on tangible or physical, mass-produced goods, such as appliances, cars, and ready-made clothing, to a service economy, based on various types of services, such as health care, legal, financial, and educational services, and then to a knowledge and information economy, based on knowledge and information enhanced products and services, such as telecommunications, computer software, biotechnology, and information technology hardware, illustrates one trend that has had a significant affect on American business and industry (Low & Kalafut, 2002).

The most recent change in the economy has been the rise of the *New Economy*, “an economy characterized by new technologies, globalization, and an ever increasing emphasis on intangibles” (Sullivan, 2000, p. ix). This economy is also known as the *Intangibles Economy* based on, “nonphysical or intangible factors that contribute to, or are used in, the production of goods or the provision of services or that are expected to generate future productive benefits to the individuals or firms that control their use” (Blair & Wallman, 2001, p. 9).

Intangibles, such as intellectual, human, and organizational capital, which historically have not been treated as sources of economic value, have become the most important source of economic value in the United States and other developed economies. Although intangibles are not considered the same as services, the two are connected as, for example, in “the delivery of

highly skilled services and complex professional services [that] involves substantial inputs of intangibles” (p. 11). Services and intangibles, which “now account for more than two-thirds of the gross domestic product (GDP) in the United States” (Blair & Wallman, 2001, p. 7), have emerged as important factors to be taken seriously by business and industry. All of the aforementioned changes in the economy have led to the radical shift from old-world business models and practices to new business models and practices.

Other unprecedented challenges confronting business and industry include deregulation and privatization, globalization, growth of entrepreneurial businesses, continuing evolution in computer technology, and increased consumer expectations. These challenges, along with changes in the economy, have substantially increased the level and pace of competition (Fulmer, Gibbs, & Goldsmith, 2000; Fulmer & Goldsmith, 2001; Low & Kalafut, 2002; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004). The increase in competition, coupled with the projected shortfall of qualified leaders (Day & Halpin, 2004; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004), has increased both the importance of leadership development, management development, and the need for new ways of leading and managing in the corporate arena.

Internal Challenges to Organizations. In addition to the challenges emanating from the external environment, academic and non-academic organizations alike face another set of challenges, stemming from some of the general features common to all organizations, such as organizational complexity, unpredictability, deception, and ambiguity (Bolman & Deal, 1997). For example, organizational complexity can occur because understanding and predicting human behavior of organizational members oftentimes is very difficult. Or, especially in large organizations, which consist of many individuals, departments, technologies, goals, and environments, interactions among these different entities can be extremely complicated,

sporadic, and random. Complexity is further compounded when a number of different organizations are involved. Any variation in one area can affect change in other areas, thereby producing complex situations that are hard to understand or explain (Bolman & Deal, 1997).

Unpredictability, a second internal challenge, links the decisions or initiatives in an organization to outcomes, which many times are difficult to anticipate. For example, using the same solution that worked in the past to remedy current or future problems may create even more obstacles to getting things done. Organizations frequently react in ways that are contrary to expectations, thereby increasing organizational unpredictability (Bolman & Deal, 1997).

Deception, which occurs when organizational members camouflage weaknesses within an organization, is another internal challenge. Organizational members may hide problems for any numbers of reasons. For example, subordinates may not share information so as not to challenge authority or offend superiors. Subordinates also may hold back certain information if they feel superiors might not pay attention to or reprimand them for being noncompliant or insubordinate (Bolman & Deal, 1997).

Ambiguity, a fourth internal challenge, is linked to the complexity, unpredictability, and deception, and may stem from any number of sources. For example, sometimes problems are poorly defined or entangled with other problems. Sometimes information is incomplete, vague, unreliable, or misinterpreted. At other times, goals may be unclear or conflicting, or important resources may be lacking, thereby increasing chaotic conditions. Unclear roles and responsibilities or uncertain evaluation procedures also contribute to ambiguity within organizations (Bolman & Deal, 1997).

The factors just described make academic and non-academic organizations difficult to understand, manage, and lead. As a result, leaders need ways to help clarify, simplify, and find

meaning in the confusion of organizational life. Being able to look at organizations from multiple viewpoints and to think in more complex ways help to figure out what is going on within an organization. Developing a broader understanding of human organizations and how they work enhances both leadership and management effectiveness (Bolman & Deal, 1997).

Other Internal Challenges Unique to Academic Organizations. Other internal challenges that are unique to academic organizations stem from the special characteristics of colleges and universities. These features include the shared governance system, dualism of controls between faculty and administrators, multiple missions and goals, loosely coupled processes, and traditional academic values and culture. Together, they form the primary distinctions between academic and nonacademic organizations. They also make leadership in higher education more problematic than in other settings (Keller, 1983; Birnbaum, 1988; Green, 1988; Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Middlehurst, 1993; Ramsden, 1998; Birnbaum, 2001; Ruben, 2004). These strong historical traditions make any kind of change in higher education difficult. Given these facts, leadership development in higher education takes on added significance. Academic organizations and non-academic organizations, however, differ significantly in their commitment to and investment in leadership development as a means for effectively dealing with external and internal challenges confronting their respective organizations.

Statement of the Research Problem

The increasing focus on and investments in leadership development are especially true of contemporary, business and government organizations, and to a great degree many of the professions. Leadership development for students and external constituents also are important aims for colleges and universities. These same priorities, with respect to administrative staff, however, have not historically been evidenced within academic organizations (McDade, 1987;

Green, 1988; Green & McDade, 1991; McDade & Lewis, 1994; Ruben, 2004). While various types of LDPs for administrators are available, although not without some challenges as previously noted, most often there appears to be little sustained, genuine institutional commitment on the part of many colleges and universities to support leadership development for these professionals. Rather, “responsibility still lies disproportionately with the individual to tend to his or her own professional development” (Green, 1988, p. 294).

As a result, many administrators do not pursue LDPs that may be available. Instead, if they are interested in leadership development, they often turn to other providers, such as professional associations for leadership development opportunities. Due to the increased need for leadership development, continuing higher education professional organizations, such as the Association of Continuing Higher Education (ACHE) and the University Continuing Education Association (UCEA), are increasing their leadership development programming for mid-level and executive administrators in higher education. Even with these new initiatives, however, the increasing need for LDPs must be underscored.

This study’s emphasis on the value of LDPs for administrators is important for several reasons. First, one of the core principles that form the basic foundation of the field of continuing education is that, “If individuals, and ultimately society, are to prosper, learning must continue throughout life” (Beder, 1989, p. 48). This principle, linking continuing education with lifelong learning, is central to the philosophy of continuing education, all of which is central to leadership and leadership development. Ruben’s (2004) point about applying a continuing education philosophy and resources to leadership within colleges and universities as an imperative for achieving excellence in higher education advances this connection. LDPs for administrators are guided by this philosophy.

Second, because continuing education typically is more entrepreneurial than other academic and administrative units in creating innovative approaches to developing effective leaders, continuing education can help expedite the needs of academic organizations to proactively build leadership bench strength for the future and speed up the development of their current leaders. Given an increasingly complex environment and rapidly changing future, continuing education is an important resource for developing leadership more comprehensively across and within all institutional levels and speeding up the leadership development process. Accelerating the development of leadership talent is now one of the most critical leadership development challenges confronting today's organizations (Day & Halpin, 2004; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004; Ruben, 2004).

Third, because many continuing education professionals are experienced in providing leadership development programs for various constituents, and because continuing education professionals are familiar with and sensitive to many of the special characteristics of colleges and universities, they can draw upon their expertise to design leadership development programs that are appropriate for administrators and the institutions they serve. Continuing education professionals are a valuable resource in this regard. As such, they can help bridge the leadership gap between academic and administrative staff in higher education.

Fourth, because continuing education often partners with other academic units to provide high quality professional development programs, continuing education can help create the synergy that can drive the success of leadership development programs. With particular regard to leadership development programs for administrators, the partnerships amongst colleges of education and continuing education can create a dynamic combination of strengths that can be applied to the planning and development of these programs. For example, the teaching and

research resources of academic programs in higher education, and the lifelong learning philosophy, practice orientation, and infrastructure of continuing education both contribute to a well-rounded learning experience. In addition, such collaborative efforts often can attract and lead to further valuable partnerships within the higher education enterprise in support of leadership development programs for administrators. Altogether, the combined partnerships provide the commitment, credibility, and support necessary to establish, maintain, and renew LDPs, thus advancing effective leadership within academic institutions.

Fifth, due to the trend in business dealing with the management, measurement, and reporting of an organization's intangible assets that create unseen wealth or value, such as innovation capabilities, intellectual property, human resources, organizational capital, and other intangible resources (Hill, 1992; Kaplan & Norton, 1996; Lev, 2001; Blair & Wallman, 2001; Low & Kalafut, 2002; Lev, 2004; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004; Phillips, Myhill, & McDonough, 2007; Phillips & Phillips, 2007; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2004; Zadrozny, 2006), continuing education has begun to move in this direction of an interest in intangible assets and value-added issues in higher education (Shannon, 2003; Roffe, 2003; Mattes & Maguire, 2004). An approach that expands the emphasis from tangible resources and benefits to intangible resources and benefits has emerged. The importance of intangible assets and the value they create may be more fully realized.

According to Phillips and Schmidt (2004), "In some programs, such as interpersonal skills training, team development, leadership, communications training, and management development, the intangible benefits can be more important than the tangible measures" (Phillips & Schmidt, 2004, p. 206). By identifying, assessing, and reporting the value of LDPs in building intangible assets, such as enhanced leadership competencies, increased knowledge, improved

teamwork, better cooperation, and improved communication, continuing education can provide important supporting evidence about the value of LDPs for administrators, the institutions they serve, and the higher education enterprise in general. In so doing, continuing education can help to overcome some of the aforementioned obstacles to developing leaders within the academy, while advocating greater support for LDPs for administrators. Both the value-added nature of leadership development (Day & Halpin, 2004), and the intangible of leadership (Low & Kalafut, 2002; Shannon, 2003) provide important, new insights into the value of LDPs for administrators.

Altogether, the importance of LDPs for administrators is anchored in a number of key issues. The importance of LDPs for administrators is anchored in continuing education's core principles and philosophy of lifelong learning, entrepreneurialism, and experience and expertise in designing and administering leadership development programs. Also important is continuing education's sensitivity to the many special features of academic institutions and its capacity to collaborate with academic units to provide high quality leadership development experiences. Furthermore, continuing education's attention to intangible assets and value-added issues in higher education is directly linked to its special interest in new approaches for identifying, assessing, and reporting its value to a parent college or university and the value of its programs. These understandings serve as an important backdrop to this study of the value of LDPs for administrators and leadership as an intangible resource.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceived value of LDPs for administrators in higher education. Specifically, this study investigated the perceived value of specific types of LDPs (non-credit, credit, or blended [credit and non-credit program attendees in the same class]) at three levels (individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise) in higher education. In

addition, this study introduced a new conceptualization of leadership: leadership experienced by someone, a tangible, rests on intangible assets comprised of distinctive skills, abilities, and competencies. These intangible assets, which if effectively developed and applied, can serve as a source of value creation in building sustained, competitive advantage for individuals, academic organizations, and the higher education enterprise in today's highly competitive and uncertain environment.

Significance of the Study

The extraordinary challenges facing higher education nationally make it incumbent upon institutions to develop individual leader capacity, while at the same time developing collective leadership capacity within institutions. Individuals with exceptional capabilities are needed in all areas and at all levels to help colleges and universities address these challenges and achieve higher levels of performance and excellence. To achieve the kind of leadership appropriate to the task and need, leadership must be understood and valued throughout the Academy. This requires leadership development as well as responsiveness among administrators.

Unfortunately, institutions have not played a sufficient enough role in developing individuals for the many vital roles within higher education. For example, in a study of more than two thousand Deans of Nursing, fewer than ten percent of those surveyed indicated that their institutions have leadership development programs (Gmelch, 2000). Ruben (2004) further argued that, "It seems likely that comparable surveys of leaders in other areas in colleges and universities would produce much the same findings" (p. 302).

Given today's competitive higher education environment, the need for exceptional leaders throughout the Academy, and the shortage of LDPs for administrators provided by continuing education in four-year institutions, this study of leadership development for these

professionals was considered salient for several reasons. First, it provided insight into the value of LDPs for administrators in higher education. Second, its focus on some of the more elusive or intangible benefits of LDPs provided a new perspective of leadership as an intangible resource both in the fields of higher education administration and continuing higher education.

Third, this study also supported the Association of Continuing Higher Education's (ACHE) Research Committee's research initiative focusing on the value added by continuing education units to their respective institutions and stakeholders. Also with regard to ACHE, this study supported the on-going dialogue through the ACHE Value-Added Network that was established in 2004 for the purpose of designing, studying, and disseminating ways for continuing education units to demonstrate empirically their value to their institutions and communities. The focus of both of these ACHE initiatives is in alignment with the focus of this study.

Research Questions

This quantitative, survey-based study of LDPs for administrators sought to answer eight research questions. The eight questions fell into two categories, RQ 1 through RQ 3 in the first category which dealt with individual perceptions about the value of LDPs to individuals (RQ 1), institutions (RQ 2), and the higher education enterprise (RQ 3). RQ 4 through RQ 8 in the second category focused on aspects of LDPs at those three levels. The research questions include the following:

1. What is the value of LDPs (non-credit, credit, or blended non-credit and credit) designed for administrators at the individual level;
2. What is the value of LDPs (non-credit, credit, or blended non-credit and credit) designed for administrators at the institutional level;

3. What is the value of LDPs (non-credit, credit, or blended non-credit and credit) designed for administrators at the higher education enterprise level;
4. To what extent should LDPs for administrators be considered a priority at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels;
5. What models (non-credit, credit, or blended) are most effective for enhancing leadership development at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels;
6. To what extent do LDPs for administrators provide a competitive advantage at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels;
7. What are your beliefs that LDPs for administrators are successful at helping develop leadership competencies at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels; and
8. To what extent do you believe the LDPs at your institution are sufficient to meet the leadership development needs for current and future administrators, for your institution, and for the higher education enterprise?

Methodology

In this study, a quantitative research design was used to investigate the value of LDPs (non-credit, credit, and blended non-credit and credit) designed for administrators at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels. The value of these programs was examined in terms of the perceived, non-financial intangible benefits created by these programs as expressed by research participants. This study also explored a new understanding of leadership: leadership as a tangible resource based on intangibles consisting of skills, abilities, and competencies which have been effectively developed and applied with the goal of creating

value at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels in today's competitive higher education environment.

Toward this end, the literature in both business and higher education on leadership, leadership development, intangibles, and value was reviewed to determine an overarching thematic approach to integrate these four topical areas and help guide this study. The idea of using a value-creation approach to measure the value of LDPs designed for administrative staff in higher education was derived from the various value-creation approaches and tools identified in the literature. One particular initiative undertaken by the University of Chicago's Graham School of General Studies in its adaptation and application of the Value Creation Index (Low & Kalafut, 2002) to its operations (Shannon, 2003), served as an example of the appropriateness of using a value-creation approach to measure the value of these programs. The use of a value-creation approach and development of a value creation survey (VCS) instrument for the purposes of this study was based on these trends identified in the literature. The idea of applying a multiple-levels' approach for this study of the value of these programs at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels, also was based on this trend identified in the literature on leadership theories and research.

The research methods used in this study included the development of a 75-item survey that was mailed and self-administered to the 217 Institutional Representatives of the Association of Continuing Higher Education. The rationale for selecting the Institutional Representatives, which included administrators who may or may not also be faculty members with some teaching responsibilities, was based on the range of experiences and expertise they have regarding continuing education programs. Also important was the fact that they are typically in a position to oversee their unit's decision-making processes regarding credit and non-credit programming

(Dr. Chris Dougherty, former ACHE President, phone conversation, November 13, 2005). Also, this researcher was inspired by the Shannon's (2003) article on *Measuring the Value of Continuing Education—Application of the Value Creation Index*. This researcher had the opportunity to meet with Dr. Shannon, Dean of the Graham School of General Studies, University of Chicago, and discuss his study (personal interview, November 21, 2003). He confirmed that the idea for my study of the perceived value of leadership development programs for administrators in higher education would be most beneficial and the results would help to advance the field of leadership development programs.

Prior to the administration of the final survey, a pretest of the survey with 22 current or former faculty members and administrators who were involved in continuing education activities at The University of Alabama, was undertaken to enhance the development of the survey. The pretest served as a construct validity check. Once the administration of the survey was completed and data collected, quantitative procedures involving both descriptive and inferential statistical analysis were conducted.

Assumptions of the Study

This study acknowledged the following assumptions:

1. The quantitative research approach was the best approach for addressing the research problem in this study. This assumption was based on the appropriateness of a quantitative approach for “identifying factors that influence an outcome, the utility of an intervention, or understanding the best predictors of outcomes... It is also the best approach to use to test a theory or explanation” (Creswell, 2003, pp. 21-22). The use of this approach was considered appropriate for the purposes of explaining and better understanding the perceived non-financial value of LDPs for administrators in terms of the tangible benefits they create at the individual,

institutional, and higher education enterprise levels in higher education. The quantitative approach was deemed appropriate for addressing an understanding of leadership as a tangible resource based on intangibles consisting of skills and competences that add value at the individual, organizational, and higher education enterprise levels in higher education.

2. The perceived intangible value of leadership development programs can be quantitatively assessed.

3. Leadership is a tangible resource that rests on an intangible base comprised of distinctive skills and competencies which, if effectively developed and applied, adds “considerable unseen and unrecognized value--invisible advantage” (Low & Kalafut, 2002, p. 226), at individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels in today’s competitive higher education environment.

4. LDPs designed for administrators in higher education served as a source of “invisible advantage” (Low & Kalafut, p. 226) in today’s competitive higher education environment.

5. The management of intangibles is the responsibility of leadership at all levels of an organization (Low & Kalafut, 2002, p. 226; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2003, p. 21).

6. The individuals who participated in this study represented a sample of ACHE Institutional Representatives who were members of ACHE as of 2009.

7. The cover letter and survey adequately explained the purpose and procedures for completing the survey.

8. The subjects responding to the survey selected answers that represented their true beliefs and perceptions.

9. The survey used in this study accurately reflected the appropriate responses regarding the perceived value of LDPs for Administrators in higher education.

Limitations of the Study

Most research efforts have limitations. The limitations to this study were acknowledged by this researcher as follows.

1. The study was limited to an examination of LDPs that were university-based and provided by continuing education. Furthermore, university-based referred to all four-year institutions of higher education.
2. The study was limited to the 217 Institutional Representatives of ACHE and may not be generalizable to all higher education continuing education professionals. The study also was considered to be useful in adding to the baseline of knowledge related to the value of LDPs in academic organizations and the perceived value of LDPs designed for administrators.
3. The study was limited to the extent that the Value Creation Survey (VCS) measured beliefs and perceptions of the value of LDPs designed for administrators at three levels: individual, institution, and higher education enterprise levels in higher education.
4. The study was limited in that no data were gathered from the perspectives of participants in LDPs or their respective institutions.

Definition of Terms

For the sake of clarity and consistency, the following operational definitions were used in this study.

Academic Leadership: “A practical and everyday *process* of supporting, managing, developing and inspiring academic colleagues” (Ramsden, 1998, p. 4).

Balanced Scorecard: “A performance measurement model [that] measures organizational performance across four perspectives: financial, customers, internal business processes, and learning and growth” (Phillips & Schmidt, 2004, p. 25).

Blended Continuing Education Programs: These are programs that provide both non-credit and credit options within a single program offering.

Continuing Education: “The learning effort undertaken by people whose principal occupation is no longer student—those who regard learning as a means of developing their potential or resolving their problems” (Cohen & Brawer, 2003, p. 288).

Continuing Professional Education: A subspecialty of continuing education “that focuses on programming for persons who have earned their professional qualifications in some field and who have subsequently sought additional education experience” (Griffith, 1985, p. 102); “the education of professional practitioners, regardless of their practice setting, that follows their preparatory curriculum and extends their learning . . . throughout their careers” (Queeney, 1996, p. 698 cited in Queeney, 2000, p. 375).

Cross Sectional Survey: A strategy associated with quantitative research using questionnaires for data collection, with the intent of generalizing from a sample to a population; survey with data collected at one point in time (Creswell, 2003, pgs. 14, 154).

Descriptive Statistics: One of two types of statistics defined as “techniques that allow the [researcher] to tabulate, summarize, and depict a collection of data in an abbreviated form” (Lomax, 2001, p. 6).

Higher Education Enterprise: This is one of three levels of higher education conceptualized and used for the purposes of this study. This level is also understood as a systems level of higher education.

Human Capital: A component of intellectual capital based on “the individual’s capabilities of . . . employees and managers: their knowledge, skills, competencies, and experiences” (Daum, 2003, p. 18).

Inferential Statistics: One of two types of statistics defined as “techniques that allow the [researcher] to employ inductive reasoning to infer the properties of an entire group or collection of individuals, a population, from a small number of those individuals, a sample” (Lomax, 2001, p.6).

Intangible, Intangible Assets, Intangible Benefits, and Intangible Resources: Within business, the word “intangible” often is used as an adjective together with the word “assets” to describe non-physical or non-financial organizational assets that cannot be touched or spent (Blair & Wallman, 2001; Lev, 2001; Low & Kalafut, 2002, p. 31; Cohen, 2005). Other descriptions include: “distinctive competencies...which an organization possesses which set it apart from its competitors” (Hill, 1992, p. 138); “assets and competencies that are hardest for competitors to emulate” (Low & Kalafut, 2002, p. 27); benefits (or detriments) that are “purposefully not converted to monetary values” (Phillips & Schmidt, 2004, p. 207); and, sources of value within organizations (Blair & Wallman, 2001; & Lev, 2001).

In addition, when the word “intangible” is used as a noun, more specific definitions and descriptions are evidenced. For instance, intangibles are defined as, “Nonphysical factors that contribute to or are used in producing goods or providing services, or that are expected to generate future productive benefits for the individuals or firms that control the use of those factors” (Blair & Wallman, 2001, p. 3). Some of the many different aspects of a business that are now regarded as intangibles that are driving corporate performance and valuation include factors such as, “leadership, strategy, communications, brand, reputation, alliances and networks, technology, human capital, workplace/culture, innovation, intellectual capital, and adaptability” (Low & Kalafut, 2002, p. 14). Intangibles have also been defined as a force of “corporate-value creation” (Low & Kalafut, 2002, p. 6). All of these examples of how the word “intangible” is

currently defined and applied in business organizations emphasize the growing importance of intangibles and their non-financial value in a highly competitive environment.

Within higher education, the word “intangible” also is used, though to a lesser extent than in business. This observation is striking since higher education, or education in general, deals primarily with intangibles. Although the word “intangible” is just beginning to emerge in the literature, intangibles have a long history in higher education. Some of the intangibles identified in the literature include: manifestations of academic excellence (Birnbaum 2001); benefits of education (Cohen, 2005); educational resources (Cervero, 1984); educational outcomes (Dressel, 1981; Birnbaum, 2001); leadership (Keller, 1983; Middlehurst, 1993); leadership skills (Green & McDade, 1991); knowledge (Lucas, 1996); collegiality (Ramsden, 1998); and, prestige (Veysey, 1965) among others. Intangibles also have been defined as “a set of levers that, if effectively applied, can improve corporate performance” and the bottom-line (Shannon, 2003, p. 50).

Lev (2001) defined an intangible asset as “a claim to future benefits that does not have a physical or financial...embodiment” (p. 5). In brief, an intangible asset is “a nonphysical claim to future benefits” (p. 5). The most direct definition of intangibles may be as follows: “Capable of being defined or determined but not with certainty or precision” (p. 5). Other intangible assets are described as the benefits “generated by innovation (discovery), unique organizational designs, or human resource practices” (p. 7).

Further descriptions of intangible assets include the following: “benefits that are invisible, difficult to quantify, and not tracked through traditional accounting practices” (Phillips & Schmidt, 2004, p. 207); “a type of measure which cannot or should not be converted to monetary values” (Phillips & Schmidt, 2004, p. 206); “the [organizational] impact measures not converted to monetary values” (Phillips & Schmidt, 2004, p. 61); assets whose essence is an idea

or knowledge and whose nature can be defined and recorded in some way (Hall, 1992); “everything that is not physical or investment, but is of value to a company... Intangible assets can be described as a company’s intangible resources. They are, therefore, also called ‘intellectual capital’” (Daum, 2003, p. 17).

Intangible assets also are described as one type of intangible resources that are based on ownership and legal protection. Intangible assets include the intellectual property rights associated with patents, trademarks, copyrights, and registered design, and other types of resources such as contracts, trade secrets, reputation, and networks. Although the valuation of intangible assets remains controversial in accounting practice, it is “now well recognized that intangible assets can represent the bulk of the worth of many companies” (Hall, 1992, p. 139).

Intangible resources may be classified either as “assets” or as “skills or competencies” (Hall, 1992, p. 136). Intangible resources which are assets, and which are legally protected, include intellectual property rights, patents, trademarks, copyrights, contracts, trade secrets and data bases, among others. Intangible resources which are skills or competencies, and which are considered as subjective resources, include “the know-how of employees and the collective aptitudes which add up to organizational culture” (p. 136).

For the purposes of this study, intangibles were defined as the leadership skills, abilities, and competencies that add value at multiple levels: individual, organizational, and higher education enterprise. The leadership skills, abilities, and competencies identified in this research were drawn from both the academic and business literatures (see Appendices A through M).

Intangible Attributes: Qualities that communicate value to an investment community (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2003, p. vii).

Intangibles Audit: A self-assessment tool designed to help HR leaders evaluate what is needed to deliver investor value given an organization's history and strategy, measure how well intangibles (an organization's capabilities, such as talent, speed, shared mindset, accountability, collaboration, learning, leadership, customer connection, innovation, strategic unity, and efficiency) are being delivered, and develop an action plan for improvement (Ulrich & Brockbank, 2005, pp. 52-54).

Intangible Data: Soft data [that] are subjective...difficult to measure...difficult to convert to monetary values, and...behaviorally oriented (Phillips & Schmidt, 2004, p. 147).

Intangibles Economy: A new economy wherein "intangibles such as R&D, proprietary know-how, intellectual property and workforce skills, world-class supply networks and brands are now the key drivers of wealth production while physical and financial assets are increasingly regarded as commodities" (Report on the Intangible Economy to the European Commission, cited in Low & Kalafut, 2002, p. 73).

Intangible Measures: "Measures that are purposely not converted to monetary values" (Phillips & Schmidt, 2004, p. 207).

Intellectual Capital: the value of ideas (Low & Kalafut, 2002, p. 183).

Invisible Advantage: "Unseen and unrecognized value...in the ideas and people who make up the organizations through which we manage our world" (Low & Kalafut, 2002, p. 226).

Invisible Assets: "Informational-based assets, which include technology, consumer trust, brand image, corporate culture, as well as management skills" (Itami, 1987; cited in Marr, 2005).

Knowledge Claims: Philosophical assumptions about what and how things will be learned during inquiry (Creswell, 2003); research methodologies (Creswell, 2003); paradigms (Mertens, 2005); theoretical perspectives (Mertens, 2005).

Leader Development: “The expansion of a person’s capacity to be effective in leadership roles and processes. Leadership roles and processes are those that facilitate setting direction, creating alignment, and maintaining commitment in groups of people who share common work” (McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004, p. 2); “one aspect of a broader concept of leadership development” (p. 18).

Leadership: “The process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish the shared objectives” (Yukl, 2002, p. 7); “the nature of the influencing process—and its resultant outcomes—that occurs between a leader and followers and how this influencing process is explained by the leader’s dispositional characteristics and behaviors, follower perceptions and attributions of the leader, and the context in which the influencing process occurs” (Antonakis, Ciancioilo, & Sternberg, 2004; p. 5); “an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members” (Bass, 1990, p. 19); “the collective activity of organizational members to accomplish the tasks of setting direction, creating alignment, and gaining commitment” (McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004, p. 419); and , “the work that administrators and faculty members do when they set objectives, establish policies, organize, motivate, communicate, assess performance, and development people (Birnbaum, 2001, p. xiv); and, “a purposive process which is inherently value-based” (Laanan, 2010).

Added to this sampling of representative definitions of leadership is the following definition used specifically for the purposes of this study. Leadership is a tangible asset that rests on an intangible resource base of distinctive skills and competencies that serves as a source

of value creation and future benefits at multiple levels: the individual (administrators), organizational (academic organization), and the higher education enterprise levels in today's highly competitive environment.

Leadership Development: Leadership development has been defined in terms “the expansion of the organization’s capacity to enact the basic leadership tasks needed for collective work: setting direction, creating alignment, and maintaining commitment” (McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004, p. 18). Leadership development also has been conceptualized and defined in terms of forms of leadership development (McDade, 1987; Green, 1988; Green & McDade, 1991; McDade & Lewis, 1994; Yukl, 2002); specific methods used in leadership development (Vicere & Fulmer, 1998; Conger & Benjamin, 1999; Yukl, 2002; McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004); individual and organizational development (Day, 2000; McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004); and, processes of learning (Middlehurst, 1993). For instance, Green (1988) defined leadership development within higher education in several ways: the informal process that is “part of the natural progression of gaining experience and seasoning in the workplace” (p. 27); as a formal process of learning new skills and new behaviors; and, as a process of lifelong learning, which is one of the on-going themes in much of the literature on leadership development. Green and McDade (1991) defined leadership development in higher education as “providing people with opportunities to grow and learn, to affirm their beliefs and values, to expand their understanding of issues and people, and to improve their management skills” (p. 5). Middlehurst (1993) defined leadership development as a process of learning about oneself, others, organizations, management and leadership skills, ambiguity, dilemmas and balance, and how to learn. Vicere and Fulmer’s (1998) new and emerging perspective of leadership development, which is rooted in the concept of the learning organization and focused not only on individual development but

also on the overall competitiveness and strategic effectiveness of an organization, defines “strategic leadership development” as “a process for cultivating both individual and collective talents of the organization” (p. 12). Phillips’ and Schmidt’s (2004) definition of leadership development emphasized that “leadership development is about individuals learning, growing, and changing” (p. 80). Laanan (2010) defined leadership development as “Any form of education, including leadership development, which is inherently value-laden”. Although these definitions are similar insofar as they incorporate the concept of learning, they also reflect to some extent different perspectives on what leadership development is and what gets developed in leadership development.

For the purposes of this research, leadership development was defined as follows: Leadership development encompasses the various processes of developing both individual and organizational leadership capacities.

Leadership Scorecard: “A tool that provides a structure for establishing, tracking, compiling, analyzing, and communicating leadership development” (Phillips & Schmidt, 2004, p. 31).

Levels of Analysis: “a basis for classifying leadership theory and research” (Yukl, 2002, p. 19) according to different organizational levels. The levels, which can be viewed as a hierarchy include: intra-individual, dyadic, group, and organizational. Originally proposed by Yammarino (1998), the levels of analysis focus on four organizational “groups” to understand leadership theories and models. While Yammarino’s multiple-level approaches focused internally on organizations, other frameworks, such as Avery’s (2004) have expanded the groups to also include the external leadership environment.

New Economy: A “new economic environment which emerged in the late 1990s [as] the result of numerous convergent forces: new communications and Internet technologies, globalization, industry consolidation, a new generation of people entering the workplace, and the increased importance of intangible assets such as knowledge, relationships, and intellectual property. In the new economy, companies are using previously unrecognized assets to create unprecedented value” (Boulton, Libert, & Samek, 2000, p. 246).

Paradigm: “A way of looking at the world...composed of certain philosophical assumptions that guide and direct thinking and action” (Mertens, 2005, p. 7).

Positivism: The dominant theoretical paradigm that characterized most early educational and psychological research. Based on the rationalistic, empiricist philosophy that originated with Aristotle, Francis Bacon, John Locke, August Comte, and Emanuel Kant, positivism is guided by the following underlying assumptions and beliefs: “the social world can be studied in the same way as the natural world....there is a method for studying the social world that is value-free....explanations of a causal nature can be provided” (Mertens, 2005, p. 8).

Postpositivism: The dominant theoretical paradigm following positivism that guided subsequent educational and psychological research. Basic beliefs associated with postpositivism include: discovery of “reality” within the realm of probability, the importance of objectivity; and, the use of quantitative methods (Mertens, 2005).

Quantitative Research: An approach to research “in which the investigator primarily uses postpositivist claims for developing knowledge (i.e., cause and effect thinking, reduction to specific variables and hypotheses and questions, use of measurement and observation, and the test of the theories), employs strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys, and collects data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data” (Creswell, 2003, p. 18).

SPSS for Windows Version 18: A statistical package designed to perform a wide range of statistical procedures used for research in the social and behavioral sciences and business.

Surveys: a research method of collecting information from people about their knowledge, attitudes, or behaviors (Mertens, 2005). Basic survey designs include cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. Surveys usually take the form of self-administered questionnaires and interviews for data collection, “with the intent of generalizing from a sample to a population” (Babbie, 1990; Creswell, 2003, p. 14).

Survey Research: A particular type of empirical social research. The purposes of survey research are to make descriptive or explanatory assertions about a population and/or to inquire into a particular topic. Description, explanation, and exploration comprise the three general objectives of survey research (Babbie, 1990).

T-tests: An inferential statistical test used to compare differences between two groups. “If the groups are independent (i.e., different people are in each group) the *t*-test for independent samples is used. If two sets of scores are available for the same people (or matched groups), the *t*-test for correlated samples is used” (Mertens, 2005, p. 403).

Value: Commonly defined as “relative worth, utility, or importance” or as “something (as a principle or quality) intrinsically valuable or desirable” (Merriam Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2006). Value also has many different definitions depending on which perspective is taken. 1. Value means “someone receives something of worth from a transaction” (Ulrich & Brockbank, 2005, p. 1). From a human capital perspective, value means “when the strategic benefit of employee skills exceeds the managerial and bureaucratic costs associated with their development and deployment” (Lepak & Snell, 1999, p. 36). From an economist perspective, value means “a measure of the usefulness of something” (Sullivan, 2000, p. 85).

From a strategic perspective, value means, “the ratio of strategic benefits obtainable from human capital relative to the costs incurred” (Lepak & Snell, 1999, p. 44).

Valuation: The process of determining the value of something to someone (Cohen, 2005, p. 3).

For the purposes of this study, value/value was defined as the process of conceptualizing (perceiving) value rather than assessing physical value. To this end, individual perceptions of the value of Leadership Development Programs (LDPs) for Administrators in Higher Education were investigated.

Conceptual Valuation: Conceptual value largely depends on “perception,” what people perceive to be valuable leader and leadership qualities at the individual, organizational and enterprise levels and the competitive advantages these qualities can create at each of these levels.

Value Creation: “The increase in value derived from investments in a portfolio of tangible and intangible assets” (Bolton, Libert, & Samek, 2000, p. 249).

Value Creation Index (VCI): A new measurement approach that links non-financial performance and a valuation of the organization (Shannon, 2003, p. 50).

Value Creation Survey (VCS): An original survey instrument designed specifically for this study of the perceived value of university-based, continuing education, leadership development programs (non-credit, credit, and blended) designed for faculty members and administrators.

Value Driver: Intangibles, such as people, ideas, know-how, relationships, systems, and work processes that are “usually quantifiable drivers of corporate-value creation” (Low & Kalafut, 2002; 6); intangibles that affect the market valuation of a company (Low & Kalafut, p. 66); intangibles that “link the non-financial performance and a valuation of the organization”

(Shannon, 2003, p. 50); “non-financial intangibles that drive successful [institutional] performance and provide a framework for measuring improvements in performance” (p. 59).

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

This study is comprised of five chapters. Chapter I, Introduction, presented an introduction to the study, followed by explanations of the purpose, significance, research questions, methodology, assumptions and limitations of the study, and definitions of relevant terms. Chapter II, Review of Related Literature, will present a comprehensive review of research on leadership, leadership development, intangibles, and valuation/value. Chapter III, Methodology, will provide a description of the quantitative research approach, sample, instrument, and procedures used in the study. Chapter IV, Results of the Study, will present the quantitative analysis of the findings of the study. Chapter V, Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations, will summarize the conclusions drawn from the study; discuss the implications of the findings; present recommendations for future practice; and present recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II:

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The four important literature bases for this study are the literature on leadership, leadership development, intangibles, and value/valuation. These four areas are in a state of evolving which poses a special research challenge. A review of selected research and scholarship in these four areas and the linkages that can be drawn between them provide the foundation for this study.

Definitional Issues:

Leadership, Leadership Development, Intangibles, and Valuation/Value

Leadership

Bass (1990) noted that, “There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept” (p. 11). Furthermore, “The many dimensions into which leadership has been cast and their overlapping meanings have added to the confusion” (p. 11). Nevertheless, Bass also recognized that “there is sufficient similarity among definitions to permit a rough scheme of classification” (p. 11) and, categorized the various conceptions of leadership as group processes; personality and its effects; art of inducing compliance; act or behavior; exercise of influence; form of persuasion; power relation; instrument of goal achievement; effect of interaction; differentiated role; initiation of structure; and, a combination of elements. Based on these twelve conceptualizations, Bass concluded, “The search for the one and only proper and true definition of leadership seems to be fruitless, since the appropriate choice of definition should depend on the methodological and substantive aspects of leadership in which one is interested” (p. 18).

Echoing Bass, Middlehurst (1993) argued that, “The idea of leadership is complex, difficult to capture and open to numerous definitions and interpretations” (p. 7). Some of the issues that make understanding and researching leadership difficult include: the lack of consensus about the essence of leadership; the means by which it can be identified, achieved, and measured; individual conceptualizations of leadership; and, the different disciplinary perspectives that have enriched but also made more complex the task of analyzing leadership. She added that in many ways the concept of leadership, “remains an intangible and elusive notion, no more stable than quick sand” (p. 7).

Yukl (2002) described leadership as a “mysterious process” (p. 1), indicating that “in probing the mysteries surrounding leadership...many questions remain unanswered” (p. 2). Moreover, “The field of leadership is still in a state of ferment, with many continuing controversies about conceptual and methodological issues” (p. xvii). Some of the issues identified by Yukl included confusing terminology, different approaches to the study of leadership, shortage of studies using strong research methods, and inconsistent and inconclusive results. For instance, Yukl (2002) explained that the term leadership “carries extraneous connotations that create ambiguity of meaning” (p. 2), and that “researchers usually define leadership according to their individual perspectives and the aspects of the phenomenon of most interest to them” (p. 2). As a result, the definition of leadership remains arbitrary and subjective while new definitions of leadership continue to emerge, thereby adding to the complexities of leadership.

Avery (2004) noted “the fuzzy, ill-defined field of leadership” (p. ix). The reasons why understanding leadership is so challenging were explained as follows:

There is no agreed definition of leadership...Most ideas about leadership have been intentionally broken down into smaller components...Theories and research into

leadership are far from complete... The ideas underlying concepts of leadership have changed over the course of history. (pp. 4-5)

To help simplify and clarify “the complexity and diversity surrounding leadership,” Avery expressed the need to provide “a useful language and set of concepts for understanding leadership theory and practice” (p. ix). Although considerable progress has been made in learning about leadership, particularly in the past several decades, “the concept of leadership remains elusive and enigmatic, despite years of effort at developing an intellectually and emotionally satisfying understanding” (pp. 3-4). Much still remains to be learned about leadership.

For this study, leadership was conceptualized as an intangible asset that serves as a source of value creation at the individual, organizational, and higher education enterprise levels. This perspective supports the understanding of leadership appearing in both the business and the higher education literature. An assessment of leadership is based on tangibles experienced by others, an intangible base supporting these tangibles. This understanding provides a meaningful perspective about leadership, one relevant to a rapidly changing and competitive environment.

Leadership Development

While much of the leadership literature focuses on the nature, types, qualities, and need for leadership, a certain segment also attends to leadership development. This segment, which also encompasses the area of learning, is continually evolving as well (Middlehurst, 1993; Ramsden, 1998; Vicere & Fulmer, 1998; Conger, 1992; Day, 2000; McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004; Ruben, 2004). Some of the issues associated with leadership development include an emerging new vocabulary to describe the processes for developing leadership talent, various approaches to and evolving paradigms of leadership development, multiple conceptions of leadership effectiveness, and different approaches to the evaluation of

leadership development and outcomes measurement. Despite these advances in leadership development, some issues continue to challenge researchers and practitioners.

Consider the following critiques of leadership development and the terminology used within the area of leadership development. For example, Conger (1992) explained that both corporations and academic institutions seem unsure about how to train leaders, and that “while the field of leadership training has assumed increasing importance...relatively little is known about its effectiveness” (p. xii). Middlehurst (1993) used “leadership learning” to describe the processes of leadership development that include learning, while recognizing that “‘leadership learning’ is an ambiguous notion” (p. 165), that random ways of learning leadership are problematic, and that some purposes of leadership development are “less obvious or more intangible” than others (p. 176). Vicere and Fulmer (1998) noted that some confusion exists in the traditional leadership development process model with regard to the differences between training and education, and that the field of leadership development is in the process of fundamental change. Day (2000) argued that although interest in leadership development is strong, there is “conceptual confusion regarding distinctions between leader and leadership development, as well as disconnection between the practice of leadership development and its scientific foundation” (p. 581). Day and Halpin (2004) further argued that “Despite the voluminous leadership literature, relatively little is known about exactly what gets developed in leader development” (p. 5). These critiques confirm and support Phillips & Schmidt’s (2004) point that leadership development continues to be one of the most challenging issues facing organizations.

Although these assessments of leadership development point to some of the challenges associated with the field, the trend in leadership development is that interest in this area

continues to grow. This is particularly evident in the corporate sector. While interest also is growing in the academic sector, it is incremental, as is typical of most academic organizations.

For the purposes of this research, leadership development was defined as developing and enhancing individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise leadership capacities. Based on the understanding that, “Today’s challenges are often too complex for individual leaders to fully understand alone” (McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004, p. 18), the above definition supports the premise that “organizations must not only develop individuals but also develop the leadership capacities of collectives (for example, work groups, teams, and communities)” (p. 19). One last key idea about this perspective of leadership development is that it is a continuing process of development in various ways. Leadership development includes:

individual leader development...the development of connections between individuals, the development of the capacities of collectives, the development of connections between collectives in an organization, and the development of the culture and systems in which individuals and collectives are embedded. (McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004, p. 22)

This conceptualization of leadership development both captures and supports the integrated and multi-level approach to this research.

Intangibles

The subject of intangibles also is in a state of flux and uncertainty. The very nature of intangibles makes them, “harder to measure, to quantify, to manage—harder even to define—than tangibles” (Blair & Wallman, 2001, p. 2). Like the word “leadership,” the word “intangible” also carries extraneous connotations that create ambiguity of meaning. For example, the terms “intangibles,” “knowledge assets,” and “intellectual capital,” often are used interchangeably. In describing the use of these terms, from “intangibles” in the accounting literature, to “knowledge assets” by economists, and “intellectual capital” in the management and

legal literature, Lev (2001) argued that all these terms, “refer essentially to the same thing: a nonphysical claim to future benefits” (p. 5).

In contrast, Marr (2005) argued that using the terms “intangibles” and “intellectual capital” interchangeably creates a significant problem in that, “definitions are not very clear nor are the boundaries” (p. xiii), due to the various disciplinary perspectives that influence intangibles. For instance, whereas accountants might refer to intangibles as, “non-financial fixed assets that do not have physical substance but are identifiable and controlled by the entity through custody and legal rights” (p. xiii), human resources managers might refer to intellectual capital as, “the skills, knowledge, and attitudes of employees” (p. xiv). Whereas marketing managers might advance that, “intellectual capital, such as brand recognition and customer satisfaction, is at the heart of business success” (p. xiv), IT managers might think of intangibles as, “being software applications and network capabilities” (p. xiv). These and other approaches to intangibles present additional challenges to better understanding the multidisciplinary nature of intangibles and enhancing the cross-fertilization of ideas and concepts across disciplines.

Other problems that relate to intangibles include how to identify, measure, report, and manage intangibles. For example, intangibles are viewed by many economists, business professionals, and policy analysts as important factors that drive business success and economic growth in modern, developed economies. However, despite their importance, intangibles continue to be, “poorly measured, if at all, and their implications for public policy are not understood” (Lev, 2001, p. v). Such uncertainty about intangibles has prompted researchers to examine the economics of intangibles, the empirical record of intangibles, and the problems from lack of information regarding intangibles, as well as prescriptions to improve information on intangibles (Lev, p. v).

Also problematic with regard to valuing and measuring intangibles is that, “There is no common language for talking about intangible sources of value, and what language there is tends to be ad hoc and descriptive rather than quantitative and concrete, making comparisons from one institution to the next impossible” (Blair & Wallman, 2001, p. 2). Although the difficulties of defining, identifying, measuring, reporting, and managing intangibles are widely recognized, other researchers have argued that intangibles can be defined and measured, some more precisely than others (Lev, 2001; Low & Kalafut, 2002; Cohen, 2005; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004). For example, Phillips and Schmidt explained that the results of leadership development programs in business organizations can be evaluated in terms of both tangible as well as intangible benefits, and that in practice, every project or program will have intangible measures associated with it. Furthermore, in some programs, such as leadership development programs, intangible measures, defined as, “measures that are purposely not converted to monetary values” (p. 207), can be more important than tangible measures.

Although there is much uncertainty regarding intangibles, increased interest in intangibles has led to the subject occupying, “an ever larger niche in the mushrooming management literature, both popular and academic” (Lev, 2001, p. 1). Much of this literature emphasizes the benefits of intangibles that contribute to corporate value, growth, and competitiveness. Even though the literature and commentary on intangibles has reached a certain level of maturity in the business arena, there is still much to learn about intangibles. This is especially true of the concept of intangibles within a higher education context.

For the purposes of this research, intangibles were defined as the leadership skills, competencies, and abilities that add value at multiple levels. The leadership skills,

competencies, and abilities identified in this study were based on summaries drawn from both the academic and business literatures. These summaries appear in Appendices A through M.

Valuation/Value

Closely linked to intangibles is a fourth area, valuation/value, which is the process of determining the value of something. This process has been described as a “mysterious black box” (Cohen, 2005, p. 2), and suggests a state of some uncertainty. While both academic work and popular books in economics, accounting, and finance have focused on the financial valuation of a firm’s tangible assets, such as computers, facilities, and products, and even some well known intangible assets, such as patents, copyrights, trademarks, and other forms of intellectual property, still other kinds of intangible assets, such as, intellectual capital, human capital, and organizational capital, are harder to classify and value. This distinction between types of intangibles has led to differences in how intangibles are valued, whether on a financial or non-financial basis. While current accounting rules are changing for those intangibles that can be assessed on a financial basis, much more needs to be done for those intangibles that cannot or should not be assessed on a financial basis. These issues clearly point to the difficulty in the valuation of most intangibles.

For the purposes of this research, valuation was defined as the process of conceptualizing value rather than assessing physical value. Specifically, conceptual value largely depends on “perception,” what people perceive to be valuable leadership qualities at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels. The competitive advantages these qualities can create were explored at each of these levels.

The following overviews of some of the definitional issues, major research approaches, theories, and perspectives on leadership, leadership development, intangibles, and valuation draw

heavily from various disciplines and fields and their respective literatures, which demonstrate the multidisciplinary nature of these concepts. Some of these concepts, particularly intangibles and valuation, are developed more fully in other disciplines and fields than in higher education. However, the multidisciplinary nature of these concepts suggests that they are applicable within the field of higher education.

Leadership

“Leadership is one of the world’s oldest preoccupations” (Bass, 1990, p. 3). “The study of leadership rivals in age the emergence of civilization, which shaped its leaders as much as it was shaped by them” (p. 30). “Leadership is a universal phenomenon in humans and in many species of animals” (p. 4). “Leadership is one of the most observed phenomena on earth” (Burns, 1978, p. 2). These statements about leadership illustrate the enduring interest in this subject, which spans centuries, civilizations, and cultures. These general observations serve as background to questions about what constitutes leadership. The following review of various research approaches to leadership theories, taxonomies of leadership paradigms, and perspectives of leadership address this question.

Conceptual and Definitional Issues

Historical Conceptions of Leadership

Writing from a historical perspective, Bass (1990) explained that although the word “leadership” is a modern term and complex concept, other words, such as “head of state,” “military commander,” “chief,” or “king,” were commonly used in earlier times and in most societies. According to the *Oxford English Dictionary* (1933), the word “leader” appeared in the English language around 1300, while the word “leadership” did not appear until about the mid-nineteenth century in British writings. More recently, the word now appears in most modern

languages. Also notable, scientific research on the topic did not begin until the 20th century (Van Peters & Field, 2000).

Theoretical Conceptions of Leadership

From the standpoint of leadership theory and research, various definitions have been developed. Although definitions abound, the following, selected examples illustrate the diversity of definitions. For example, Bass (1990) broadly defined leadership in organizations as an “interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members” (p. 19); and, leadership as, “the directing of attention of other members to goals and the paths to achieve them” (p. 20).

Rost (1991), in his review of the scholarly definitions of leadership from 1900 to the 1980s, captured the overall meanings of leadership that evolved over the decades. For instance, the definitions of leadership during the first three decades of the twentieth century emphasized control and centralization of power, whereas definitions in the 1930s emphasized influence rather than control and authority. Definitions during the 1940s and 1950s stressed a group approach to leadership centered on “the influence process oriented toward achieving shared purposes” (p. 53), while definitions of the 1960s demonstrated growing support for the idea of leadership as “behavior that influences people toward shared goals” (p. 55). Definitions of the 1970s, which indicated an important shift from the group approach to an organizational behavior approach, generally viewed leadership as “initiating and maintaining groups or organizations to accomplish group or organizational goals” (p. 59), whereas definitions during the 1980s saw a wealth of new ideas emerge, such as transformational and ethical leadership, and leadership and change. One of the new definitions of leadership presented by Rost described leadership as,

“Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes” (p. 102).

McCauley and Van Velsor (2004), in their extensive research in the area of leadership development, also broadly defined leadership as “the collective activity of organizational members to accomplish the tasks of setting direction, creating alignment, and gaining commitment.” (p. 419). This definition stresses the importance of enabling individuals to work together effectively as a collective to accomplish these tasks. Another definition by Antonakis, Cianciolo, and Sternberg (2004) indicated that most leadership scholars probably would agree, in principle, that,

leadership can be defined as the nature of the influencing process—and its resultant outcomes—that occurs between a leader and followers and how this influencing process is explained by the leader’s dispositional characteristics and behaviors, follower perceptions and attributions of the leader, and the context in which the influencing process occurs. (p. 5)

Kouzes and Posner (1987) in their work on leadership and organizations, defined leadership as “a relationship between leader and followers” (p. 1), “a set of learnable competencies” (p. 277), and, “a complex set of behaviors and traits” (p. 294). Harris (1993), in his work on applied organizational communication and leadership, defined leadership in terms of three overriding characteristics, which included “a sense of direction, the ability to influence, and effective situational adaptation” (p. 389). Vicere and Fulmer (1998) presented a new perspective in their idea of strategic leadership, which included characteristics such as, “a sense of vision and direction, and the ability to communicate, develop internal and external alliances, and promote organizational transformation. Low and Kalafut (2002), in their research on corporate valuation, strategy, and consumer behavior, also presented a new perspective in their idea of leadership as an intangible asset that serves as a source of value-creation and competitive advantage in today’s

rapidly changing environment. The competencies Low and Kalafut associated with the intangible of leadership included creating a vision, developing a management team, setting a cultural tone, and planning for succession (pp. 68-70).

Within the specific context of higher education, Ramsden (1998) stressed an inclusive definition of academic leadership by referring to the “practical and everyday *process* of supporting, managing, developing, and inspiring academic colleagues” (p. 4). Ramsden further argued that leadership in colleges and universities can and should be exercised by everyone, and that it applies to everyone from vice chancellors to support staff (p. 4). Also within the context of higher education, Birnbaum (2001) defined leadership as “the work that administrators and faculty members do when they set objectives, establish policies, organize, motivate, communicate, assess performance, and develop people” (p. xiv). Birnbaum also linked good management with good leadership in stating that, “in higher education, good leaders often possess good management skills, and good managers are often considered also to be good leaders” (p. xiv).

The aforementioned definitions of leadership contribute unique understandings about what leadership is, which supports Bass’s (1990) conclusion that “the definition of leadership should depend on the purposes to be served by the definition” (p. 20). For the purpose of this study, leadership is defined as an intangible asset that serves as a source of value creation and future benefits at multiple levels, including the individual, organizational, and system levels in higher education. This study examined the intangibles that comprise leadership based on perceptions and beliefs about LDPs developing leadership skills, abilities, and competencies as they relate to four areas: success of LDPs in helping develop leadership competencies; priority given to LDPs; competitive advantage provided by LDPs; and, sufficiency of LDPs in meeting

existing leadership development needs. Also addressed is the assessment about current program offerings.

Research Approaches to Leadership Theory

In this review of the social scientific study of leadership and prevailing theories of leadership, House and Aditya (1997) evidenced that, “the development of knowledge concerning leadership phenomena has been truly cumulative and that much is currently known about leadership” (p. 409). Although many questions still remain, the accumulation of knowledge about leadership is expected to continue. To better understand the vast literature on leadership, various taxonomies and overviews of leadership paradigms and theories have been developed. For the purposes of this study, selected theories were emphasized, those being behavioral, excellence, perceptual and cognitive, and integrative theories. Also, the objectivist and subjectivist perspectives of leadership were explored.

Taxonomies of Leadership Paradigms and Theories

According to House and Aditya (1997), “the systematic social scientific study of leadership did not begin until the early 1930s” (p. 409). With the development of leadership theory and rise in empirical research over the past eighty years, attempts to organize the scholarly literature on leadership have varied. Different authors have subdivided the field of leadership theory in various ways. For example, authors have developed classification systems utilizing historical, developmental, thematic, trend, paradigm, integrative, or other organizing strategies. Some authors have identified up to four categories of leadership theories, while others have identified as many as nine categories. In addition, while all of the classification systems compare in terms of acknowledging the more traditional categories of leadership theories, such as trait, behavioral, and situational/contingency theories, as well as some of the more modern

categories of leadership, such as transformational leadership, some of these classification systems also differ in terms of recognizing other categories of leadership theories and perspectives, such as, group theory, excellence theory, constitutive/constructivist theory, and multiple intelligences theory among others. The eight classification systems developed by the following authors, Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989), Van Seters and Field (2000), Bass (1990), Rost (1991), Bryman (1992), Yukl (2002), Avery (2004), and Storey (2004) reveal some of the similarities and differences in organizing the research approaches to leadership theory.

Historical Overview of Twentieth-Century Thought

In Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum's (1989) report on administrative leadership in higher education, the authors utilized historical and thematic strategies to arrange various approaches to leadership theory. Six major categories of theories reflecting various time periods were identified, including trait, behavioral, power and influence, contingency, cultural and symbolic, and cognitive theories. According to these authors, the latter two categories represented a "paradigmatic shift" (p. 5) from a rational perspective toward a cultural and symbolic perspective in the understanding of leadership in academic organizations. As further explained, "The boundaries of these categories are fluid, and they are neither mutually exclusive nor consistent" (p. 7).

Middlehurst (1993) advanced Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum's (1989) classification system, further indicating that these approaches to leadership "represent a historical view of twentieth-century thinking and research about leadership" (p.12). Like Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, Middlehurst also argued the relevance of this classification system and related

leadership theories to higher education. Table 1 provides an historical and thematic overview of the major approaches in leadership research from the 1920s to the 1990s (see Table 1).

Table 1

Historical Overview of Twentieth-Century Thought

Period	Theories/approaches	Theme
Up to late 1940s	Trait Theories	Leadership is linked to personal qualities.
Late 1940s to late 1960s	Behavioral theories	Leadership is associated with behavior and style.
Late 1960s to present	Contingency theories	Leadership is affected by the context and situation.
Late 1960s to present	Power and influence theories	Leadership is associated with use of power.
1970s to present	Cultural and symbolic theories	Leadership is the “management of meaning”.
1980s to 1990s	Cognitive theories	Leadership is a social attribution.

[Middlehurst (1993, p. 13); summarized from Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989]

Although the major scholarly work on leadership has occurred primarily in the fields of psychology and organizational behavior, which has been viewed by some scholars, such as Rost (1991) as problematic in their singular academic disciplinary and professional practice approaches, other scholars, such as Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989), and Middlehurst (1993), have argued the applicability of this literature as it relates to higher education. This trend in higher education literature demonstrates an evolution in thinking about leadership, openness to exploring other perspectives, and consideration of more multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary research approaches to understanding and practicing leadership. Such

approaches, as advocated by Rost, “allow scholars and practitioners to think radically new thoughts about leadership that are not possible from a unidisciplinary approach” (Rost, p. 2).

Evolutionary Stages of Leadership Theory

Van Seters and Field (2000) provided an evolutionary and thematic review of the foundations of leadership theory, indicating the progress that has been made since scientific research on leadership began in the 20th century. While traditional evolutionary approaches show each era of development occurring in a chronological sequence, Van Seters and Field’s model of leadership theory evolution afforded a somewhat different perspective. Their rationale for using the taxonomy and nomenclature of evolution to classify the major leadership research approaches was that “the historical lines of thought on leadership have occurred within a relatively short time-period, and many of them have arisen and subsided simultaneously” (p. 30). Rather than recognizing the dates when the eras occurred, the authors acknowledged their relative order in the development of leadership theory. In their model, each new era represents a higher state of development in leadership thought process than the preceding era. Unique to Van Seters’ and Field’s taxonomy are several era classifications, including the Anti-Leadership, Culture, and Transformational Eras which are based on some of the newer theories of leadership. Table 2 presents the major leadership eras and periods along with examples of particular theories.

Table 2

The Evolutionary Stages of Leadership Theory

<p>Personality Era</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Great Man Period <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Great Man Theory (Bowden, 1927; Carlyle, 1841; Galton, 1869) Trait Period <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trait Theory (Bingham, 1927)
<p>Influence Era</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Power Relations Period <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Five Bases of Power Approach (French, 1956; French and Raven, 1959) Persuasion Period <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Leader Dominance Approach (Schenk, 1928)
<p>Behavior Era</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Early Behavior Period <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reinforced Change Theory (Bass, 1960) Ohio State Studies (Fleisman, Harris and Burt, 1955) Michigan State Studies (Likert, 1961) Late Behavior Period <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Managerial Grid Model (Blake and Mouton, 1964) Four-Factor Theory (Bower and Seashore, 1966) Action Theory of Leadership (Argyris, 1976) Theory X and Y (McGregor, 1960; McGregor, 1966) Operant Period (Sims, 1977; Ashour and Johns, 1983)
<p>Situation Era</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Environment Period <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Environment Approach (Hook, 1943) Open-Systems Model (Katz and Kahn, 1978) Social Status Period <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Role Attainment Theory (Stogdill, 1959) Leader Role Theory (Homans, 1959) Socio-technical Period <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Socio-technical systems (Trist and Bamforth, 1951)
<p>Contingency Era</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Contingency Theory (Fielder, 1964) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Path-Goal Theory (Evans, 1970; House, 1971) Situational Theory (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969; 1977) Multiple Linkage Model (Yukl, 1971; 1989) Normative Theory (Vroom and Yetton, 1973; Vroom and Jago, 1988)

Table 2 (continued)
<p>Transactional Era</p> <p>Exchange Period</p> <p>Vertical Dyad Linkage/ Leader Member Exchange Theory (Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975) Reciprocal Influence Approach (Greene, 1975) Emergent Leadership (Hollander, 1958)</p> <p>Role Development Period</p> <p>Social Exchange Theory (Hollander, 1979; Jacobs, 1970) Role-Making Model (Graen and Cashman, 1975)</p>
<p>Anti-Leadership Era</p> <p>Ambiguity Period</p> <p>Attribution Approach (Pfeffer, 1977)</p> <p>Substitute Period</p> <p>Leadership Substitute Theory (Kerr and Jermier, 1978)</p>
<p>Culture Era</p> <p>McKinsey 7-S Framework (Pascale and Athos, 1981) Theory Z (Ouchi and Jaeger, 1978) In Search of Excellence Approach (Peters and Waterman, 1962) Schein (1985) Self-Leadership (Manz and Sims, 1987)</p>
<p>Transformational Era</p> <p>Charisma Period</p> <p>Charismatic Theory (House, 1977) Transforming Leadership Theory (Burns, 1978)</p> <p>Self-fulfilling Prophecy Period</p> <p>SFP Leader Theory (Field, 1989; Eden, 1984) Performance beyond Expectations Approach (Bass, 1985)</p>

[Van Seters and Field (2000), pp. 31-32]

Theories and Models of Leadership

A third classification system of research approaches to leadership was created by Bass (1990), who employed a thematic strategy for organizing some of the better-known theories and models of leadership. Bass’s framework included the following categories: personal and situational theories; interaction and social learning theories, theories and models of interactive processes, perceptual and cognitive theories, and hybrid explanations. Hybrid explanations,

which were introduced as a new category of research approaches, are based on the combination of leadership theories. For example, Bass suggested that leader-follower relations and outcomes were likely to be explained more fully in terms of cognitive, behavioral, and interactional theories. With respect to transformational leadership, Bass and other scholars suggested that “transformational leadership can be conceptually organized along four correlated dimensions: charismatic leadership, inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration” (Bass, 1990, p. 54). Bass’s framework is indicated in Table 3.

Table 3

Theories and Models of Leadership

Category	Theories/models	Theme(s)
Personal and situational theories	Great-man theories Trait theories Situational theories Personal-situational theories Psychoanalytic theories Political theories Humanistic theories	Leadership linked to personal qualities (heredity, traits) and the interaction between persons and situations (the contingencies of leader and situation)
Interaction and social learning theories	Leader-role theory Theories of the attainment of the leadership role Reinforced-change theory Path-goal theory Contingency theory	Leadership associated with behavior and style.
Theories and models of interactive processes	Multiple-linkage model Multiple-screen model Vertical-dyad linkage Exchange theories Behavioral theories Communication theories	Leadership based on exchange relationships and on a behavioral basis.
Perceptual and cognitive theories	Attribution theories Information processing Open-systems analysis Rational-deductive approach	Leadership based on perceptual or cognitive bases.
Hybrid explanations	Transformational leadership	Leadership based on a combination of leadership approaches, as in transformational leadership.

[Summarized from Bass (1990), pp. 37-55.]

Leadership Theory Movements

In a fourth classification system of research approaches to leadership, Rost (1991) utilized historical and thematic strategies for organizing leadership theory according to periods or

movements. Rost identified six main approaches to studying leadership, which included: great man, group, trait, behavior, contingency and situational, and excellence theories. Parenthetically, Rost noted that excellence theory is not as universally recognized as other theories. The label “excellence theory,” that was created by Rost, associates leadership with effectiveness, a theme that emerged in the 1980s as an alternative perspective of leadership.

Rost’s (1991) taxonomy of leadership theory also indicated that except for early leadership theory, all of the approaches to leadership up to the 1990s were developed by management theorists and social psychologists. Rost argued that these approaches represented the “old school” or “industrial paradigm” of leadership that “conceptualizes leadership as good management” (p. 10). Rost further argued the need for a paradigm shift from the old school and industrial paradigm of leadership to a new school and post-industrial paradigm of leadership. In this new post-industrial paradigm and model, leadership is defined as “an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes” (p. 102). Emphasized in this definition are four of the newer and essential elements of leadership which include: relationships based on influence, leader/follower relationships, leader/follower intentions of change, and leader/follower mutual purposes. Rost’s (1991) summary of leadership theory movements appears in Table 4.

Table 4

Leadership Theory Movements

Period	Theories/Models	Theme	Developers
1900-1930s	Great Man/Great Woman Theory	Only a few great men (and great women) could be leaders	Early theorists
1930s-1940s	Group Theory	Leadership as group facilitation; democratic leadership	Social psychologists
1940s-1950s	Trait Theory	The use of traits as an explanation of leadership	Management theorists and social psychologists
1950s-1960s	Behavior Theory	Leadership as a behavior act; specific leader behaviors that produce effective leadership	Management theorists and social psychologists
1960s-1970s	Contingency/Situational Theory	Leadership conceptualized as what leader behaviors are best in certain situations	Management scientists and social psychologists
1980s	Excellence Theory	A holistic, integrated framework for all leadership theories; being number one; leadership as doing the right thing to achieve excellence	Management scholars in business and educational administration

[Summarized from Rost (1991), pp. 17-23]

Trends in Leadership Theory and Research

A fifth classification system of research approaches to leadership was developed by Bryman (1992), who employed historical, trend, and thematic strategies in his analysis.

Bryman’s (1992) summary of leadership theories and research identified four main approaches to leadership: trait, style, contingency, and “New Leadership.” Like Rost, who created the label for excellence theory, Bryman coined the term “New Leadership” to reflect the convergence of a number of recent themes on leadership. Approaches within the “New Leadership” tradition include charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, visionary leadership, and other approaches. The respective periods and core themes for each of the four main leadership theories according to Bryman are outlined in Table 5.

Table 5

Trends in Leadership Theory and Research

Period	Approach	Core Theme
Up to late 1940s	Trait approach	Leadership ability is innate.
Late 1940s to late 1960s	Style approach	Leadership effectiveness has to do with how the leader behaves.
Late 1960s to early 1980s	Contingency approach	It all depends; effective leadership is affected by the situation
Since early 1980s	New Leadership approaches (includes charismatic and transformational leadership)	Leaders need vision.

[Summarized from Bryman (1992), p. 1]

Major Research Approaches

Yukl’s (2002) overview of major research approaches to leadership provides a sixth classification system based on five approaches: trait, behavior, power-influence, contingency/situational, and integrative. Yukl’s classification compares with the other classifications in that they all include trait, behavioral, and contingency/situational theories.

Another similarity is Yukl's integrative approach, which compares with Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum's (1989) cultural and symbolic and cognitive theories, Bass's (1990) hybrid explanations, Rost's (1991) excellence theory, Bryman's (2002) New Leadership approaches, and Avery's leadership paradigms, which follow, insofar as the integrative approach emphasizes a newer approach in leadership theory.

Linking Theories and Approaches To Leadership Paradigms

Avery (2004) organized leadership theory and research according to two frameworks. One framework organizes ideas of leadership around four paradigms: Classical, Transactional, Visionary and Organic. A second framework links a range of leadership theories, concepts and approaches that function at four organizational levels: the individual, dyadic or group, organizational, and external or strategic levels. These levels of conceptualization for leadership equate with those identified by Yukl (2002) in his examination of the nature of leadership. Also like Yukl, Avery's approach contrasts with traditional theoretical frameworks by including and integrating the different perspectives. By integrating many of the facets of leadership in the leadership paradigms, the complexity of leadership is clarified. Avery's paradigms and their linkages to theories appear in Table 6.

Table 6

Linking Theories and Approaches to Leadership Paradigms

Classical	Transactional	Visionary	Organic
Behavior Great Men Traits LMX	Behavior Great Men Traits LMX	Behavior Great Men Traits LMX	
Socio-cognitive Fiedler's model	Socio-cognitive Fiedler's model Situational leadership	Socio-cognitive	Socio-cognitive
	Houses' Path-goal	House's Path-goal Emotional Intelligence Emotion Charisma Culture Knowledge management	Emotional Intelligence Emotion Culture Knowledge management
Learning (structural)	Learning (structural)	Learning (strategic) Mentoring Self-management Servant leader (steward) Spirituality Stakeholder focus Strategic planning	Learning (strategic) Mentoring Self-leadership Servant leader (steward) Spirituality Stakeholder focus Strategic planning
	Substitutes for leaders	Substitutes for leaders Teaching organization Values Vision	Substitutes for leaders Teaching organization Values Vision Systemic leadership

[Summarized from Avery (2004), p. 146]

Summary of Main Theories of Leadership

Storey's (2004) overview of the way theories of leadership have been conventionally approached and understood presents a seventh classification system of theoretical and research approaches to leadership. Storey categorized eight stages in the history of leadership theory, beginning with trait theory, continuing with the chronological progression of subsequent theories, and culminating with post-charismatic and post-transformational leadership theory. The categories of leadership theories that compare with other classification systems include traits, behaviors, contingency/situation, and "New Leadership" theories, while those that differed include exchange and path-goal models, constitutive and constructivist, leadership within learning organizations, and post-charismatic and post-transformational leadership theories. This expanded and more current list of leadership theories calls attention to one of the critical issues in leadership: "the extent of stability in the conventionally dominant models" (p. 8). Storey argued that "the interpretation of what constitutes leadership and the associated critical issues in leadership have changed over time" (p. 8). Storey's summary appears in Table 7.

Table 7

Summary of the Main Theories of Leadership

Theory	Text
Trait theory; innate qualities; ‘great man theories’	Bernard (1926)
Behavioral theories: task related and relationship related; style theory (e.g. autocratic vs. democratic)	Ohio State University studies; University of Michigan (Katz and Kahn, 1978; Likert, 1961; Blake and Moulton (1964: 383)
Situational and contingency theory; repertoire of styles; expectancy theory	Fiedler (19677); Vroom and Yetton (1973); Vroom (1964) Yukl (2002); Hersey and Blanchard (1984)
Exchange and path-goal models (relationship between leader and led as a series of trades)	Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995); House (1971), 1996
‘New Leadership’; charismatic and visionary leadership; transformational leadership	Burns (1978); Bryman (1992), Conger and Kanungo (1998); Bass (1985a, 1985b); Tichy and Devanna (1996); Kouzes and Posner (1997)
Constitutive, constructivist theory	Grint (1997; 2000)
Leadership within Learning Organizations: leadership as a creative and collective process; distributed leadership	Senge (1990a, 1990b); Semlet (1989); Brown and Gioia (2002); Tichy (1997)
Post-charismatic and post-transformational leadership theory	Khurana (2002a, 2002b); Maccoby (2000); Fullan (2001a, 2001b)

[Summarized from Storey (2004), p. 14]

The eight classification systems developed by Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989), Van Seters and Field (2000), Bass (1990), Rost (1991), Bryman (1992), Yukl (2002), Avery (2004), and Storey (2004) are exciting in that each affords some of the newer developments in leadership research and scholarship. Some of these newer theoretical approaches are particularly relevant to this study of leadership, leadership development,

intangibles, and valuation in higher education. The following discussion provides a more in-depth examination of the major leadership theories, perspectives, and paradigms identified and categorized by Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989), Van Seters and Field (2000), Bass (1990), Rost (1991), Bryman (1992), Yukl (2003), Avery (2004), and Storey (2004).

Leadership Theories and Perspectives

Trait Theories

Trait theories, which form the earliest set of leadership theories and research that dominated the literature between 1930 and 1950, explain leadership in terms of personal characteristics and psychological traits and motives. These theories, which link traits to leadership, were built upon previous “great man” theories of leadership. Trait theories emphasize that leaders are regarded as persons endowed with essential qualities and traits that contribute to their effectiveness and that differentiate them from followers. Unfortunately, because most early trait research was largely atheoretical, lacking in valid measurement instruments and deficient in explaining the relationship between traits and successful leadership, interest in trait theory waned. However, in the early 1970s interest in trait theory and research re-emerged in more sophisticated forms as a result of theoretical clarifications and the development of test-measurement theory (House & Aditya, 1997, pp. 409-411).

Within trait theory, several taxonomies have been developed (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Middlehurst, 1993). Both taxonomies and explanations of trait theory are similar in terms of types of traits, current use of trait theory within the academic context, and critiques of trait theory. Middlehurst’s discussion of trait theory was drawn from the work of Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, who developed the initial framework on trait theory, which included four broad types of traits that have been investigated. These traits included 1) physical

characteristics, such as height, appearance, age, and energy level; 2) personality characteristics, such as self-esteem, dominance, emotional stability, initiative, and persistence; 3) social background, such as education and socioeconomic status; and 4) ability, such as general intelligence, verbal fluency, knowledge, originality, social insight, and cognitive complexity (p. 8).

Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989) also presented a number of insights about trait theory. One understanding was that at times certain traits are assumed to be innate while at other times these traits are viewed as developmental. Another understanding was that although some traits and skills seem to be characteristic of successful leaders, they do not guarantee leadership effectiveness. A third understanding was that although interest in trait theory subsided for a period of time, “[it] continues to be influential in images of effective leadership in higher education” (p. 35). For instance, successful academic leaders have been described as possessing certain qualities including: personal attributes, such as courage, humor, judgment, integrity, intelligence, persistence, hard work and vision; interpersonal abilities, such as being open, building teams, empathy, and being compassionate; and, technical management skills, such as achieving goals, problem-solving, evaluation, conflict resolution, and shaping the work environment (p. 36).

Noting some of the problems with trait theory, Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989) explained the difficulty in establishing which traits are most important, questionable cause-and effect relationships between traits and leadership effectiveness, and difficulty in measurement. Also problematic has been the one dimensional nature of most trait research which deals with traits in static terms rather than in dynamic terms that take into account other possible influences, such as situational factors on leadership effectiveness (pp. 9, 36-37). Even

though these and other critiques of trait theory have been indicated, interest in trait theory and research in the academic context has continued, particularly as advancements in trait theory and research in other fields have emerged.

According to House and Aditya (1997), the renewed interest in leadership traits, which began in the early 1970s, came as the result of two key occurrences: substantial advancement in theory due to clarification of several theoretical issues and a focus on several new empirically supported traits (p. 411). For example, some of the more sophisticated forms of trait theories and research that emerged were studies of leaders' mental predispositions or preferences (Hunt, 1992, cited in Middlehurst, 1993). Other recent trait theoretical perspectives highlighted by House and Aditya included achievement motivation theory (McClelland, 1961), leader motive profile theory (McClelland, 1975), charismatic leadership theory (House, 1977), and leader flexibility and social sensitivity (Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983). These theories comprise some of the new trait approaches in studies of leadership.

House and Aditya's (1997) summary of findings from trait theory and research to date highlighted several key points. First, "there appear to be a number of traits that consistently differentiate leaders from others" (p. 417). These traits included physical energy, intelligence greater than the average intelligence of followers, adjustment, self-confidence, achievement motivation, and flexibility among others. Second, "the effects of traits on leader behavior and leader effectiveness are enhanced to a great extent by the relevance of the traits to the situation in which the leader functions" (p. 418). Third, "Traits have a stronger influence on leader behaviors when the situational characteristics permit the expression of individual dispositions" (p. 418). Fourth, "Contemporary research on intelligence offers renewed potential for leadership trait research" (p. 418). For example, the idea of multiple intelligences has implications for both

leadership and managerial roles. These and other emerging theories of intelligence and related research “will be instrumental in generating new areas for trait research in general, as well as for specific theories...” (p. 418).

Behavioral Theories

Behavioral theories changed the focus of leadership research beginning in the late 1940s. These theories relate to what leaders actually do and how they do it, rather than to their individual characteristics. Thus, leadership is associated with behavior and style. This focus on behavior also turned attention to leadership development, thereby challenging the notion that “leaders are born not made” (Middlehurst, 1993, p. 13).

Early behavioral studies emphasized leadership actions and styles, while later studies analyzed leadership behavior in terms of task and relationship orientations, known as the Ohio State Leadership Studies, and formal and informal leadership, known as the Michigan Leadership Studies. Although there is considerable overlap between the Ohio and Michigan Studies, four behavioral dimensions of leadership emerged. These dimensions, which included supportive behavior, interactive-facilitative, goal-oriented, and work-facilitative behaviors, are still regarded as important to the understanding of leadership (Middlehurst, 1993).

Further studies dealing with leadership behaviors have expanded the behavioral theory research tradition. Some of these studies have increased the number of behavior categories while others have adopted a micro-skills approach to the study and training of leadership behaviors (Middlehurst, 1993, p. 20).

Contingency/Situational Theories

Contingency and situational theories, which assumed prominence in the late 1960s, emphasize the importance of context and situational factors and their influence on leadership.

These theories highlight the complexity of leadership. Although behavioral and contingency/situational theories are similar in their orientation toward effective behavior as dependent upon the nature of the situation, they differ in that behavioral theories tend to focus on internal variables (personal qualities of the leader), whereas contingency/situational theories emphasize external variables (situational factors and unfolding events) (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Middlehurst, 1993).

The most notable contingency models and theories include: Fiedler's (1978) contingency model, which proposed that leaders are either more task or relationship oriented depending on situational factors; Fiedler and Garcia's (1987) cognitive resource theory, which suggests that more intelligent and competent leaders make better plans and decisions, and are more effective depending upon the situation; and, House's (1971) path-goal theory, which suggests that the leader's task is to choose the appropriate leadership style to fit the context and the characteristics of the subordinates. House's theory has influenced various models of leadership development, as, for example, Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) situational leadership model that has been widely used by trainers and human resource managers in both academic and nonacademic organizational contexts (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Middlehurst, 1993).

Still other important contingency models include Vroom and Yetton's (1973) decision-making model, which contends that leadership effectiveness is related to the degree to which leaders permit subordinates to participate in making decisions. A second contingency model is Yukl's (1971, 1981, 1989) multiple-linkage model, which advances that a leader's effectiveness is based on the ability to correct or change situational variables that might interfere with a group's performance. A third contingency model is Kerr and Jermier's (1978) theory of substitutes and neutralizers for hierarchical leadership, which suggests there are elements within

certain situations which render a leader's behavior redundant or unnecessary (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Middlehurst, 1993).

Overall, trait, behavioral, and contingency/situational theories have yielded important insights into the concept of leadership. As summarized by Middlehurst (1993),

The balance between task and relationship orientations, the need to give attention to participation levels in decision-making, the nature and strength of the variables that impact on leadership, and the connections and trade-offs between individual and group needs remain important issues in the idea and practice of leadership. (p. 26)

More recent approaches to leadership include power and influence, cultural and symbolic, cognitive, hybrid explanations, New Leadership, excellence, and integrative perspectives. Power and influence, cultural and symbolic, and cognitive approaches, as categorized by Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989), developed respectively in the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s. These approaches have been said to come under the heading of "New Leadership" (a term coined by Bryman, 1992) because of their focus on some of the more elusive features of leadership (Middlehurst, 1993). Hybrid explanations, according to Bass (1990), are distinct in their combination of various leadership theories to more fully account for leadership in certain situations. The excellence theory of leadership, as advanced by Rost (1991), provides another new perspective in its effectiveness orientation to leadership (p. 116). Integrative approaches, as categorized by Yukl (2002), like Bass's hybrid explanations, include multiple leadership variables in the same study.

Power and Influence Theories

Power and influence theories are of two types. The first type focuses on the power or influence of the leader over followers (social power theory and transformational leadership theory). The second type focuses on the mutual influence and reciprocal relationships between leaders and followers (social exchange theory and transactional leadership theory). Research

under the power and influence approach explains leadership in terms of the amount, type, and use of power and influence strategies.

From the perspective of social power theory, effective leaders are those who use their power to influence the activities of others. Leadership is essentially understood as a leader-centered process in which leaders exercise their power and influence over followers. Different types of power and influence have been identified by various researchers, including formal and informal power (Etzioni, 1964), and legitimate, reward, coercive, expert, and referent power (French & Raven, 1968). The most likely sources of power for academic leaders are expert and referent power rather than legitimate, coercive, or reward powers (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989).

From the perspective of social exchange theory, effective leaders are those who provide needed services, rewards, or other benefits to a group in exchange for the group's approval and willingness to accept the leader's directives. Leadership is understood as a dynamic, two-way process, one in which the influence between leaders and followers is reciprocal. The reciprocal empowerment of followers by leaders and the empowerment of leaders by followers is another model of social exchange theory (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Middlehurst, 1993).

More recently, an important distinction has been made with respect to the issue of fulfilling or changing follower expectations: the distinction between transactional leadership (a social exchange theory) and transformative leadership (a social power theory). Burns (1978), who coined the term "transactional leadership," viewed transactional leadership as a separate dimension from transformational leadership. Since then, Bass (1985) has argued that these two forms of leadership are part of a continuum, and that leaders may use either or both approaches at different times. Bass further linked transformational leadership to changes in individuals in

terms of increased confidence and higher levels of performance, and to changes in organizations brought about by transformational leaders. The elements of transformational leadership as outlined by Bass include: charisma, inspiration, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Middlehurst, 1993).

Kouzes and Posner (1987) also researched the connection between transformational leadership and exceptional performance of individuals and organizations. Their research yielded a set of exemplary leadership practices that include challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. The results of their research indicate that leadership is a set of learnable competencies, and that exceptional leaders are learners (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Middlehurst, 1993).

Still other writers, such as Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989), have argued that transactional leadership, rather than transformational leadership, may be more appropriate most of the time in colleges and universities. This may be due to the ethos, values, and organizational features of academic organizations, which limit the possibility of transformational leadership. However, as argued by Middlehurst (1993), both transactional and transformational approaches to leadership are important in universities, not only in response to external pressures, but also in order to challenge internal beliefs, patterns of organization, and operational practices.

The idea of transformational leadership, which led to a proliferation of leadership studies in the 1980s and 1990s, continues to appear in both scholarly and popular works, which address the more elusive aspects of leadership. Some of these aspects include leaders developing followers, visioning the future, creating new organizational cultures, and leading higher-order change, which appear as contemporary themes in recent leadership studies.

Cultural and Symbolic Theories

Cultural and symbolic theories represent a “paradigmatic shift” in thinking about leadership and organizations (Chaffee & Tierney, 1988; Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989). These theories also fall within the “New Leadership” genre (Middlehurst, 1993; Storey, 2004). In contrast with the previously described theories and models of leadership, which assume that organizations exist in a certain and rational world, and that leadership functions according to linear thought and decision-making processes, cultural and symbolic theories assume that organizations represent man’s attempt to impose meaning on an inherently uncertain world and that leadership functions as a means for interpreting facts, events, and causal relationships and developing common understandings about reality. In this regard, leadership is conceptualized as managing meaning. An organization’s culture, consisting of the shared values and beliefs of its participants, is the key dynamic on which these theories are based.

According to cultural and symbolic theories, leaders are seen as capable of influencing cultural norms and values and giving symbolic meaning to events that others may see as perplexing or chaotic. Leaders are also viewed as capable of influencing the organizational culture to suit the strategic ends of the organization. Through ceremonial and symbolic activities, leaders also are seen as properly managing organizational functioning, even though such activities may have little objective or tangible relationship to institutional outcomes (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989).

Cultural and symbolic perspectives present a view of leadership that is highly compatible with the characteristics of academic organizations. Leadership functions within complex social systems, such as colleges and universities, by engaging in sense-making to help develop common understandings about reality both within and outside the institution. Studies that have

utilized the cultural and symbolic approaches to studying leadership in academic organizations have provided important insights, such as understanding colleges and universities as cultures (Berquist, 1992; McNay, 1995; Middlehurst, 1995; Ramsden, 1998), understanding alternative strategic leadership approaches and their impact on institutions and their cultures (Chaffee, 1984), and understanding the need to be culturally sensitive when change within institutions is required (Bensimon et. al., 1989). Because cultural and symbolic ideas are abstract, as are the techniques of managing meaning within organizational cultures, practitioners have not embraced these approaches to leadership. The need continues for greater clarification and explanation of how these ideas and techniques get translated into leadership development and practice within higher education.

Perceptual and Cognitive Theories

Perceptual and cognitive theories, like cultural and symbolic approaches, focus on the ways in which individuals create meaning through their perceptions and interactions. Perceptual and cognitive theories advance the conceptualization of leadership as a social attribution. Leadership effectiveness is similarly understood from a social attribution perspective. Although similar, cultural and symbolic approaches differ from perceptual and cognitive approaches insofar as cultural and symbolic approaches emphasize the role of leaders in creating reality for followers, while cognitive models stress the role of followers in creating leaders (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Middlehurst, 1993).

Perceptual and cognitive theories concentrate both on the individual leader in terms of how they think about leadership, and on the issue of social cognition of organizations, in terms of how organizational participants perceive and attribute leadership. The focus on the individual

indicates a renewed interest in individual leadership traits. One of the newer trait concepts is that of cognitive complexity or cognitive power.

Cognitive complexity or cognitive power is unique in that it is classified not only as a cognitive theory but also as a more sophisticated form of trait theory (Middlehurst, 1993). Cognitive complexity or cognitive power has been explained in different ways by researchers. Some of these explanations include the ability to process large amounts and various types of information, and the ability to adapt to different task and situational demands. Cognitive complexity, which is associated with more effective leaders, suggests that more complex leaders may have the flexibility to understand situations through the use of different perspectives and to act in ways that enable them to attend simultaneously to various organizational needs.

The idea of cognitive complexity has generated a whole new series of multi-frame research studies, beginning with Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003) work on organizational frames, Birnbaum's (1988) work on types of academic organizations, and Berquist's (1992) work on types of academic cultures. Each of these works has presented a useful typology for viewing complex organizations, and implications for effective leadership. Other studies offering multi-frame research perspectives and models in higher education, such as those by McNay (1995), Middlehurst (1995), and Rowley and Sherman (2001), have emphasized changing models of institutional functioning, changing university cultures, and changes in institutional leadership. Together, these studies have made significant contributions to the study and practice of new leadership within the context of higher education. Examples and highlights from each of these studies appear in Appendices A through H respectively.

Hybrid Explanations

Hybrid explanations (Bass, 1990), which first appeared in the late 1970s, combine several leadership theories as a way to more fully account for leadership given certain situations. For example, a mix of cognitive, behavioral, and interactional explanations may be needed to account fully for leader-follower relations and outcomes from them. Or, a combination of trait, reinforcement, behavioral, and cognitive approaches and the feedback loops of systems theory may be more useful and appropriate for better understanding some of the complexities of leadership. Hybrid studies represent a new trend in approaches to leadership.

Excellence Theory

The excellence theory of leadership (Rost, 1991) is descriptive of another new orientation to leadership that emerged in the 1980s. Much of the literature of this period stems from Peters and Waterman's (1982) idea of excellence in organizations. As argued by Rost, Peters and Waterman "spawned the movement in leadership studies that equates leadership with the process of transforming an organization to achieve excellence" (p. 83). This led to researchers studying excellent companies and CEOs and conceptualizing leaders as, "people achieving excellence in outcomes" (Rost, 1991, p. 116). Leadership became linked to effectiveness, which, in turn, became linked to excellence and other ideas about achievement, results, success, and top performance. This connection continues to be evidenced in more recent works, such as Ruben's (2004) study of excellence in higher education. Like Bass's (1990) hybrid explanations of leadership, the excellence theory of leadership provides a conceptual framework for more contemporary theories and models of leadership.

New Leadership Approaches

Bryman's (1992) "New Leadership" approaches focus on some of the more elusive or intangible features of leadership. For example, while power and influence, cultural and symbolic, and cognitive theories also come under this umbrella term, as evidenced in research that examines features such as the use and nature of power within leadership, and the impact of organizational culture on leadership, other New Leadership ideas that have been addressed include the connection between leadership and change, leadership and vision, and the nature of charisma in relation to leadership. With particular regard to the concept of charisma, the New Leadership perspective presents it more in terms of how a leader is perceived by his or her followers rather than as a personal trait. These alternative approaches appeared in the emerging literature of the 1980s.

Leadership that exhibits vision, empowers and inspires others, challenges the status quo, and adopts a proactive stance is descriptive of some of the new themes and ideas considered as New Leadership approaches. One implicit theme is that leaders do make a difference in organizations. Although these points are very general, they call attention to the very real contributions of the New Leadership approaches.

Integrative Theories

Integrative theories (Yukl, 2002) are based on the use of two or more types of leadership variables (traits, behavior, power and influence processes, and situational variables) in the same study. Studies utilizing an integrative approach have become more common in recent years. Like Bass's (1990) hybrid explanations and Rost's (1991) excellence theory, Yukl's integrative theories cut across and incorporate various leadership theories. The best examples of integrative approaches are found in some of the research on charismatic and transformational leadership

because they combine two or more theories. Integrated conceptions of leadership serve to broaden perspectives and enlarge the scope of inquiry (Yukl, 2002). For the purposes of this study, the literature review will utilize an integrative approach to summarize broad themes in the literature. This model is popular in dissertations (Creswell, 2003, pp. 32-33).

Constitutive, Constructivist Theory

Constitutive, constructivist theory, developed by Grint (1997, 2000) is another of the more recent leadership theories. The constitutive approach, which is derived from constructivist theories in the social sciences, differs from the more traditional approaches to leadership, particularly trait, contingency, and situational approaches, in terms of essentialist and non-essentialist perspectives on leadership. The term “essentialist” implies that a definitive, objective account of the phenomenon of leadership is possible, whereas the term “non-essentialist” implies this is not possible. For example, the essentialist perspective advances that the individual, context, or both are considered critical to leadership. In the case of the trait approach, the traits of individual leaders are critical but the context is not. Leaders are considered leaders under any circumstances. With regard to the contingency approach, both the individual and the context are knowable and critical. Leaders are aware of their own leadership skills and the context so that they can gauge the degree of alignment between themselves and the context. In the case of the situational approach, the context is essential but the leader’s actions and behavior are flexible and changeable to suit the situation. The essentialist perspective also maintains that leadership is a concrete phenomenon, which can be measured according to the more scientific methods of analysis.

In contrast, the constitutive approach, which in its most radical form rejects the essentialist perspective, suggests that situations and leaders are a consequence of various

competing interpretations. This approach views leadership as a “meaning-making activity” (Storey, 2004, p. 15) on the part of leaders, followers, or both. As such, the essence of the leader or situation may never be known, only interpreted. This non-essentialist perspective, which maintains that leadership is an interpretive phenomenon, also maintains that “alternative measures of analysis that are non-scientific” are required (Grint, 2000, p. 4).

Leadership within Learning Organizations

This theoretical approach, as described by Storey (2004), attends to the methods for developing leaders within organizations. The focus on improving and expanding leadership development opportunities stems from the critiques of conventional leadership training methods. This issue has led to the emergence of new perspectives that link leadership, learning, and learning organizations, which are prominent themes in the current leadership literature. For example, Senge’s (1990a; Senge et al., 1999) works introduced a number of new perspectives, such as the ecological perspective and characteristics of learning organizations, the leadership/learning disciplines and related competencies and skills, and the various conceptions of leadership and associated leadership skills within learning organizations. McDade and Lewis (1994) also linked the concepts of leadership, learning, and learning organizations specifically within the context of higher education. The perspective these authors presented focused on the development of a culture of leadership through various leadership development approaches for faculty members and staff. All of these perspectives, as described more fully in Appendices I through M, have contributed to this major theory of leadership within learning organizations.

Post-Charismatic and Post-Transformational Leadership Theory

The rise of charismatic and transformational leadership theory in the 1980s indicated a shift from the older transactional approach, which emphasized the leader-follower relationship as

a process of exchange. While charismatic leadership theory emphasized the attributes of charisma in terms of personality and behavior, transformational leadership theory emphasized a different approach to leading, one that focused on the work and skills of leaders in leading significant organizational change through engaged and committed followers. Transformational leadership also was associated with the ideas of excellence and high performance, which were so pervasive since the 1980s. The wide appeal of the charismatic-transformational model has waned, however, as the dysfunctional aspects of these forms of leadership have become known. Alternative modes of leadership are emerging that will provide new insights about leadership. Some of the alternative models referenced by Storey (2004) include Fullan's (2001) implicit model of "post-charismatic or new leadership based around embedded learning, devolved leadership in teams, and learning as a product of conflict, experimentation and false starts" (p. 33); and, Avolio and Bass's (2002) more balanced approach to leadership that combines both transactional and transformational leadership styles. Even as new approaches are being sought and developed, however, previous theories continue to provide a foundation for leadership.

Leadership Paradigms

The leadership paradigms formulated by Avery (2004) provide another model for tying together leadership theories and research into one framework. Like Bass (1990), who proposed a broad, holistic approach for integrating the entire field of leadership, and Yukl, who also advocated integrative theories, Avery adopted an integrative approach to provide a more complete view of leadership. Avery's approach acknowledged that "leadership is multi-faceted, holistic, spans various organizational levels and spheres, and encompasses many variables including factors both internal and external to the organization" (p. 18).

Avery's (2004) leadership paradigms, which represent four broad sets of ideas, are identified as classical, transactional, visionary, and organic leadership. These paradigms are arranged along various continua, reflecting the different aspects of leadership, which generally change across the paradigms. These various dimensions include time, the underlying basis of leadership, sources of follower commitment, and vision. For example, with respect to the underlying basis of leadership, classical leadership is based on the leader's position and power, whereas Transactional leadership is based on influencing followers. Visionary leadership, in which the leader's vision inspires followers to greater achievements, is viewed as an ideal leadership paradigm, especially in transforming organizations, while in organic leadership, the leader is no longer essential. Rather, the entire group becomes key. Other underlying continua for comparing the leadership paradigms cover "characteristics of the key players, their power, ways of making decisions and being accountable; the management philosophy underlying the paradigms; and organizational considerations such as adaptability, and managing diversity, structure and environmental considerations" (Aver, 2004, p. 38).

Avery's (2004) framework reflects the trend in leadership within organizations, which indicates that "external factors are driving many organizations toward Organic leadership" (p. 150). Given this understanding, Avery concluded that:

In order to be agile and innovative to survive and thrive in fast moving environments, thus experiencing pressure to move towards an Organic paradigm, organizations...should focus on becoming leaderful, where leadership resides in different people depending on the situation and expertise required. (p. 152)

Avery's framework provides yet another new approach to understanding leadership.

Objectivist and Subjectivist Perspectives of Leadership

In addition to the different types of leadership theories, another issue that is particularly relevant to this study is an understanding of the differences between rational or objective views

and interpretative or subjective views of leadership. As argued by Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989), there has been a recent trend away from the rational or objective perspective toward a cultural or symbolic perspective. Commenting further, these authors indicated that:

Instead of viewing leadership as an objective act in which leaders influence the activities of followers through the display of specific traits, or power, or behaviors, cultural and symbolic theories view leadership as a subjective act in which leaders elicit followers' commitment by constructing a reality that is congruent with followers' beliefs and that reflects desired ends. (p. 25)

Middlehurst (1993) similarly advanced that the distinctions between objective and subjective views represent a new focus in leadership research. For example, from an objective perspective, "leaders can actively and directly influence or change the organization—its structures and systems as well as its activities and culture" (p. 187). From a subjective perspective, however, "formal leaders may be only one element in the construction, maintenance or reconstruction of the meaning and life of the organization" (p. 187). According to Middlehurst, "Adopting an objective perspective, leadership is real, measurable and substantive; taking a subjective view, leadership is intuitive, intangible or symbolic" (p. 185). Together, objective and subjective perspectives reveal further facets and complexities in leadership.

Yukl (2002) also distinguished between objective and subjective views in leadership research. For instance, Yukl described both objective and subjective perspectives with respect to conceptions of leadership effectiveness. Leader effectiveness is most commonly measured by the extent to which the leader's organizational unit performs its task successfully and attains its goals. Some examples of objective measures of performance or goal attainment include profits, profit margin, return on investment, and other financial outcomes. Subjective measures include ratings of leader effectiveness by followers and other organizational stakeholders based on their perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes. As explained by Yukl, when evaluating outcome variables

such as leadership effectiveness, multiple criteria or measures, whether subjective, objective, or both, “should be considered to deal with the complexities of these variables and the different preferences of various stakeholders” (p. 19).

This study of leadership in academic organizations will attempt to bring together both the objective and subjective perspectives of leadership and leadership development. Because the idea of leadership as an intangible asset is one of several key research questions to be examined in this study, the subjective view is equally or even more important than the objective view. This assumption underscores the complexities of this study.

Summary of Conceptions of Leadership, Theories and Research

A number of summative points regarding leadership can be drawn from the previous overview of leadership theories, perspectives, and research approaches. One point is that although the major scholarly work on leadership has been conducted in other fields, such as social psychology and management science, in most cases it can be applied appropriately to the study of leadership in non-profit, professional organizations, such as colleges and universities inclusive of their organizational uniqueness. An integrative approach that uses one literature base to inform another provides a greater understanding of leadership in higher education while also advancing the study of leadership in higher education.

A second point is that there are many ways to conceptualize leadership as evidenced by the categorization of major leadership theories and models. Trait and behavioral approaches link personal qualities and behaviors to leadership, while contingency or situational approaches highlight the complexity of leadership, indicating that leadership changes according to various factors. Power and influence approaches view leadership as a process of social influence, while cultural and symbolic approaches consider leadership as being socially constructed through the

mutual interactions and interpretations of leaders and their constituents. Cognitive approaches examine the intellectual power required of leadership, while hybrid, excellence, New Leadership, and integrative approaches cut across theoretical boundaries by combining various leadership and related theories. Hybrid explanations take into account multiple aspects of leadership, such as cognitive, behavioral, and interactional approaches to more fully understand the phenomenon of leadership. Excellence theory also combines multiple theories associated with leadership, with particular focus given to transformational leadership, leadership effectiveness, and excellence. New Leadership approaches, which also take into consideration power and influence, cultural and symbolic, and cognitive approaches, focus on some of the more elusive or intangible features of leadership, such as the impact of organizational culture on leadership, the connection between leadership and change, leadership and vision, and the nature of charisma in relation to leadership. Constitutive and constructivist theory and approaches place greater emphasis on the part played by followers in constructing interpretations of leadership. Approaches to leadership within learning organizations demonstrate an array of leadership development activities through various methods that are deemed to be appropriate in new contexts. Post-charismatic and post-transformational theory that promotes learning, team leadership, collaboration, and more balanced approaches to leadership demonstrate that as shifts in understanding of what constitutes appropriate modes of leadership take place, the trend towards alternative and new theories of leadership emerge. All of these approaches reveal the continuing evolution of leadership theories, models, and perspectives as further facets and complexities in leadership are discovered and explored.

A third point is that within the academic context, some leadership theories and models may be more relevant than others. This is due in part to the special characteristics of academic

organizations. However, all theories and models, whether to greater or lesser extent, afford leaders in colleges and universities greater insight into the practice of leadership.

A fourth point is the distinction between rational or objective views of leadership, as evidenced in trait, behavioral, and contingency theories, and interpretive or subjective views, as evidenced in power and influence, cultural and symbolic, and cognitive theories. The objective perspective advances that leadership is real, measurable and substantive, while the subjective view advances that leadership is intuitive, intangible or symbolic. The subjective perspective and related theoretical approaches, which emphasize the more elusive aspects of leadership, are equally important to the understanding and practice of leadership in both academic and nonacademic organizations.

A fifth point is the recent trend toward a blended or integrated conceptual framework in the study of leadership. As noted by Yukl (2002), “Leadership research has been characterized by narrowly focused studies with little integration of findings from the different approaches” (p. 428). However, the number of studies that bridge more than one approach is increasing. Such studies help to broaden and enrich the understanding of the complexities of leadership. The convergence in key concepts from different perspectives on leadership also is indicative of the progress that has been and continues to be made in learning about leadership.

A sixth point is that leadership can be conceptualized at various levels. For example, Yukl (2002) identified four levels of conceptualization for leadership processes. These levels included individual, dyadic, group, and organizational processes. Avery (2004) similarly recognized that various organizational levels underlie a range leadership theories, concepts, and approaches. These levels included individual, dyadic or group, organizational, and external or strategic levels. According to Yukl, some levels have been more dominant than others in the

development of theories about leadership. In addition, “Most leadership theories are focused on processes at only one level, because it is very difficult to develop a multilevel theory that is parsimonious and easy to apply” (p. 13). While progress has been made in learning about leadership in groups and organizations, this type of research is limited when compared with numerous studies that have focused on dyadic leadership. As concluded by Yukl (2002), “There is clearly a need for more research on leadership processes that determine the effectiveness of teams and organizations” (p. 434). In addressing this need, this study focused on a multilevel examination of the value of university-based, leadership development programs for administrators at the levels of the individual, academic organization, and higher education enterprise. This more balanced perspective is desirable in both current and future studies.

The various theories, models, and perspectives of leadership provide one of the foundations for this study of the value of LDPs for administrators offered through four-year institutions. Also important to this study is the new conceptualization of leadership as an intangible asset. A second foundation is based on the various theories, models, and perspectives of leadership development.

Leadership Development

Historical Conceptions of Leadership Development

Approaches to leadership training and development date back as least as far as ancient Greece where the philosopher, Plato, is credited with the first recorded leadership training program (Conger, 1992). In *The Republic*, Plato set forth his vision for training leaders for the ideal political state. He believed that leadership ability was determined not only by heredity and childhood experiences, but also by training and work experiences. Although Plato’s program was never instituted, it has remained an ideal that in some ways still pervades leadership training

and development today. For example, the belief that leadership can be taught and learned has persisted, as evidenced by the history of leadership training and development.

Conger's (1992) historical overview of leadership training and development approaches, which traced their evolution since Plato's time up to the 1990s, posed a number of helpful propositions about leadership development. These propositions included the following understandings. Leadership ability is the outcome of both life's experiences and the learning of skills. Leadership training plays an important role in a leader's development. The development of leadership ability is a very complex process. Effective leadership training and development incorporates experiences in several areas, including personal growth, conceptual understanding, skill building, and feedback. Well-designed leadership development programs are worth the time and expenditure. The field of leadership training and development exists in a state of flux and continual change.

Beginning in ancient and medieval times, military training was designed to teach the art of strategic leadership under the guidance of senior officers during battle. Centuries later, during the 1700s and 1800s, military academies in Europe and in America trained their cadets formally in war strategies and tactics. These strategies and actions were based on the assumption that such learning would help them be more effective leaders in war.

Besides the military, leadership training also has a long history in government and even religion. For example, the ancient Chinese provided training programs to instruct bureaucrats in Confucianism and other specialized knowledge. Also within the religious context, Catholicism and Buddhism developed formal programs to educate students for future administrative leadership roles in their respective organizations. These types of leadership programs centered on church dogma and specialized knowledge required of future administrators.

Beginning in the late 1800s, the training of business leaders in America emerged within colleges and universities. Undergraduate and graduate programs in commerce and business administration were developed to train students in both leadership and management skills. Because the concepts of leadership and management were not as clearly delineated then as they are today, the terms were often used interchangeably to refer to the same set of functional, strategic, and interpersonal skills. While early collegiate courses concentrated primarily on the development of these three skill areas, later courses that were devoted solely to the study of leadership and offered through political science and management departments followed.

Outside of universities, leadership training occurred most frequently on the job. The underlying assumption was that all three skill areas, functional, strategic, and interpersonal, were to be gained by progressing through various positions within the formal organizational hierarchy. The development of strategic skills, assumed to be of importance primarily at the higher levels within an organization, were supplemented by an occasional outside course, while interpersonal skills, learned largely through random work experiences, received more attention in terms of outside training.

Other leadership training programs that emerged during the 1960s and 1970s included situational leadership programs, such as Hersey and Blanchard's, which became the standard for leadership training in most companies. These programs were based on the contingency model of leadership effectiveness, which emphasized the task and relationship roles of leaders. The understanding here was that under certain situations, leaders needed to be either more task or relationship oriented. Although these programs are still popular, they are currently considered as more managerial or supervisory in that they lack a more advanced approach to leadership training programs.

Leadership training underwent a significant change starting in the 1980s as a result of increasing competitive environmental pressures. More important than the simpler task versus relationship dimensions of leadership were the skills of visioning, leading significant organizational change, and inspiring followers. Other changes included greater experimentation both in learning methods, such as action learning that incorporated actual company issues, and in in-house executive-level leadership development initiatives. Prior to this time, in-house leadership training was primarily geared towards supervisors and mid-level managers, while corporate executives attended elite university programs, such as Harvard's Advanced Management Program. What's notable about this is the fact that such open-enrollment university-based programs continued to emphasize general management skills rather than leadership as such. Thus, in order to link executive education in leadership to changes in company strategy and culture, some major corporations experimented with their own executive programs that emphasized new leadership skills, such as implementing change and shaping corporate culture. These programs attempted to transform the traditional managerial mind-set into a mind-set of leadership.

Concurrent with the experiments in corporate leadership education in the 1980s, were experiments primarily in business schools with respect to graduate leadership education. Some universities experimented with innovative coursework that integrated executive-style seminars, outdoor adventure-based team-building exercises, managerial and leadership simulations, case studies, consulting assignments with international companies, and other learning methodologies. Innovative graduate leadership programs in business schools continued to proliferate during this period. However, except for a few large-scale, in-house company programs, many were not

sustained. Instead, companies relied mostly on outside commercial vendors for leadership training programs.

The 1990s witnessed a number of leadership development trends in the business sector. One trend was that independent training organizations, such as the Center for Creative Leadership in Greensboro, North Carolina, continued to be a primary source of innovative leadership training programs for corporations. Experimentation with new materials and new exercises in the areas of personal growth, conceptual understanding, feedback, and skill-building, characterized these programs.

Another trend was the continuing interest of colleges and universities in the executive education market. *Bricker's International Directory of University-Based Executive Development Programs* (2009) listed over 1,300 executive education programs offered by business schools throughout the world. While such interest is not new, what is new is that some leading universities and other innovative academic institutions are finally leading the way into more meaningful service to the business community. In addition to creating entirely new leadership and management development programs, some renowned institutions also expanded their programs and services through the design of custom programs and the provision of organizational problem-solving assistance.

Commitment to and Investment in Leadership Development as Means to Address External and
Internal Challenges

Non-Academic Organizations

While both academic and nonacademic organizations need effective leaders and managers to deal with the challenges of an uncertain environment and the complexities of organizational life, the research suggests that non-academic organizations, particularly business

organizations and the military, are more committed than academic organizations to making major investments of time, money, and energy to leadership development. With regard to business organizations, corporations are pouring millions of dollars into leadership development as part of their search for improved competitiveness (Conger, 1992). Researchers suggest that corporate investment in executive education and leadership development approaches \$16.5 billion dollars annually (Fulmer & Goldsmith, 2001). Other estimates indicate that 75% of U.S. companies with more than 10,000 employees spend \$750,000 or more on leadership development annually, which equates to almost \$8,000 per person (Murphy & Riggio, 2003). In addition, top executives devote significant amounts of their time to personally guide and mentor future leaders within their organizations. Leadership development is viewed as key source of competitive advantage (Conger, 1992; Day, 2000; Fulmer & Goldsmith, 2001; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004; Vicere & Fulmer, 1998).

Similarly, the United States military, known for its ability to develop high-caliber leaders consistently over time, invests heavily in formal training programs that offer leadership development to both mid and senior-level personnel (Conger & Benjamin, 1999). What distinguishes the Army's leadership development process is "the extent to which it embeds leadership ethos and development within the Army culture" (p. 82). Although precise estimates of the Army's investment in leadership training are "difficult to come by, the U.S. military unquestionably devotes more resources and research to instilling a leadership ethos than any other organization in the world" (p. 82). According to the U.S. Department of Defense, "In 1996 the Army invested \$309.7 million in professional development education alone" (cited in Conger & Benjamin, 1999, p. 82).

Academic Organizations

In contrast with the corporate and military arenas, higher education's investment in leadership development for administrators and the institutions they serve is difficult to assess. Leadership development for these professionals and their institutions have not been a high priority (McDade, 1987; Green, 1988; Fife & Goodchild, 1991; Green & McDade, 1991; McDade & Lewis, 1994; Middlehurst, 1995; Munitz, 1995; Freed, Klugman, & Fife, 1997; Birnbaum, 2001; Boggs, 2003; Ruben, 2004). Rather, American colleges and universities historically have focused on developing leaders and organizations for all segments of society (Green, 1988; Middlehurst, 1993; McDade & Lewis, 1994; Brungardt, 1996; Brungardt, Gould, Moore, & Potts, 1997). Like British universities, which had a tremendous influence on American higher education, a key purpose and function of American universities has been "to educate and train the next generation of leaders destined for government, the church, the professions and more recently for industry and commerce" (Middlehurst, 1995, p. 69).

Although American colleges and universities have attended to the leadership development needs of various constituents, some constituents, such as students and business and other professionals, have benefited more than others, specifically, administrators. While leadership development opportunities for students and for business and other professionals have grown, as evidenced by the increasing number of undergraduate and graduate credit programs, and continuing education programs that are available through today's colleges and universities, leadership development opportunities for administrators and academic institutions as a whole have not received the same degree of attention. Even though some excellent programs are available, overall, much remains to be done in order to build the leadership capacities of administrators and the academic organizations they serve.

Organizations build individual leadership capacities primarily through developing individual knowledge, skills or abilities. Organizations also build organizational leadership capacities by developing networked relationships among individuals that enhance cooperation, mutual commitments, trust and respect. Both approaches to leadership development, individual and collective, are important concerns for organizations. In addition, both approaches, which are different yet complementary in their emphasis, “must be linked with each other and connected to a broader organizational strategy for maximum return on investment” (Day, 2000, p. 583).

Building individual and organizational leadership capacities are important understandings that are applicable to academic as well as non-academic organizations. By combining what is considered the traditional, individualistic approach to leadership development with a more shared and relational approach, organizations create the most value for their enterprises (Day, 2000). LDPs contribute to these value-added opportunities.

Young Adult Student Leadership Development. Even though higher education has long asserted that it prepares young adults for the responsibilities of leadership, only since the 1980s have some colleges and universities made major efforts in that direction (Bass; 1990; Klenke, 1993; Brungardt, 1996; Brungardt, Gould, Moore, & Potts, 1997). As argued by Cleveland (as cited in Bass, 1990), “equipping minds for leadership ought to be what’s ‘higher’ about higher education”. The 1987 through the 1998 editions of *Leadership Education: A Source Book of Courses and Programs* by the Center for Creative Leadership, list an increasing number of institutions that have started leadership programs. In addition, some traditional programs and disciplines, most notably MBA and Educational Administration programs, have added major leadership development components (Brungardt, 1996).

The rise of leadership programs in academe has been credited to the work by researchers and scholars, such as Bass, Fiedler, Hollander, Hunt, Burns, and others (Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorenson, 2003). Based on their research and scholarship, interest in student leadership development by colleges and universities has grown, which has led to the creation of a multitude of approaches at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. For example, with respect to credit programs, some approaches are driven by certain philosophies and models, such as a business, citizenship, or a liberal arts philosophy and model (Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorenson, 2003). Some approaches range from single credit courses, to minor and major concentrations, to entire programs of study. The most notable are those approaches that lead to bachelor's, master's, or doctoral degrees in leadership studies (Klenke, 1993; Brungardt, 1996; Brungardt, Gould, Moore, & Potts, 1997; Riggio, Ciulla, and Sorenson, 2003). To date, there are more than 100 programs that offer some sort of academic program for students in leadership studies (Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorenson, 2003, p. 226).

Some of the pioneering credit programs have included Gonzaga University's liberal arts-oriented Ph.D. program in leadership studies established in 1980; Marietta College's undergraduate liberal arts leadership program established in 1986; and the University of Richmond's undergraduate degree in leadership founded in 1996. The University of Richmond is also the first institution to have created an autonomous degree-granting School of Leadership Studies (Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorenson, 2003, p. 225).

Other academic institutions that also have led the way in offering credit programs in leadership studies have included Princeton, Colorado College, Duke, and the Universities of San Diego, Vermont, and Minnesota, each offering a sizable leadership component. Still other institutions include the University of Virginia, whose executive-style leadership seminar required

of all MBA students, now serves as a model for a number of universities (Klenke, 1993, p. 116). Also notable are Albertson College (Idaho), Marietta College (Ohio), Washington State University, and Fort Hays State University (Kansas), which have established comprehensive four-year academic leadership studies programs (Brungardt, 1996). Leadership studies degree programs especially have made major institutional commitments to develop and deliver a leadership studies curriculum.

In addition to credit courses, other approaches to student leadership development include extracurricular, blended credit and extracurricular, or non-credit programs (Moorman, Wells, & Wilwerding, 2003; Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorenson, 2003; Ayman, Adams, Fisher, & Hartman, 2003). Such programs help to account for the even greater number of student leadership development programs in higher education. As of 1996, between 500 and 600 campuses were noted as either offering either classroom instruction and/or co-curricular experiences (Brungardt, Gould, Moore, & Potts, 1997, p. 58). As universities continue to experiment and create new approaches to student leadership development, other promising approaches are foreseeable in the future. As these efforts in student leadership development suggest, higher education is taking an even more active role in addressing the leadership needs in society through increasing student leadership development opportunities and the resources to support them.

University-based, Continuing Education Leadership Development. Colleges and universities serve an important need in providing continuing education programs for various adult constituents, as in business and industry, government, and the professions. The overall aim of virtually all adult continuing education programs is, “to provide an organized learning experience for individuals who are beyond usual college age” (Hatfield, 1989, p. 303). Although a variety of terms, such as university extension, continuing studies, adult learning, andragogy,

nontraditional education, and lifelong learning (Courtney, 1989; Hatfield, 1989; Rocco et al., 2003), have been used to describe this form of education, which historically dates back to 1873 when the first formally organized, university-based, adult education classes occurred at Cambridge University in England, any variation in terminology has been explained as reflecting “only minor differences in concept or philosophy” (Hatfield, 1989, p. 303). The differences in terminology also have been explained as indicative of “the preferences of administrators who believe that certain terms have become dated or that other terms will have greater appeal, either to potential enrollees or to higher level decision makers within the institution” (Hatfield, 1989, p. 303).

As with variation in terminology, various definitions of adult and continuing education also have been articulated. For example, adult and continuing education has been defined as, “a process whereby [adults]...undertake...learning activities for the purpose of bringing about changes in knowledge, attitudes, values or skills” (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, p. 9). Another definition has described adult and continuing education as:

a process whereby persons who no longer attend school on a regular full-time basis...undertake sequential and organized activities with the conscious intention of bringing about changes in information, knowledge, understanding, or skill, appreciation and attitudes; or for the purpose of identifying or solving personal or community problems. (Liveright & Haywood, 1969, p. 8)

Still other definitions have described adult and continuing education as, “an intervention whose immediate goal is change in knowledge or in competence” (Courtney, 1989, p. 24); and, “the ongoing and advanced education necessary for professionals to stay abreast of the knowledge explosion...emerging in many fields of practice” (Hatfield, 1989, p. 304). In a world of multiple definitions and terminologies, what is notable about all of these definitions is that they describe adult and continuing education in more or less the same terms. Given the wide

variety of terms and similarity in definitions now in use, and the observation that few colleges or universities use the term “adult education” to designate their educational programs for adults (Hatfield, 1989), the term “continuing education” will be used in this research in place of the original and older term “adult education” to both modernize and simplify matters.

One concept, however, has emerged as a subspecialty within the generic field of continuing education: that of continuing professional education (Griffith, 1985; Scanlan, 1985; Cervero, 1988; Queeney, 2000). Griffith explained continuing professional education as a subgroup of continuing education “that focuses on programming for persons who have earned their professional qualifications in some field and who have subsequently sought additional educational experiences” (p. 102). Professionals participate in continuing professional education programs in order to be relicensed or recertified in their area of professional practice, renew previous knowledge, update knowledge that has developed since they earned their qualification, and to solve personal and professional problems of various kinds. Another explanation of the relationship between continuing education and continuing professional education is that “the practice of *continuing professional education* overlaps with, but is distinct from other areas of educational practice. The other areas with which it has most in common are preservice professional education and adult and continuing education” (Cervero, 1988, p. xiv).

In yet another description of continuing professional education, Queeney (2000) has explained it as follows:

Continuing professional education (CPE) refers to the education of professional practitioners, regardless of their practice setting that follows their preparatory curriculum and extends their learning...throughout their careers. Ideally this education enables practitioners to keep abreast of new knowledge, maintain and enhance their competence, progress from beginning to mature practitioners, advance their careers through promotion and other job changes, and even move into different fields (Queeney, 1996, p. 698). The term *professional* is used broadly in this context, to describe the wide range of

occupational areas that are based, to some extent, in a discrete body of information and specific competencies. (p. 375)

Even though continuing professional education programs refer specifically to programs for the professions, such as dentistry, education, engineering, journalism, law, library science, medicine, nursing, pharmacy, social work, and other occupational groups, they are still thought of as a subgroup within continuing education. Due to this fact, the term “continuing education,” which will be used throughout this study, will be inclusive of continuing professional education.

University-based, Continuing Education Leadership Development for Business.

University business schools have been a major provider of executive education (described as traditional general management programs) and leadership development programs (described as traditional focused programs) for business executives (Vicere & Fulmer, 1998). As previously noted, the 2009 *Bricker’s International Directory of University-Based Executive Development Programs* lists over 1,300 executive education and leadership development programs offered by business schools throughout the world. Research indicates that Ivy League schools and state flagship institutions offer the most executive education and leadership development programs (McDade, 1987, p. 27). Recent assessments of corporate dollars spent on executive education and leadership development indicate that companies have been channeling about 25 percent of their investments in leadership development through university-based business schools (Vicere & Fulmer, 1998; Fulmer & Goldsmith, 2001).

University-based, Continuing Education Leadership Development for Government.

Colleges and universities also provide continuing education, leadership and management development programs for government executives and administrators and elected officials. For instance, at the national level, several exemplary programs in the government sector include Harvard University’s Kennedy School of Government Executive Programs, which offers the

Program for Senior Executives in State and Local Government, and the Program for Senior Managers in Government (McDade, 1987; www.harvard.edu). In addition to these university-based programs at the national level, colleges and universities also provide leadership and management development programs for government executives at the regional and local levels, such as those offered through The University of Alabama's College of Continuing Studies for county commissioners, city clerks and administrators, court magistrates, and municipal revenue officers (www.ccs.ua.edu). Similarly, Louisiana State University's Division of Continuing Education offers leadership development programs for elected officials and local government administrators and managers (www.doce.lsu.edu). Although precise estimates of government investment in leadership and management development programs are hard to come by, most government organizations, like those in business and the military, have found it to be "a good investment in terms of the bottom line as well as in more intangible ways such as individual development, succession planning, organizational development and change, and culture building" (McDade, 1987, p. 32).

University-based, Continuing Education Leadership Development for the Professions.

Universities and professional schools also provide continuing education leadership development programs for the professions. As described in the literature, universities and professional schools are one of four major providers of continuing professional education, which is considered a subspecialty of within the generic field of continuing education (Griffith, 1985; Scanlan, 1985; Cervero, 1988; Queeney, 2000). This is a significant observation considering that the professions, "whose members account for almost 27% of the American work force" (Cervero, 1988, p. 17), are serious consumers of continuing education. In fact, "most professions now embrace the importance of lifelong professional education" (p. 20). Furthermore, "Although no

precise data are available, knowledgeable observers estimate that billions of dollars are spent annually to provide and to attend such programs” (Eurich, 1985, cited in Cervero, 1988, p. 1).

While most university-based, continuing education programs for the professions traditionally have emphasized the acquisition of technical expertise and achievement of relicensing requirements (Cervero, 1988), newer initiatives that address the leadership development needs of those in various professions are on the rise. For example, Harvard University offers an array of leadership development programs for the professions, including: The Harvard Institute for School Leadership through their Graduate School of Education; the Nurse Manager Leadership Development Program through their Center for Clinical and Professional Development; and, the Leadership for Physician Executives program through the Medical School’s Department of Continuing Education (www.harvard.edu). Also indicative of the trend in university-based, continuing education leadership development programs for the professions are the University of California, San Francisco, The Center for the Health Professions’ leadership development programs and services for healthcare professionals (www.ucsf.edu). A sampling of The Center’s programs includes the CHCF Health Care Leadership Program, Integrated Nurse Leadership Program, Pharmacy Leadership Institute, and the RWJ Executive Nurse Fellows Program. The responsiveness of universities and professional schools in serving the traditional, continuing education needs, and now leadership development needs of professionals, is to be expected.

Altogether, colleges and universities provide a vast array of LPDs for business, government, and the professions. However, the same does not hold true for LPDs for academic and administrative staff. Higher education’s lack of attention to leadership development for these professionals is grounded in any number of overarching reasons, including the traditional

values and culture, hierarchy of leadership development priorities, enduring myths about leadership development, and cults that are operative in higher education. The challenge for university-based leadership development initiatives is to address these issues while demonstrating their value-added benefits to both individual academic and administrative leaders and their institutions.

University-Based Leadership Development for Higher Education. Except for a few programs, higher education has paid little systematic attention to developing its own leaders (Fife, 1987; Green, 1988; Green & McDade, 1991; McDade & Lewis, 1994; Middlehurst, 1995; Munitz, 1995; Ruben, 2004). Current higher education statistics published in the *Digest of Education Statistics* (2010) by the National Center for Education Statistics are indicative of the magnitude of this problem. Considering the almost 461 billion-dollar higher education enterprise, consisting of approximately 20 million students, 1.4 million faculty, 230,579 professional staff (executive/administrative/ managerial), on 6,632 campuses (<http://nces.ed.gov//programs/digest/d10/>), higher education cannot afford to neglect the leadership development of its academic and administrative staff.

Higher Education's Leadership Development Pyramid

Given higher education's great attention to leadership development primarily for students and secondarily for external constituents, what has been missing in many colleges and universities is having as an additional important goal, leadership development for academic and administrative staff. The literature on leadership development suggests that because leadership development for these internal groups in higher education is not the norm, it ranks last in the hierarchy of leadership development priorities. In effect, American higher education has formed a pyramid, with the value of leadership development for students dominating the structure at its

pinnacle. Somewhat lower is the importance of leadership development for external constituents. Near the bottom stands the importance of leadership development for academic and administrative staff. Today's leadership development pyramid in higher education is in need of serious reconsideration.

Other Reasons for the Lack of Attention Given to Leadership Development for Academic and Administrative Staff in Colleges and Universities

Higher education's historic lack of attention to developing its own leaders is ironic on several accounts. As critiqued by Green (1988), while colleges and universities proclaim that they are "in the business of developing leaders for society" (p. 1), they have not demonstrated sufficient interest in leadership development for their academic and administrative staff. Also, while academic institutions are very concerned about the deferred maintenance of their facilities, they have not seriously considered the "deferred maintenance of their human resources" (p. 1). What's more, while colleges and universities typically "devote as much as sixty percent of their operating budgets to personnel" (p. 1), they invest little in the development of their human resources, especially during tough economic times when academic and administrative development funds are either drastically cut or completely eliminated.

Although a number of efforts to identify and develop higher education leaders have been undertaken both on the national level and on individual campuses, these programs hardly constitute a comprehensive effort to improve leadership throughout the higher education enterprise. The reasons for higher education's relative neglect of this important investment can be attributed to "the slipperiness of the whole topic of leadership and the special problems presented by the higher education context in which it is exercised," along with the lack of a definitive theory of leadership, which has yet to be set forth (Green, 1988, p. 2). Furthermore,

even models of effective leadership that can be constructed do not necessarily lead to an understanding of how to develop leadership capacities. Overall, “the higher education community still does not regard leadership development as an investment in the long-range health of an institution or of the entire enterprise....responsibility still lies disproportionately with the individual to tend to his or her own professional development” (Green, 1988, p. 249).

With particular regard to higher education’s “relative lack of interest in developing administrative leadership” (Green, 1988, p. 2), Green identified several reasons. For instance, higher education traditionally has valued faculty achievements more than administrative achievements. In addition, the culture of higher education has viewed “administration as a necessary evil requiring little special aptitude or preparation” (p. 2). Also, for many faculty members, administration is considered as a temporary assignment in one’s academic career. As a result, leadership development for administrators historically has not been valued within the Academy.

A similar theme is evidenced in Townsend and Wiese’s (1991) study of graduate programs in higher education. They concluded that although administrative careers in postsecondary education have been enhanced by professional study, the doctorate in higher education has not been universally accepted. The reasons for this skepticism were linked to the academic culture that is operative within institutions. As summarized by Townsend and Wiese, “the image of administration as an activity remains a persistent one...[one that views] administration as an activity not requiring formal preparation...[and regards] administrative work as “administrivia” (p. 5). Townsend and Wiese concluded that faculty members are often skeptical of those who have a doctorate in higher education and, prefer a doctorate in a traditional academic discipline, such as one in the arts and sciences. An academic culture that

emphasizes these skepticisms calls into question the value of higher education doctoral programs, thereby further challenging the need for and importance of these programs.

Green and McDade (1991) also addressed the fact that there has been little or no serious and systematic attention given to leadership development among faculty and administrators in higher education. According to these authors, most of the reasons for the neglect of leadership development for these groups “are rooted in short-term thinking or in acceptance of the myths that present leadership in general as unteachable and administrative leadership in particular as unworthy of deliberate preparation” (p. 20). Some of the obstacles to leadership development have been linked to a number of myths as follows: “the return on investment in leadership is not worth it”; “leadership is an art, and therefore unteachable”; “anyone can be an administrator”; “hiring good people is sufficient”; “if institutions invest in people, they lose them to better jobs”; and, “it’s too expensive” (p. 18). Underlying these myths is the assumption that “by some mysterious process, leadership will emerge and flourish on its own” (p. 20).

McDade and Lewis (1994) similarly attributed the lack of investment by higher education in the development of new leaders to the culture of higher education, which does not encourage the leadership development of its own people. Their explanation was that, “There is a pervasive attitude that leaders naturally rise to positions, that when new leadership is needed, it will be found through a search, and that the leader from outside an institution is always superior to the homegrown contender” (p. 1). As further explained, “These biases are magnified during tough economic times. When campuses are troubled financially...morale is often low and the tendency to polarize is greater. In the urgency to downsize and reengineer, homegrown leadership development is typically one of the first casualties” (p. 1).

Middlehurst (1995) likewise related the lack of attention to leadership development for faculty and administrators in higher education either to negative attitudes towards management (and by association to formal leadership) or to negative views of training and development, or to both. In researching this negativity bias within institutions, Middlehurst explained that “certain ‘cults’ seemed to operate in relation to leadership development” (p. 89). For example, any one or more of the following cults may contribute to the pessimistic view about leadership in universities:

1. The cult of the gifted amateur (any intelligent, educated individual can undertake the task—in this case, leadership-without training);
2. The cult of heredity (those with natural talent will emerge since they are born to the task; and furthermore, leadership is an art and therefore unteachable);
3. The cult of deficiency (training is essentially remedial or for those who are personally ineffective; ‘training is for the second eleven’ as one pro-vice-chancellor put it);
4. The cult of inadequacy (once qualified, loss of face is involved by admitting gaps in one’s knowledge or competence);
5. The cult of the implicit (development takes place by gradual induction into the norms and operations of academe; learning by osmosis is the hallmark of success);
6. The cult of selection (the selection of ‘good’ staff will ensure good performance and will obviate the need for – and the cost of – development); or
7. The cult of the intellectual (there is no scientific basis to ‘management’ or ‘leadership,’ therefore it does not deserve to be taken seriously. (pp. 89-90)

These cults, which reflect an “entrenched amateurism” with respect to leadership development and other aspects of professional development within higher education, seriously undermine the value of leadership development. As critiqued by Middlehurst (1995), “By not investing in training and development for their own leaders, universities are vulnerable to imported models; and in promoting training, development and education for others but not for themselves they are potentially guilty of hypocrisy” (p. 90).

Writing about the challenging times that will require a transformation at many colleges and universities, Munitz (1995), former Chancellor of the California State University, stressed that one of the essential changes that will be necessary is a new attitude toward the leadership and management of academe. Contrasting academic and nonacademic organizations and their respective views of leadership development, Munitz summarized the differences this way: “the view that promising young women and men who show leadership potential should be trained and encouraged is evident in every organizational environment—religious, economic, athletic, political military, interest group—except that of higher education” (p. 15). To argue that the only way that colleges and universities will have leaders who are creative, skilled, and able to run contemporary institutions is to modify their traditional view of campus leadership as “the last bastion of proudly amateur management” (p. 15) suggests that leadership development in higher education must be taken more seriously.

Commenting on the historic lack of leadership development opportunities within colleges and universities, Ruben (2004) noted that although some professional development programs may be available in some institutions and disciplines, such initiatives are typically limited. In general, leadership development has not been advanced within the academy due to limited resources, the prevailing natural selection paradigm (the presumption that bright and talented

individuals will naturally come forth and become effective leaders), and the traditional attitude toward administration that has not kept pace with the dramatic changes occurring in many institutions. Ruben's point that, "[I]f these hurdles can be overcome, leadership programs are often well-received and can make important contributions" (p. 306) illustrates both the importance and value of leadership development efforts in higher education.

Due to the extraordinary challenges facing higher education, the focus on leadership development within colleges and universities must take on greater significance. As expressed by Rhodes (2001), President Emeritus of Cornell University, in his analysis of the American research university:

Institutions once admired as modest models of prudent judgment and strong participatory government are now seen by some as archetypes of bureaucratic bumbling and learned inefficiency, where efficient management and decisive leaders are held hostage to a host of competing interests and divided loyalties, and where prompt, responsible actions and responsive decisions are delayed by prolonged debate or diluted by ideological wrangling. The development of responsible, effective, and balanced governance, leadership, and management is one of the most urgent priorities for the American university as it enters the new Millennium. (p. 235)

Ruben (2004) similarly stressed the urgency of leadership development as one of eight key challenges for the academy. Given the many pressing concerns facing the academy, Ruben argued that strong leadership is needed at all levels of higher education. As further explained by Ruben,

We promote continuous and lifelong learning for others, recognizing that new learning needs come with changing life responsibilities. To address this most critical need in higher education, we must devote more attention to leadership issues within the academy; this can begin by applying the same continuing education philosophy and resources to leadership development for internal groups that we so enthusiastically advocate for others outside the academy. (p. 23)

These many critiques convincingly argue higher education's historic lack of attention to leadership development for academic and administrative staff within the academy. However, there are some traditional and emerging types of LPDs available at some institutions.

Types of University-Based, Leadership Development Programs for Faculty Members and Administrators

The various types of university-based leadership development programs in academic organizations for faculty members and administrators may be categorized as follows: 1) traditional higher education administration programs (graduate degree programs) (Fife & Goodchild, 1991); 2) higher education/community college programs (graduate degree, certificate, and other programs) (Bragg, 2002; Duvall, 2003; Katsinas & Kempner, 2005; 3) continuing education programs (traditional, non-credit, open enrollment or contract, short courses, workshops and seminars) (Green & McDade, 1991), and certificate (non-credit, non/credit/credit) programs); and, 4) campus-based programs linked to continuous quality improvement (Dew & Nearing, 2004). These four program types demonstrate the flexibility and range of university-based leadership development programs for faculty members and administrators. However, their relatively few numbers also suggest that much remains to be done. A brief description of these four types of programs follows.

Higher Education Administration Programs

Higher education, which has evolved as a field of study, from its founding in 1863 to the state of graduate programs in the 1960s, has been described as, "a maturing area of knowledge, administrative theory, research, and practice [that] have coalesced to produce interdisciplinary learning opportunities for those seeking staff, teaching, and administrative positions at colleges, universities, foundations, and government agencies" (Fife & Goodchild, 1991, p. 3). Higher

education programs themselves have been described as, “evolving from a generalized area of inquiry into a curriculum of professional specialization” (Fife, 1991, p. 86).

The missions of higher education programs are essentially twofold: “The principal purposes of doctoral programs in higher education are to prepare *practitioners* for leadership positions in higher education institutions and to prepare *scholars* for the field of study” (Murrell & Davis, 1991, p. 103). Although most higher education programs emphasize the preparation of administrative practitioners, which explains the popularity of the word “administration” that appears in most higher education program titles, the preparation of faculty members is also an important purpose that is valued within higher education programs.

Higher education administration programs share several characteristics. For example, most traditional higher education programs have expanded to include both masters and doctoral level studies. These programs also are considered inclusive in their course offerings and focused on leadership and administrative decision making in higher education (Fife, 1991; Duvall, 2003). For example, Fife’s 1991 study of course offerings in higher education doctoral programs identified 124 different courses offered through 88 responding programs. Of these 124 courses, 64 were categorized under the topic of “Administration,” with “Leadership and Administrative Decision-Making” listed 18 times under the sub-heading of “Theories of Higher Education Administration” (p. 81). The emphasis on leadership theories in those programs listing leadership as part of their curriculum provides an important foundation for leadership development in higher education programs.

Another defining characteristic of most higher education administration programs is that they remain well within the traditional university model, which promotes traditional academic values in terms of teaching and learning, research and scholarship, promotion and tenure

policies, and adheres to a reward structure that favors such traditional values (Fife & Goodchild, 1991; Duvall, 2003; Katsinas & Kempner, 2005). Although higher education administration programs have made great strides over the past 40 years, they still struggle for greater recognition and support in relation to other areas of education (Fife & Goodchild, 1991; Katsinas & Kempner, 2005).

Fife and Goodchild, in their 1991 study of higher education graduate programs, estimated that 120 universities provided graduate study leading to doctoral and master's degrees in higher education. More recent studies (Duvall, 2003; Boggs, 2003, Katsinas & Kempner, 2005) have indicated that the estimated number of universities offering graduate study in higher education has increased to approximately 140 institutions. Some of these newer higher education administration graduate programs emphasize special sectors of higher education, such as community colleges. All 140 institutions, however, include at least some coursework in the community college (<http://www.aacc.nche.edu>).

While there are as many as 140 universities which offer doctoral programs in higher education administration, the potential of these programs for developing leaders is still underutilized. In addressing this issue, Fife (1991) concluded that,

Graduate programs in higher education administration have enormous potential to provide academic and institutional leaders with the knowledge and skills that will help them understand the complexities of their institution. As in the early days of schools of business administration, higher education programs are evolving from a generalized area of inquiry into a curriculum of professional specialization. As the mission of these programs becomes clearer, and as higher education leaders begin to look for this type of specialized education in their administrators and managers, these programs will be more important in the professionalization of higher education leaders. (pp. 85-86)

Although some higher education administration programs may be underutilized, an alternative model is emerging. Recognizing the need for a new program model designed to better meet the educational needs of working adult students, The University of Alabama College

of Education recently created the Executive Ed.D. in Higher Education Administration. The Executive Ed.D., the second one of its kind in the country, began in fall 2006. This new degree program is designed for experienced university and college professionals who seek a terminal degree in higher education administration in a shorter time frame.

The Executive Ed.D.'s alternative format is described as one that "allows students to complete the degree in seven semesters--without interrupting their careers" (Major, 2005). In addition, it "meets all the expectations of a [traditional] higher education administration program...and degree requirements stipulated by the College of Education and the Graduate School" (Major, 2005). The Executive Ed.D. program is an example of one institution's creativity, flexibility, and further commitment to strengthening and broadening the available pool of qualified academic and administrative leaders in higher education.

Creating future academic and administrative leaders in higher education requires that campus leaders more universally recognize that formal education and training is desirable for more effective academic and administrative leadership within colleges and universities. It also requires that campus leaders make a greater investment in higher education programs and research (Goodchild & Fife, 1991).

Higher Education/Community College Programs

In addition to the higher education administration programs, some programs emphasize special sectors of higher education, such as community colleges. Within this category, there are various types of graduate programs with a community college emphasis. These types include: higher education graduate programs that give some attention to community college leadership and administration; MBA style models; interdisciplinary doctoral degree programs in community college leadership; distance education models; non-degree certificate programs; and short-term

certificate programs that stand alone or that are applicable to further graduate study at the master's or doctoral levels (Bragg, 2002).

The short-term or blended certificate program represents the newest program model to emerge. This model features both non-credit and credit continuing education in higher education/community college administration. For example, The University of Alabama Colleges of Continuing Studies and Education co-sponsor the Alabama Community College Leadership Academy (The Academy) for community college faculty members and administrators (<http://academy.ua.edu>). Participants who enroll in this blended continuing education, leadership development certificate program experience the benefits of a non-credit certificate program, which include: various lectures, seminars, and workshops centered on core curricular themes; a problem-based learning team assignment; multiple speakers, such as nationally renowned educational leaders, university faculty and administrators, as well as experts at the state level; campus visits; and professional approvals and CEU (Continuing Education Unit) Certificates of Completion. Participants also have the option to enroll in three to six graduate credit hours that may be applied to a doctoral degree in higher education/community college administration.

The blended certificate program model is an effective model as it relates to the mission and purpose of the Academy. According to the Academy's Mission Statement, the overall mission of the Academy is to

Prepare future Alabama community college leaders by enhancing their leadership and management skills for an environment of change to promote active partnership within postsecondary education. (<http://academy.ua.edu>)

Regarding the purpose of the Academy, the overall purpose is to maximize a college's success through effective leadership. This can be accomplished by

Preparing 21st Century leaders to guide Alabama's community and technical colleges into the next phase of their development...[and] provid[ing] a unique opportunity for

participants to redefine the dimensions of leadership needed to be effective in the 21st Century, interact with colleagues throughout the Alabama College System, sharpen their individual leadership skills, collaborate on research projects, and have numerous opportunities for personal and professional growth and development.
(<http://academy.ua.edu>)

The idea of a blended certificate program in higher education, such as the Academy, has great potential for developing administrative leadership throughout community colleges nationwide.

Although a definitive list of higher education/community college graduate programs does not exist, several websites, such as the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) (<http://www.aacc.nche.edu>), the ERIC Clearinghouse for Community Colleges (<http://www.gseis.ucla.edu/ccs.htm>), and Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE) (<http://www.ashe.ws/>), provide helpful information (Bragg, 2002). For example, according to the 2003 American Association of Community Colleges' inventory of existing leader preparation programs, there are sixteen higher education/community college programs (Duvall, 2003), which suggests an emerging trend in the preparation of community college leaders in instructional and administrative positions (Bragg, 2002; Duvall, 2003).

Even though successful community college leadership programs currently exist in a few universities, a number of challenges that may seriously impact the growth and vitality of such programs have been identified. For example, Duvall (2003) noted the limited number of current programs specializing in community colleges is insufficient to meet the need for new academic and administrative community college leaders on a national scale due to the wave of retirements confronting most community colleges. Katsinas and Kempner (2005) also indicated that "only a few of the nation's doctoral-level high education/community college programs are in strong health" (p. 9). Some other challenges include the lower ranking of higher education/community college programs within the institutional hierarchy in colleges of education; threat of reductions

or discontinuation in times of budget cuts; and, need to demonstrate the relevance and contribution of these programs to the colleges of education in which they are housed.

In response to the challenges confronting higher education/community college programs, Katsinas and Kempner (2005) offered a number of recommendations at various levels throughout the system of higher education. Several suggestions included broadening the base of support for university-based leadership development programs for community colleges; securing foundational support; and strengthening relationships between university-based programs and community colleges. As evidenced, these recommendations emphasize both the importance of leadership development opportunities and the need for investments in these programs. Their recommendations provide an action agenda for building the capacity of university-based leadership development programs and strengthening the leadership development opportunities for community college professionals.

Continuing Education Programs

A third type of university-based, leadership development programs for faculty members and administrators sponsored by colleges and universities consists of continuing education programs, characterized as open-enrollment or contract, non-credit programs, and certificate programs. Non-credit programs consist of short courses and seminars that range from one-day workshops to week-long residential programs. Some programs are regional or state-based, while others are national in scope. A distinctive feature of these programs is that they award Continuing Education Units (CEUs), which are designated to recognize the efforts made by individuals in approved non-credit continuing education programs. In addition, some programs offer various professional approvals in nursing, counseling, psychology, or other areas that may contribute to the recertification or relicensure of professionals.

Exemplary non-credit, continuing education leadership development programs for faculty and administrators include the Harvard Seminar for New Presidents, the Harvard Leadership Institute for Academic Librarians (www.Harvard.edu); the University of Michigan Health Care Leadership Programs, such as the Integrated Nurse Leadership Program, Pharmacy Leadership Institute, and Executive Nurse Fellows Program for current and future leaders (<http://www.med.umich.edu/leadershipo/training/exec/index.htm>). These programs represent some of the newest open enrollment, non-credit, leadership development programs for faculty members and administrators offered through colleges and universities. Programs such as these have great potential for further developing leadership throughout colleges and universities nationwide.

The trend towards continuing education certificate programs, most recently the blended credit and non-credit certificate programs, indicates the growing interest on the part of participants, and in most cases, their institutions, in earning both CEU Certificates of Completion and academic credit that is applicable towards graduate degree programs. These programs usually are based on a co-sponsorship basis between continuing education and academic units. As previously noted, The University of Alabama's Academy for Community College Leaders is representative of this type of blended program. Other academic units are also beginning to examine this model with respect to their disciplinary areas as the best means for delivering more complete and holistic educational experiences. Blended programs, perhaps, have the greatest potential for further developing leadership across disciplines and throughout colleges and universities nationwide.

Campus-based Programs Linked to Continuous Quality Improvement

Recently, some four-year colleges and universities have begun to focus resources on leadership development as part of their continuous improvement efforts (Dew & Nearing, 2004). These in-house programs differ from the other types of leadership development programs in that they are available only to faculty members and administrators at a particular institution.

For example, Pennsylvania State University offers an “Excellence in Leadership and Management Development Program” for leaders at all levels, including new department chairs and division directors. Cornell University now provides a “Discovering Leadership Program” to assist participants in learning about their leadership strengths and areas for improvement. The aim of this program is to foster effective teamwork for leading change on campus. The University of Alabama’s “Leadership University,” sponsored by Academic Affairs, UA Human Resources, and the College of Continuing Studies, is designed to

broaden the leadership capability of both faculty and academic and nonacademic administrators from across campus by developing their understanding of leadership and the University, enhancing their ability to develop and share their vision for the future, and create change both within the institution and in the community.
(<http://leadershipu.ua.edu>)

All three of these in-house higher education leadership development programs have created new approaches for helping to address the leadership development gap in higher education.

The four program types of university-based leadership development programs for faculty and administrators, which include higher education administration programs, higher education/community college programs, continuing education programs, and campus-based programs linked to continuous quality improvement, such as the partnerships at The University of Alabama between Academic Affairs, Human Resources, and the College of Continuing Studies, demonstrate the emerging realization that developing leaders throughout the higher

education enterprise is imperative. However, considering that there are 3,941 two and four-year institutions in America (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2000), higher education has taken but one small step in the advancement of leadership development for its faculty and administrators. Higher education still needs to devote more attention and resources to developing its own leaders.

Intangibles

All organizations, whether academic or non-academic, have both tangible and intangible assets. In business and industry, tangible assets include all physical assets, from desks and computers to manufacturing facilities and their products. At the same time, companies also possess a variety of non-physical intangible assets, some which are more well-known than others. For instance, some of the better known intangible assets include “patents, copyrights, trademarks, and trade secrets” (Cohen, 2005, p. 11), all of which fall under the major heading of “intellectual property” (Cohen, 2005, p. 1). Other company intangible assets, which are harder to classify and value, include, for instance, a list of repeat customers, a committed workforce, or a company executive with great managerial skills.

Often there is overlap between an organization’s tangible and intangible assets. This is because tangible assets frequently have intangibles embedded in them, as, for example, in the technology and knowledge contained in an airplane. This association and interaction between tangible and intangible assets contribute to corporate value-creation in terms of economic performance, the most important outcome in today’s highly competitive business arena.

Like business organizations, colleges and universities also have tangible and intangible assets. Tangible assets include all physical assets, from desks and computer labs, to classrooms and course materials, libraries, and other educational facilities. Academic organizations also

have various well-known intangible assets, such as patents, copyrights, and trademarks, and the intellectual property of faculty members. Other institutional intangible assets, which are harder to classify and value, include a list of well-established alumni, a prestigious institutional history, or a university president with great administrative and leadership skills. Together, the association and interaction between tangible and intangible assets also contribute to value-creation in terms of educational outcomes, such as increased knowledge, and enhanced skills and competencies, which are important intangible benefits in higher education.

Key Issues in the Comparison of Tangible and Intangible Assets

Importance

The above examples of tangible and intangible assets in organizations are useful in that they broadly illustrate some of the distinctions between these types of assets. More specifically, and within the context of a business organization, Phillips and Schmidt (2004) explained that tangible assets are “required for business operations and are readily visible, rigorously quantified, and are represented as a line item on a balance sheet” (p. 207). In contrast, a firm’s “intangible assets are key to competitive advantage in the knowledge era and are invisible, difficult to quantify, and not tracked through traditional accounting practices” (p. 207). This distinction, as presented in Table 8, illustrates why intangible assets are difficult to convert to monetary values.

Table 8

Comparison of Tangible and Intangible Assets

Tangible assets required for business operations	Intangible assets key to competitive advantage in the knowledge area
Readily visible	Invisible
Rigorously quantified	Difficult to quantify
Part of the balance sheet	Not tracked through accounting practices
Investment produces known returns	Assessment based on assumptions
Can be duplicated easily	Cannot be bought or imitated
Depreciates with use	Appreciates with purposeful use
Has finite application	Multiapplication without reducing value
Best managed with “scarcity” mentality	Best managed with “abundance” mentality
Best leveraged through control	Best leveraged through alignment
Can be accumulated	Dynamic: short shelf life when not in use

[Phillips and Schmidt (2004), p. 208]

Hard and Soft Data

A second distinction between tangible and intangible is the concept of hard data versus soft data. Hard data typically track to tangible assets whereas soft data track to intangible assets. The distinguishing feature between both types of data is due to the difficulty in converting soft data to monetary values. For example, whereas hard data are objectively based on monetary value, soft data are subjectively based on the perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs of individuals. The idea of soft or intangible data is based on this key point. The characteristics of both forms of data are illustrated in Table 9.

Table 9

Comparison of Hard Data and Soft Data

Hard Data	Soft Data
Objectively based	Subjectively based in many cases
Easy to measure and quantify	Difficult to measure and quantify, directly
Relatively easy to assign monetary values	Difficult to assign monetary values
Common measures of organizational performance	Less credible as a performance measure
Very credible with management	Usually behaviorally oriented

[Phillips & Schmidt, 2004, p. 208]

The concept of soft data as it applies to leadership development programs is particularly insightful. As explained by Phillips & Schmidt (2004), “Because many leadership development programs are designed to develop soft skills, soft data are needed in evaluation” (p. 147). This understanding suggests why in some situations, such as leadership development programs, intangible or soft data can be more important than the hard data.

This discussion of intangibles continues with a brief history of intangibles, types of intangible assets, and theory and research on intangible assets. Also covered is a discussion of leadership as an intangible asset, and new approaches to the leadership and management of intangible assets. This section provides a framework for thinking about all intangible assets within organizations, whether in business or academic institutions.

History of Intangible Assets

Intangibles have existed since the dawn of civilization. Several scholars have provided historical perspectives on intangibles. As explained by Cohen (2005):

Intangibles have been around a long time. The first prehistoric cave dweller who was able to start fires on purpose possessed some extremely valuable knowledge. That know-

how was an intangible asset. Early agrarian societies that farmed together possessed valuable organizational capital. Their collective effort created an intangible asset. (p. 9)

Cohen's explanation identified several intangibles, that of individual knowledge and collective organizational capital. These intangibles are further described as assets in terms of their value.

Non-financial value is implied.

Lev's (2001) historical perspective of intangibles highlights that while intangibles are not new, what is new is the dramatic surge in the importance of intangibles as follows:

Intangibles are not a new phenomenon. From the dawn of civilization, whenever ideas were put to use in households, fields, and workshops, intangibles were created. Breakthrough inventions such as electricity, internal combustion engines, the telephone, and pharmaceutical products have created waves of intangibles. (p. 11)

According to Lev and Hand (2003), the fundamental changes driving this increase in intangibles have been related to several economic forces: "intensified business competition brought about by globalization; deregulation in key economic sectors, such as telecommunications, transportation, energy, and financial services, and, the advent and acceleration of information technologies" (p. 5). These three developments have resulted in the restructuring of corporations to meet these challenges through greater innovation, outsourcing activities that do not produce significant competitive advantages, and the intensive use of information technology. All of these changes have dramatically increased the role of intangibles as the major value driver in today's business and industry. Alan Greenspan, former chairman of the Federal Reserve, captured the significance of the growing importance of intangibles in today's economy when, in a speech to the National Association for Business Economics, he was quoted as saying, "Over time, and particularly during the last decade or two, an ever-increasing share of GDP as reflected the value of ideas more than material substance or manual labor input" (cited in Kalafut & Low, 2001, p. 9).

Given this historical background on intangibles, understanding the different types of intangibles that have been identified by various scholars is important. Also important to the understanding of types of intangible assets is the recognition that these assets are discussed within the context of business organizations. However, they also can be applied to academic organizations.

Taxonomies, Theory and Research on Intangible Assets

Identifiable and Unidentifiable Intangible Assets

Cohen's (2005) taxonomy of intangibles identified two major categories of intangible assets: identifiable intangibles and unidentifiable intangibles (p. 10). Identifiable intangibles include important intellectual property assets, which consist of patents, copyrights, trademarks, trade secrets, brands, software codes, and research and development. In addition to identifiably, intellectual property assets include other characteristics, such as legal protection, economic benefits, and, marketability.

Also important to all organizations are unidentifiable intangible assets. These assets "remain hidden, at least in an accounting sense" (Cohen, 2005, p. 23). Unidentifiable intangible assets are "usually created as the result of firm-specific capital," (p. 23). Examples of firm-specific capital fall under the heading of intellectual capital, which is comprised of human capital, organizational capital, and other types of capital. Human capital, a term and theory created by the economist Becker in the 1960s that has developed into one of the most important intangible assets, refers to both physical and intellectual ability. Organizational capital refers to "capital that resides within an organization... as a result of the specific arrangement of assets of a firm" (p. 25). While these assets are generally unseen and difficult to assess, what is important is

to recognize that human and organizational capital exist and that they create benefits, whether financial, non-financial, or both, for an organization.

Given the basic understanding of types of intangible assets, it is also instructive to explain what is not an intangible asset. A few economic concepts that are not intangible assets include “competitive advantage, market share, added value, efficiency, repeat business, and customer loyalty” (Cohen, 2005, p. 27). According to Cohen, “it is important to separate the results of intangibles from the underlying economic engine that creates the result. ‘Efficiency’ is [a] good example. It is the result of better work processes or of trade secrets; it is not a stand-alone asset” (28).

Types of Intangible Assets Defined as Intellectual Capital

Daum’s (2003) definition of intangible assets included “everything that is not physical or investment, but is of value to the company” (p. 16). Further definition by Daum described intangible assets as a “company’s intangible resources. They are therefore also called ‘intellectual capital’” (p. 17). Different types of non-financial capital comprise the full range of intellectual capital. For example, within business organizations, human capital, structural capital, partner capital, and customer capital all constitute intellectual capital. A firm’s culture and strategic capabilities also are considered as intellectual capital or intangible assets. These types of intangible assets all contribute to an organization’s innovation and competitiveness that drive economic performance.

With regard to human capital, this type of intellectual capital is created by people based on their knowledge and new ideas. Human capital serves as a source of creativity and innovation within organizations. The human capital of an organization includes an individual’s capabilities, such as their knowledge, skills, competencies and experiences. However, human capital pertains

only to those individuals whose capabilities are of strategic importance in creating value for an organization. In addition, human capital can be enhanced only if individuals continue to upgrade their skills and add new ones, as for example, through participation in leadership development programs.

Several conclusions drawn by Daum (2003) are particularly insightful. First, “the core of intellectual capital is made up of human capital...human capital thus encompasses individual value in an economic sense” (p. 19). Second, “human capital is the source of innovation and the essential basis for corporate value creation” (p. 19). Third, “Intellectual capital is not just the sum of its components but is created from the interplay among them...The different intellectual capital components can support one another and can multiply the value of the sum of its components” (p. 33). Fourth and last, what makes this possible is having “an appropriate culture and right strategy at the right time (p. 33).

Johanson’s (2005) discussion of the human resource perspective on intellectual capital also recognized that “resources and capabilities related to people are often referred to as human capital,” and that human capital “has always been at the center of organizational performance” (p. 96). The shift from physical to intellectual capital as the major source of production in the American economy has increased “the interest of how [human capital]...contributes to the value creation of organizations...” (p. 96). Johanson emphasized the importance of human capital as a category of intellectual capital and as the most important intangible resource of firms. Like Daum (2003), Johanson also indicated that intellectual capital is more than the sum of the human, structural, and other intangible resources of a firm. Intellectual capital creates the most value through the complementary interaction among the different categories of intellectual capital.

By definition, human capital relates to “the competence of employees, which includes the knowledge, skills, experiences, and abilities of people” (Johanson, 2005, p. 97). Examples of human capital which may be either generic or unique to an individual include “innovation capacity, creativity, know-how, experience, teamwork capacity, employee flexibility, tolerance for ambiguity, motivation, satisfaction, learning capacity, loyalty, and formal training and education” (p. 97). These examples illustrate the importance of human capital as a central element of intellectual capital, and the importance of LDPs in developing these leadership competencies.

Leadership as an Intangible Asset

Leadership has been identified in the literature as an intangible asset (Brooking, 1997; Kaplan & Norton, 1992; Low & Kalafut, 2002; Shannon, 2003). Because intangible assets are considered in terms of an organization’s resources, they are frequently referred to as intellectual capital in most scholarly works. As such, leadership constitutes one of the components of intellectual capital, that of human capital. Human capital has been described as “the individual capabilities of...employees and managers: their knowledge, skills, competencies, and experiences” (Daum, 2003, p. 18). This understanding also applies to the knowledge, skills, competencies, and experiences of leaders.

Leadership Knowledge, Skills, Competencies, and Experiences

Knowledge about leadership is created through learning. One’s knowledge about leadership is dependent on one’s ability to learn. Learning about leadership is based on several propositions as articulated by Middlehurst (1993). These propositions include the following: leadership can be learned; learning to lead and learning about leadership are linked; learning for leadership takes place in a variety of ways and relies on a range of strategies and opportunities;

leadership and learning are closely related; learning about leadership is a life-long process; learning for leadership depends on learning how to learn; and, universities that develop the capacity to learn about leadership at the top of institutions serve as examples for other levels within colleges and universities which helps promote and facilitate learning throughout institutions. Together, all these propositions stress the importance of learning as the means for creating knowledge about leadership.

Leadership skills and competencies cover a broad range of talents. The research and scholarship on skills and abilities have produced volumes of journal articles, book chapters, texts, reports, and other documents dealing with these matters from various perspectives. Several works have developed multi-frame models that delineate the leadership skills needed in organizations. For example, Bolman and Deal (1997) consolidated the major schools of organizational thought into five perspectives (frames) for viewing organizational problems and potential solutions. These frames form a typology that includes the structural, human resource, political, symbolic, and cybernetic frames. Recognizing that “all organizations contain multiple realities and that every event could be interpreted in multiple ways” (p. 322), Bolman and Deal suggested that effective leaders must have a comprehensive understanding of all five perspectives. The highest level of understanding is represented by a fifth and final frame—the cybernetic frame. The cybernetic views of Bolman and Deal demonstrate that in order for leaders to enhance their ability to understand and manage the complexities of organizations developing a well-understood, multi-frame approach is imperative.

Bolman and Deal’s (1997) study also developed a number of leadership themes and related skill sets keyed to each of the organizational frames that were deemed to be important to the achievement of organizational effectiveness. The organizational frames and related

leadership themes and skill sets also included various conceptions of organizational leaders. For example, from the structural perspective, the concept of structural leaders as “social architects” emphasized three related skills: the ability to analyze and design the right blueprint for an organization’s structure and strategy; the ability to get organizational plans accepted and ideas implemented; and, the ability to continually experiment, evaluate, and adapt.

From a human resource perspective, the concept of the human resource leader as “catalyst, facilitator, and servant” is emphasized (Bolman & Deal, 1997, p. 430). Human resource leadership is based on several principles, which can be translated into skills. These skills include: believing in people and communicating that belief; being visible and accessible through such practices as “management by wandering around;” and, “empowering employees by increasing participation, providing support, sharing information, and moving decision making as far down the organization as possible” (p. 432).

The concept of leader as “advocate” is an interpretation of the political frame. Building networks and coalitions through identifying relevant relationships, accurately assessing who might resist cooperation and why, developing relationships with the opposing forces to facilitate the negotiation process needed to deal with resistance, and implementing more forceful measures if necessary are considered essential leadership skills of the political leader. Bolman and Deal’s summary of the political perspective also emphasized another important skill: the ability to practice the positive and constructive aspects of politics.

From the symbolic perspective, the leader is conceptualized as an artist, prophet, and poet. The primary leadership skill of the leader is to “bring order, meaning, and predictability out of chaos and confusion” (Bolman & Deal, 1997, p. 439). Other related leadership skills include: the ability to use symbols to capture attention; the ability to provide plausible

interpretations of experience; the ability to create and communicate a vision, and the ability to tell stories. Through the use of symbolic acts, leaders can foreshadow change, cultivate followership, and motivate followers to pursue higher goals and objectives.

The cybernetic frame views leadership from a systems' perspective. This perspective emphasizes a multi-frame approach to leadership. A sampling of the specific leadership skills needed within the context of this frame include: the ability to view a system as a set of interacting and interrelated parts; the ability to view human organizations as open systems with permeable boundaries that enable them to be continually engaged in importing, transforming, and exporting matter, energy, information and people; and, the ability to view organizations as a hierarchical arrangement of subsystems, systems, and super-system.

As concluded by Bolman and Deal (1997), "Wise leaders understand their own strengths, work to expand them and build teams that together can provide leadership in all four modes— structural, political, human resource, and symbolic" (p. 445). The fifth and final frame, the cybernetic perspective, emphasizes the ability to reframe through the use multiple lenses, which is seen as vital to effective leadership and management within organizations. For a more complete listing of leadership skills, see Appendix B.

Other scholars, such as Birnbaum (1988), also have developed multi-frame models within the context of higher education. For example, Birnbaum's perspective of institutional functioning in colleges and universities presented a different yet complementary typology of institutional reality. In this typology of academic institutions, four distinct institutional types were identified: the collegial, bureaucratic, political, and the anarchical institution (Birnbaum, 1988). Birnbaum also included a fifth institutional type, the cybernetic institution, which may best be understood as a synthesis featuring the best attributes of the other four. Within

Birbaum's typology, the development of five leadership themes and their corresponding leadership skills sets were presented. These leadership themes included leading and influencing, complicating, learning, administering and controlling, and balancing. Some of the leadership skills associated with the theme of leading and influencing included: the ability to provide both transactional and transformative leadership, and the ability to cultivate leadership within various subunits. Within the leadership theme of complicating, some of the related leadership skills included the ability to recognize possible unanticipated consequences to one's action, and the ability to rely on intuition.

With respect to the leadership theme of learning, several of the skills emphasized covered the ability to detect and understand cognitive biases and preconceptions that may influence judgment, and the ability to encourage "dissensus." The leadership theme of administering and controlling covered a whole list of leadership skills ranging from the ability to exercise information-related skills, communication and interaction skills, and human-relation skills, to the ability to value and manage inconsistencies and dichotomies. As for the leadership theme of balancing, the leadership skill most emphasized was the ability to achieve institutional balance by sustaining institutional structures, processes and cultures through minor adjustments rather than dramatic changes unless significant changes were warranted (see Appendix D).

A third multi-frame model by Berquist (1992) addressed the need for an analysis of academic cultures to better understand the dynamics of organizational life within institutions. Berquist provided an analysis of four collegiate cultures and a framework for leading change within these "complicated and often closed organizations" (p. xii). The four cultures, each with its own history, perspectives, and values, included the collegial, managerial, developmental, and

negotiating cultures. Berquist maintained that while all four cultures exist in virtually every collegiate institution, one of the four cultures is always dominant.

Like the multi-frame works by Bolman and Deal (1997), and Birnbaum (1988), Berquist's (1992) study developed a number of leadership themes based on qualities of effective leadership and related skill sets most often associated with the various academic cultures. These themes, qualities and skills pertain to the following types of leadership: charismatic, competency-based, servant, and egalitarian. For instance, regarding the collegial culture, the qualities of effective leadership emphasized charisma, wisdom, vision, and political savvy. Several of the related leadership skills included: the ability to gain authority because of quality of thought and character; the ability to assume leadership through committee and deliberative group activities or from autonomous academic activities; and the ability to exert leadership through the complex give-and-take of campus politics. With respect to the managerial culture, the leadership qualities of competence, entrepreneurship, and vision were considered most effective. Related skills included 1) the ability to fill and demonstrate competence within a clearly specified role within a formal, hierarchical structure; 2) the ability to generate entrepreneurial approaches to problem solving; and, 3) the ability to combine innovation and creativity with intuition and efficient administration.

Within the developmental culture, the qualities of effective leadership were identified as those of idealism, collaboration, rationalism, spirit of inquiry, commitment of inclusiveness, emphasis on conflict resolution, charisma, and service. The related skills included 1) the ability to create a positive influence on the life of an institution and its people; 2) the ability to bridge the gap between the needs of individuals and the requirements of the institution; and, 3) the ability to promote inclusiveness and encourage participation and involvement. The fourth

culture, identified as the negotiating culture, highlighted the leadership qualities of valuing equity and egalitarianism, concern of formal structure and procedures, and commitment to a long-term leadership position. The related skills included 1) the ability to formulate common plans and integrate complementary assumptions with the other academic cultures about change in higher education; 2) the ability to collaborate with many different kinds of people to achieve objectives, accomplish tasks, and/or share opinions; and, 3) the ability to achieve compatibility between personal and organizational well-being (see Appendix E).

Senge's (1990) work on learning organizations marked a new and different approach to understanding leadership, learning, and organizations. The idea of a learning organization emphasized that the goal of an organization should be to become a learning organization where people from all levels are continually learning how to learn together. Within the context of learning organizations, Senge identified three types of leaders: leaders as designers, stewards, and teachers. These are the leaders who are responsible for building learning organizations. Various leadership skills are associated with each of these types of leaders.

The conception of leader as designer emphasizes an array of skills, such as the ability to: inspire the vision of learning organizations; design an organization's governing ideas; understand interdependencies; design learning processes; and, abandon the traditional paradigm of management in order to master the new art of leadership as design work. The second conception of leader as steward is linked to another set of leadership skills. These skills focus on the ability to: relate a sense of purpose or destiny for an organization; build a shared vision; accept, embrace and seek change; experiment and take risks; tap the intellectual capacity of people at all levels; and, create a new paradigm of organizations that operate in a continual learning mode, creating change. The third conception of leader as teacher deals with yet another set of

leadership skills. These skills are associated with the ability to 1) help people see the big picture and how different parts of an organization interact; 2) foster learning for everyone; and, 3) be a true learner. Leaders who have the capacity to serve in all three roles, designer, steward, and teacher demonstrate another set of skills and abilities. These leaders have the ability to generate and master creative tension within an organization in order to energize an organization and see reality more clearly; highlight the gaps between reality and vision; influence various aspects of current reality through creative tension; and, help people see that collectively they can influence aspects of reality (see Appendix L).

One work that has addressed the issue of leadership competencies is the report on *Competencies for Community College Leaders*, published by the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) (2005). This report provided a competency framework that categorized competencies according to six topical areas, which included organizational strategy, resource management, communication, collaboration community college advocacy and professionalism. Within each category various illustrations of competencies were indicated. For example, within the category of organizational strategy, “develop[ing] a positive environment that supports innovation, teamwork, and successful outcomes” was identified as a competency. Within the category of resource management, “managing conflict and change in ways that contribute to the long-term viability of the organization” was given as a competency. Within the category of communication, “creat[ing] and maintain[ing] open communications regarding resources, priorities, and expectations” was noted as a competency. The competency identified within the category of collaboration included “embrac[ing] and employ[ing] the diversity of individuals, cultures, values, ideas, and communication styles. The competency included within the category of community college advocacy emphasized “advanc[ing] lifelong learning and

support[ing] a learner-centered and learning-centered environment.” The sixth and final competency category in AACCC’s framework emphasized “contribut[ing] to the profession through professional development programs, professional organizational leadership, and research/publication.” These and other leadership competencies are indicative of the types of competencies that are viewed as essential to the effective performance of a community college leader. Many of these same competencies also are applicable to leaders in colleges and universities. Competencies such as these contribute to the value of leadership provided by individuals in academic institutions.

The knowledge, skills, competencies, and experiences of leaders such as those just described combine to make leadership an intangible asset in organizations. Through LDPs the knowledge, skills, competencies, and experiences of leaders are enhanced. Enhanced leadership capacities provide intangible benefits at multiple levels, including individual, organization, and system levels. Thus, LDPs ultimately can be viewed as part of a value chain higher education.

Measurement and Management Issues of Intangible Assets

The importance of human capital has triggered the ongoing debate on how and whether to value humans and their contribution to organizational performance. As a result, various tools for visualizing, measuring, and managing intangible values have been developed. Some of these tools include the Balanced Scorecard by Kaplan and Norton (1996), HR Scorecard by Becker, Huselid, and Ulrich (2001), Leadership Scorecard by Phillips and Schmidt (2004), HR Value Proposition by Ulrich and Brockbank (2005), and the Value Creation Index by Low and Kalafut (2002), among others.

The balanced scorecard concept by Kaplan and Norton (1996) was the first tool designed to identify and describe intangible assets and the value they create. This concept also measures

an organization's performance from four major perspectives: financial, customer, internal process, and learning and growth. Briefly summarized, balanced scorecards focus on

The knowledge, skills, and systems that employees need (learning and growth) to innovate and build the right strategic capabilities and efficiencies that deliver specific value to the market (the customers), which will eventually lead to higher shareholder value (the financials). (Kaplan & Norton, 2000, p. 169)

Kaplan and Norton advanced that the value of a company's intangible assets, such as human, information, and organizational capital, which includes leadership as an intangible asset, can be measured in terms of cause and effect by estimating how closely aligned those assets are to a company's strategy and performance. They concluded that the measures of intangible assets are usually "softer" or more subjective than...financial measures" that managers traditionally use to motivate and assess performance. Some managers avoid measuring intangible assets because of the hard data versus soft data issue. However, even if the measures are not precise, "the simple act of attempting to gauge the capabilities of employees, information systems, and organization capital communicates the importance of these drivers for value creation (Kaplan & Norton, 2004, p. 63).

With respect to the HR Scorecard concept, Becker, Huselid, and Ulrich (2001) indicated that it is possible to causally link people and their activities to strategic objectives in order to understand how human capital creates value. According to these authors, "human capital is the foundation of value creation" (p. xi). However, even though human capital is deemed the most important intangible asset, it is the "least understood, least prone to measurement, and hence least susceptible to management" (p. ix). In addressing this problem, the authors provided a framework to help human resources' professionals measure human resources performance and its contribution to organizational performance. Their framework also provides human resources professionals with a new approach to managing a firm's 'HR architecture' (the sum of the HR

function, the broader HR system, and resulting employee behaviors) as a strategic asset, as well as measuring its contribution to the firm's performance (p. xi). A strategic asset, as defined in the literature, refers to, "the set of difficult to trade and imitate scarce, appropriable and specialized *resources* and *capabilities* that bestow the firm's competitive advantage" (Amit & Shoemaker, 1993, p. 36).

With respect to the Leadership Scorecard, which is designed to evaluate the success of leadership development programs, Phillips and Schmidt (2004) indicated that, "Most leadership development programs are driving measures in the human capital area... [and that] many of these measures are often considered intangible" (p. 212). Some of the common human capital measures include innovation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, experience, learning, competencies, educational level, HR investment, and leadership. Leadership development programs that drive intangible benefits along these dimensions are considered a critical component of business strategy by leading companies. As such, they can and should be measured and reported as part of the overall evaluation.

With regard to the HR Value Proposition by Ulrich and Brockbank (2005), this concept was designed to promote human resource professionals not only as employee champions, administrative experts, and change agents, but also as strategic partners in their organizations. Each of these four roles focuses on the different deliverables or outcomes of the human resource function. For example,

Employee champions deliver competent and committed employees [while] administrative experts deliver efficient human resources practices. Change agents deliver capacity for change in individual behavior and organization culture [while] strategic partners deliver business results. (p. x)

Each of these roles creates value for the various constituents served by human resources. As described by the authors, "The HR value proposition means that HR practices, departments,

and professionals produce positive outcomes for key stakeholders—employees, line managers, customers, and investors” (p. 2). To help human resources professionals assess their value as perceived by customers, investors, managers and employees, and build value-added human resources practices and competencies, the authors presented a human resources value framework or blueprint for the future. The framework these authors outlined covered three critical components of the human resources proposition: vision, goals, and actions. The vision of the human resources premise is value creation. The goals are the elements that create value, such as serving both external and internal constituents, crafting human practices, building human resources practices, and ensuring human resources professionalism by investing in training and development experiences (Ulrich & Brockbank, 2005, p. 16). Some of the actions considered to have the greatest impact on value creation, included: creating market value for investors by increasing intangibles; delivering strategy by building organization capabilities; and, managing people, performance, information, and work processes and practices in ways that add value. This human resources value framework, which applies to large, global, and multinational firms, also is applicable to small firms and public agencies. The centrality of human resources in building people and organizational capabilities as intangibles that add value is universal.

The HR Value Proposition also demonstrated how the market value of companies has changed since the 1960s. Whereas 75 to 90% of a firm’s market value used to be directly tied to earnings, since 1990 only about half of a firm’s market value can be tied to financial performance. This change is indicative of how market value has become increasingly tied to what the financial community calls “*intangibles*” (Ulrich & Brockbank, 2005, p. 48). Described from a financial perspective, “Intangibles represent value derived from choices about what happens inside the firm and from how investors value those decisions, rather than from its

physical assets...For any organization, intangibles are the perceived outcomes of specific actions” (p. 48).

One other understanding about the importance of intangibles was also captured by Ulrich and Brockbank (2005) as evidenced in the following explanation of intangible value:

It is all too easy to focus intangible value on what is easy to measure—investments in R&D, technology, or brand—but that leaves crucial intangibles, involving investments in organization and people, under the radar. Organizations and people become intangible assets when they give investors confidence in future, tangible earnings...(p. 48)

Through investments in people and organizations, individual and organizational intangibles, also considered as capabilities, are built that add intangible value. Examples of organizational capabilities of exemplary companies include talent, speed, shared mindset, accountability, collaboration, learning, leadership, innovation, strategy, and efficiency, among others. Capabilities such as these, when perceived by an organization’s constituents, make intangibles tangible. As such, intangibles can be used in an “*intangibles audit*” (Ulrich & Brockbank, p. 52) to assess what is necessary to deliver value to constituents, measure how well intangibles are being delivered, and lead to an action plan for improvement. From a human resources perspective, Ulrich and Brockbank concluded that, “HR professionals should be architects and thought leaders in defining and creating each of these capabilities” (p. 50). Human resources professionals also should perform intangibles audits as part of their strategic role within organizations.

With respect to The Value Creation Index (VCI) developed by Jonathan Low and colleagues at Cap Gemini Ernst & Young’s Center for Business Innovation (CBI), this approach was designed for assessing the value of an organization based on a wide variety of intangibles (Low & Kalafut, 2002). According to Low, “Traditional methods of assessing organizational performance are no longer adequate in today’s economy...value in today’s [organizations] is

increasingly represented in intangible drivers like innovation, people, ideas, and brand” (cited in Shannon, 2003, p. 49). Intangibles function as a “set of levers that, if effectively applied, can improve both corporate performance and market value” (Baum, 2000, p. 3).

On the basis of extensive research in the corporate sector, Low and Kalafut (2002) identified twelve key intangibles as important to measuring the value of an organization. The twelve intangibles included: leadership, strategy, communications, brand, reputation, alliances and networks, technology, human capital, workplace/couture, innovation, intellectual capital, and adaptability. This list can be divided into three categories as indicated in Table 10.

Table 10

The Twelve Intangibles That Drive Performance

Category	Key Intangibles
Leadership	Leadership, strategy execution, communication and transparency
Relationships (external intangibles)	Brand equity, reputation, networks and alliances
Organization (internal intangibles)	Technology and processes, human capital, workplace organization and culture, innovation, intellectual capital, adaptability

[Low and Kalafut (2002), p. vii]

Low and Kalafut’s (2002) list of key intangibles was identified as being most important both to their clients and their research at the time of their study. The quality of an organization’s leadership was ranked among the most important intangibles. However, the authors recognized that other intangibles of greater importance might emerge in the future. They also indicated that the key intangibles for any organization would vary depending on the character of the organization.

With specific regard to the intangible of leadership and its value, Low and Kalafut (2002) identified what matters most to constituents about leadership. According to their research, leadership credibility, experience, quality of leadership, and leadership capability, were assessed as the primary value drivers relating to leadership. What also matters is the leader's capability to manage some of the organization's crucial intangibles. Leaders manage key intangibles by fulfilling four central tasks: creating a vision, developing the management team, setting the cultural tone; and planning for succession. Successful leaders are deemed to be those who articulate a vision, develop people under them, and create a culture in which people learn to work hard and cooperate, and plan for their own replacement.

Low and Kalafut (2002) also provided a five-step process for managing intangibles. Their steps included 1) determining the critical intangibles to an organization; 2) deciding on the metrics for measuring the value of key intangibles; 3) creating a baseline and benchmarking it against the competition; 4) undertaking initiatives to improve performance on key intangibles; and, 5) communicating openly with important groups. The challenge for any organization today is not just to determine which intangibles are critical to an organization, but how to manage intangibles in order to optimize their value, and therefore, the value of an organization.

Having a non-traditional methodology of measurement is essential in today's organizations in order to account for the non-financial factors that affect value creation. More and more, leaders and managers are adopting and adapting non-traditional methodologies of measurement as just described. These new measurement and management tools have the ability to quantify the impact of intangibles on value creation. They also help leaders and managers identify the drivers of their organization's intangible value, what portion of its value resides in intangibles, and how they can better manage their organization's intangibles. Over time, these

models will evolve, continuing to identify intangibles that drive value creation while remaining sufficiently flexible so they can adapt to the constantly changing sources of value. Other non-traditional measurement and management models also will emerge to capture the dynamics of intangible assets and value creation that are unique to given industries, different economies, as well as individual organizations.

Value/Valuation

Valuation is the process of determining the value of something, and is closely linked to the concept of intangible assets, such as intellectual capital, human capital, and organizational capital. These three kinds of intangibles are harder to classify and value and other intangible assets. According to Bernard Marr (2005), he concluded that, “intellectual capital [is] the most important driver of value and competitive advantage in today’s economy” (p. xviii).

One of the most fundamental and yet important valuation concepts is that “valuation must reflect value *to someone*” (Cohen, 2005, p. 3). Value also has been explained in terms of “someone receiv[ing] something of worth from a transaction” (Ulrich & Brockbank, 2005, p. 2). In this regard, “value... is defined by the receiver more than the giver” (p. 3). For example, LDPs add individual value when they help participants enhance their leadership capacity. It is not the design of a program that matters most, but what participants gain from these leadership development activities. The intangible benefits gained by participants of LDPs also add value indirectly to the institutions that support and employ participants of LDPs and, ultimately, the entire system of higher education. Thus LDPs can be viewed as part of a value-chain in higher education.

For the purposes of this research, value was defined as the process of conceptualizing value rather than assessing physical value. Specifically, conceptual value largely depends on

“perception,” what people perceive to be valuable leadership qualities at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels, and the competitive advantages these qualities can create at multiple levels. Competitive advantage was one of four key aspects (success at helping, priority, and sufficiency) of leadership development programs (LDPs) that was investigated in this research.

Chapter Summary

The purpose of this study was to ascertain the perceived value of leadership development programs (LDPs) for administrators in higher education. Specifically, this research examined the issues of 1) perceived value of LDPs, 2) LDPs’ success at helping build leadership skills, abilities, and competencies, 3) LDPs being a priority, 4) LDPs providing competitive advantages, 5) LDPs’ sufficiency at meeting leadership development needs of current and future leaders, 6) effectiveness of types of LDPs (non-credit, credit, and blended credit and non-credit), 7) types of intangible assets provided by LDPs, and 8) measurement and management of intangible assets. It investigated perceptions of LDP impact at the individual, institutional and higher education enterprise levels for three types of leadership development programs: non-credit, credit, and blended (credit and non-credit).

This study also endeavored to positively influence the decision for an increasing number of LDPs for administrators in higher education with an increasing attendance base. The study of leadership, leadership development, intangibles, and value creation are interconnected. This important understanding presented in the literature was one that guided the development of the Value Creation Survey (VCS) instrument used in this study.

Although major scholarly work in the four areas (leadership, leadership development, intangibles, and value creation) has been conducted in other fields such as social psychology and

management science, in most cases this scholarship can and should be applied to higher education. An integrative approach that makes use of one literature base on leadership in organizations to inform another literature base on leadership in higher education provides greater insights as to strengthening leadership in colleges and universities. It also stimulates the study of leadership in higher education. An integrative approach should also apply to the literature on leadership development, intangibles, and value creation.

Important themes in the literature include the interrelationships of the following: 1) leadership behavior, actions, and style are consistently found in the works of Bensimon, Neuman, & Birnbaum (1986), Rost (1991), Bryman (1992), Middlehurst (1993), Vicere and Fulmer, (1998), Yukl (2002), and Story (2004); 2) leadership development process of learning is evidenced in the works of Senge (1990), Middlehurst (1993), Conger (1992), Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, Roth, and Smith (1999), London, (2002), and Avery (2004); and 3) intangible assets as a combination intellectual and human capital, which are based on one's leadership competencies, such as knowledge, skills and experiences are discussed in the works of Kaplan and Norton (1992), Brooking (1997), Lev (2001), Low and Kalafut (2001), Lev and Hand (2003), Daum (2003), Shannon (2003), Phillips and Schmidt (2004), Cohen (2005), and Johanson (2005); 4) intangible assets as a source of competitive advantages are stressed in the works of Low and Kalafut (2001), Shannon (2003), and Zadrozny (2006); 5) measurement and management issues of intangible assets are addressed in the works of Kaplan and Norton (1996), Becker, Huselid, and Ulrich (2001), Low and Kalafut (2002), Phillips and Schmidt (2004), Ulrich and Brockbank (2005), and Zadrozny (2006); 6) value/valuation process of conceptualizing value, based on what is perceived to be valuable leadership qualities are developed in the works of Baum (2000), Conger (1992), Low and Kalafut (2002), Shannon,

(2003), Marr (2005), Cohen (2005), Ulrich and Brockbank (2005), Zadrozny (2006), and Hoyt and Whyte (2011).

These themes influenced this study in the following way. First, the leadership theories and perspectives applied in this study were four: behavioral theories based on the research of Kouses and Posner (1987), Bensimon, Newman, and Birnbaum (1989), Bass (1990), Rost (1991), Bryman (1992), Middlehurst (1993), Yukl (2002), McCauley and Van Velsor (2004), Antonakis, Cionciolo, and Sternberg (2004), Avery (2004), and Story (2004). Second, perceptual and cognitive theories and perspectives based on the research of Bensimon, Neuman, and Birnbaum (1989), Berquist (1992), McNay (1995), Middlehurst (1995), Rowley and Sherman (2001), Bolman and Deal (1997), and Birnbaum (1988). Third, excellence theories were drawn from the works of Peters and Waterman (1982), Bass (1990), Rost (1991), and, Ruben (2004). Fourth, integrative theories were drawn from the works of Yukl (2002) and Creswell (2003). Both objective and subjective perspectives (Bensimon, Neuman, & Birnbaum, 1989; Middlehurst, 1993; Yukl, 2002) were applied.

Based upon the findings from this literature review, it became evident that there is an insufficient number of LDPs in higher education institutions to meet the needs of current and future leaders (Fife, 1987; Green, 1988; Green & McDade, 1991; McDade & Lewis, 1994; Middlehurst, 1995; Munitz, 1995; Rhodes, 2001; Ruben, 2004). Furthermore, whereas LDPs should be considered a priority, they have not been a high priority in higher education (McDade, 1987; Green, 1988; Fife & Goodchild, 1991; Green & McDade, 1991; McDade & Lewis, 1994; Middlehurst, 1995; Munitz, 1995; Freed, Klugman, & Fife, 1997; Birnbaum, 2001; Rhodes, 2001; Boggs, 2003; Ruben, 2004). In addition, whereas LDPs should be understood as being

connected to intangible assets, competitive advantages, and value creation, LDPs and these connections have only begun to appear in the academic arena (Shannon, 2003).

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore more fully the perceived value of leadership development programs (LDPs) designed for administrators in four-year institutions of higher education. LDPs included credit, non-credit, and blended (credit and non-credit). More specifically, the researcher investigated the intangible value of LDPs to the individual, institution, and the higher education enterprise. According to Low and Kalafut (2002), leadership as an intangible competency or asset, which, if effectively developed and applied, can serve as a source of “unseen and unrecognized value [also regarded as an] ‘invisible advantage’” in today’s competitive environment” (p. 226). The concepts of value and intangibles and their relationships to leadership development programs and leadership in higher education were important factors in this study.

Significance of the Study

This study was significant for the following reasons. First, the literature bases on leadership, leadership development, intangibles, and valuation/value continue to evolve. As a consequence, new perspectives for each continue to emerge. This is especially true of intangibles, viewed as shaping the essence of one’s leadership qualities, and valuation/value, the tangible outcomes used to judge one’s leadership impact. Regarding the subject of intangibles, their very nature makes them “harder to measure, to quantify, to manage—harder to even define—than tangibles” (Blair & Wallman, 2001, p. 2). Regarding the subject of

valuation/value, this process has been described as a “mysterious black box” (Cohen, 2005, p. 2). This degree of uncertainty posed a special challenge for this research and the development of the Value Creation Survey (VCS) instrument.

Second, there is not an extensive literature base that provides a quantitative focus on the value of LDPs for administrators in higher education. These LDPs and the perceived value they create at multiple levels (individual, institutional, higher education enterprise) must be better understood and articulated as this will enhance support for them because the value they create will be more widely acknowledged. This study came with a goal of both wanting to add to the literature base and the hope of enriching it and it is felt that this goal was achieved.

Research Problem

While both academic and nonacademic organizations need effective leaders and managers to deal with the challenges of an uncertain environment and the complexities of organizational life, the research suggests (McDade, 1987; Green, 1988; Green & McDade, 1991; McDade & Lewis, 1994; Ruben, 2004) that non-academic organizations, particularly business organizations and the military, are more committed than academic organizations to making major investments of time, money, and energy in leadership development. Business organizations, particularly large corporations, invest heavily in leadership development programs as part of their search for improved competitiveness (Conger, 1993; Vicere & Fulmer, 1997; Conger & Benjamin, 1999; Fulmer & Goldsmith, 2001; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004). The U.S. Military invests more than any other organization in the world in leadership development programs to instill a leadership ethos within the military culture (Conger & Benjamin, 1999, p. 82). For those organizations that understand the value of leadership and leadership development

opportunities in terms of intangible benefits that drive organizational performance and competitiveness, investments in these areas are high priorities.

In contrast with the corporate and military arenas, higher education's investment in leadership and leadership development for administrators and the institutions they serve, the researcher assumed that the investment is unknown. Addressing this issue, Ruben (2004), stressed that leadership development opportunities for these professionals and their institutions "must become a higher priority" (p. 298). In this researcher's opinion, to achieve the kind of leadership appropriate to the tasks and needs of colleges and universities, leadership and leadership development must be better understood and valued throughout the Academy, and investments must become a higher priority. To help in this regard, this researcher chose a quantitative approach to assess the value of LDPs for administrators. To better understand the perceived value and intangible benefits that LDPs create, a quantitative research design was used.

Value Creation Approach

With the rise of a new economy in the early twenty-first century, the concepts of value and intangibles have become increasingly important to business performance in today's competitive environment. Value is commonly defined as "relative worth, utility, or importance" or as "something (as a principle or quality) intrinsically valuable or desirable" (Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2006). Intangibles are commonly defined as "an asset (as goodwill) that is not corporeal" or as "an abstract quality or attribute (as loyalty or creativity)" (Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2006). The importance of these concepts has been reflected in the development and use of new value creation approaches and tools, which deal explicitly with intangibles. Examples include: *The HR Value Proposition*

(Ulrich & Brockbank, 2005); Perceived User Value Diagnostic Tool (Roffe, 2003); Value Dynamics Framework (Boulton, Libert, & Samek, 2000); Value Creation Index (VCI) (Low & Kalafut, 2002); Value Chain Scoreboard (VCS) (Lev, 2001); and, Value Creation Map (Marr, Schiuma, & Neely, 2004). The increased interest in and study of these concepts, approaches and tools, have occupied, “an ever larger niche in the mushrooming management literature, both popular and academic” (Lev, 2001, p. 1).

Except for the Perceived User Value Diagnostic Tool (Roffe, 2003), which was designed to evaluate the perceived value of e-learning services delivered through continuing education at the University of Wales, Lampeter, all but one of these value creation approaches and tools have been designed for business organizations with a focus on corporate performance, particularly economic performance. These ideas, tools, and techniques can be translated to all types of organizations, including academic organizations. For example, the Value Creation Index (VCI), developed by Low and Kalafut (2002), has emerged as an approach that is also finding a receptive audience in European and American universities and research organizations that are experiencing increasing competition for resources (Blair & Wallman, 2001). An even more specific example is that of The University of Chicago’s Graham School of General Studies, which adapted and applied the VCI process to its operations in order to

position the school correctly in an increasingly competitive environment...find an alternative means of measuring the performance of the school than year-end financials...and...give focus to...becoming a data driven organization identified in the strategic plan. (Shannon, 2003, p. 51)

Of the six key intangibles identified as critical to the successful performance of the school, which included leadership, reputation, strategy execution, human capital, technology and process, and communication, the intangible of leadership ranked first as the most important driver of performance, value creation, and competitive advantage in a university context.

The idea to employ a value creation approach in this study was based on the initiative undertaken by the University of Chicago's Graham School of General Studies (Shannon, 2003). The use of a "value creation approach" focused attention on the value of LDPs for administrators in higher education. These programs and the leadership capacities they create help drive performance and excellence in an increasingly competitive higher education environment. The intent of this study, with respect to continuing higher education, was to add to the research and scholarship that is focused on the perceived value of LDPs in terms of the tangible benefits they create at various levels, individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise, such tangible benefits understood as resting on an intangible asset base.

Quantitative Research Design

The above referenced value creation approach, together with the multi-level approach, was integrated into and operationalized as a quantitative study. The selection of the quantitative research design was based on a combination of deciding factors: the match between the research problem and the quantitative approach; the appropriateness of the theoretical perspective, strategies of inquiry, and, methods of data collection and analysis; and, the advantages this methodology afforded. The quantitative research design guided all aspects of this study.

Match Between Problem and Research Approach

This study's research problem addressed several issues. These issues included the need to better understand and advocate the following: the perceived value of university-based LDPs (credit, non-credit, and blended) for administrators in four-year colleges and universities in terms of the value they create at various levels (individual, institutional, and the higher education enterprise); the importance of making investments in these kinds of programs receiving a higher priority; and, the significance of thinking about leadership as a tangible asset, resting on an

intangible asset base, that drives performance, value creation, and competitive advantage in higher education. This study sought to identify factors that influence an outcome, explore the utility of an intervention, understand the best predictors of outcomes, and test a theory or explanation (Creswell, 2003). As a consequence, the quantitative approach was considered most appropriate.

Theoretical Perspective.

The theoretical perspective chosen for this study is reflective of the postpositivist worldview or paradigm that is based on certain assumptions and beliefs. As described by Creswell (2003) and Mertens (2005), these assumptions and beliefs include: the probable influence of causes on outcomes; the development of knowledge through careful observation and the measurement of objective reality; the importance of empirical observation and measurement when studying the behavior of individuals; the need to test or verify and refine laws or theories in order to make sense of the world; and, the belief that quasi-experimental methods (methods such as surveys) are more appropriate for educational and psychological research. These assumptions and beliefs, which are characteristic of the scientific method, underscore quantitative research. The rationale and choice of the quantitative approach for this study were based on these key assumptions and beliefs.

Survey Research Strategy

The survey research strategy was employed because of its scientific characteristics. This strategy was used “to generalize from a sample to a population so that inferences can be made about some characteristic, attitude, or behavior of this population” (Creswell, 2003, p. 154). This strategy also was used to describe, explain, and explore the constructs of value and intangible benefits as important variables in this study.

A cross-sectional survey was used to describe the characteristics of the selected sample and gather data at one point in time (Creswell, 2003). The sample for this study consisted of administrators who are designated as Institutional Representatives in the Association of Continuing Higher Education (ACHE), an international professional, continuing higher education association. Single-stage sampling, described as “one in which the researcher has access to names in the population and can sample the people directly” (Creswell, 2003, p. 156), also was used since the researcher had access to the ACHE Institutional Representatives membership list and was able to specifically request approval for the use of their names and contact information for research purposes. A convenience sampling strategy was implemented based on the availability of the persons chosen to participate in the survey and their willingness to complete the survey. Both access and cost were considered in the selection of the convenience sampling strategy. The limitation of this sample was that it did not include other members of ACHE, such as affiliate, professional or honorary members.

The survey method was considered appropriate for this study because of the advantages this method affords. For example, the use of a survey is the preferred type of data collection procedure because of “the economy of the survey design and the rapid turnaround of data collection” (Creswell, 2003, p. 154). Another key advantage of survey research is that it provides for the identification of attributes of a larger population from a small group of individuals (p. 154).

Methods of Data Collection

The intent of the specific methods of data collection used in this study was to specify the type of information to be collected in advance. These methods included predetermined questions on an instrument; closed-ended questions; types of data to be collected, such as beliefs and

perceptions; and, statistical or numeric analysis of data. These methods rely heavily on objective measures.

In addition to the identified philosophical ideas, strategies of inquiry and specific methods, a number of other research practices also were used in the design of this quantitative study. These practices included identifying variables to be studied, connecting variables to research questions; using standards of validity and reliability; observing and measuring data numerically; using unbiased approaches; and, employing statistical procedures (Creswell, 2003). All of these practices further describe the quantitative research approach as defined by Creswell (2003),

A quantitative approach is one in which the investigator primarily uses postpositivist claims for developing knowledge (i.e., cause and effect thinking, reduction to specific variables and hypotheses and questions, use of measurement and observation, and the test of theories), employs strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys, and collects data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data. (p. 18)

Rationale for the Selection of the Quantitative Research Design

With the current attention given to leadership, leadership development, and the value of intangible assets in non-academic organizations, this study examined these same issues within the context of academic organizations. The overall rationale for choosing a quantitative approach for this study was driven by the challenge to identify and report intangible measures or benefits that were purposefully not converted to monetary values and that were linked directly to LDPs for administrators. Although intangible measures and benefits may not be perceived as valuable as tangible measures and benefits, in some programs, such as, leadership development programs, “the intangible benefits can be more important than the tangible measures” (Phillips & Schmidt, 2004, p. 206). In addition, although intangible assets are difficult to quantify, this

study evidenced that intangible assets were key to competitive advantage in today's competitive higher education environment.

Because intangible measures and benefits typically are identified and based on the beliefs and perceptions of individuals, this study examined the beliefs and perceptions of continuing education administrators in higher education as a way to measure intangibles and the value they create. According to Phillips and Schmidt (2004), the focus on perceptions is appropriate as "Most leadership development programs [are] evaluated through perceived or...intangible benefits" (p. 297). Also, because perceptions are measurable, the quantitative approach was deemed appropriate to this study.

Research Questions

Eight research questions (RQs) were investigated and the results statistically analyzed. The eight questions fell into two categories. RQ 1 through RQ 3 in the first category dealt with individual perceptions about the value of LDPs to individuals (RQ 1), to institutions (RQ 2), or to the higher education enterprise (RQ 3). RQ 4 through RQ 8 in the second category focused on aspects of LDPs at those three levels. Depending upon the level asked about (individual, institutional, higher education enterprise), perceptual differences at each level made it mandatory to conceptualize three separate research questions (RQ1 through RQ3). Table 10 presents these eight research questions and the methods of analysis used to investigate them. The table also presents how the demographic items (VCS Part III) provided context for the statistical analyses. The research questions included the following:

- RQ 1. What is the value of LDPs (non-credit, credit, or blended non-credit and credit) designed for administrators at the individual level? (Part I: Your Beliefs about LDPs: 24 survey questions, A1 through A24)

- RQ 2. What is the value of LDPs (non-credit, credit, or blended non-credit and credit) designed for administrators at the institutional level? (Part I: Your Beliefs about LDPs: 12 survey questions, B1 through B12)
- RQ 3. What is the value of LPDs (non-credit, credit, or blended non-credit and credit) designed for administrators at the higher education enterprise level? (Part I: Your Beliefs about LDPs: 11 survey questions, C1 through C11)
- RQ 4. LDPs for administrators should be considered a priority at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels. (Part I: Your Beliefs about LDPs: survey questions D4, D5, D6)
- RQ 5. What models are most effective for enhancing leadership development at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels? (Part II: Your Beliefs About Current Program Offerings: 1, 2, 3)
- RQ 6. LDPs for administrators provide a competitive advantage at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels. (Part I: Your Beliefs about LDPs: survey questions D7, D8, D9)
- RQ 7. LDPs for administrators are successful at helping develop leadership competencies at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels. (Part I: Your Beliefs about LDPs: survey questions D1, D2, D3)
- RQ 8. LDPs are sufficient to meet the leadership development needs at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels. (Part I: Your Beliefs about LDPs: survey questions D10, D11, D12)

Table 11

Research Questions and Methods of Investigation

Research Question	Instrument	Analysis
RQ 1	Value Creation Survey (VCS)	Scale Creation for Value ratings of LDPs at the individual level; Reliability Statistics using Cronbach's Alpha; t-test and independent samples t test (Gender); and ANOVAs for selected demographics (Primary Role, How Long in Primary Role, Academic Appointment, How Long in Higher Education, Ethnicity, ACHE Region); Pearson Correlation Coefficients for items D1-D12 and A Value Scale (A1-24)
RQ 2	Value Creation Survey (VCS)	Scale Creation for Value ratings of LDPs at the institutional level; Reliability Statistics using Cronbach's Alpha; t-test and independent samples t-test (Gender) and ANOVAS for selected demographics (Ethnicity, ACHE Regions); Pearson Correlation Coefficients for items D1-D12 and B Value Scale (B1-12)
RQ 3	Value Creation Survey (VCS)	Scale Creation for Value ratings of LDPs at the higher education enterprise level; Reliability Statistics using Cronbach's Alpha; t-test and independent samples t-test (Gender) and ANOVAs for selected demographics (Ethnicity, ACHE Regions); Pearson Correlation Coefficients for items D1-D12 and C Value Scale (C1-C11)
RQ4	Value Creation Survey (VCS)	Frequencies and Percentages, and Histograms (means and standard deviations) about LDPs being a priority at the three levels (D4, D5, D6); ANOVAs by ACHE Regions

Research Question	Instrument	Analysis (continued)
RQ5	Value Creation Survey (VCS)	Frequencies and Percentages, and Bar Charts about program effectiveness (non-credit, credit, blended models) of LDPs at the three levels (II1, II2, II3); comparisons by demographics (How Long Employed in Higher Education, Gender, models of LDPs by ACHE region); ANOVAs for ACHE regional comparisons of program effectiveness (II-1, 2, 3 by ACHE region)
RQ6	Value Creation Survey (VCS)	Frequencies and Percentages, and Histograms (means and standard deviations) about LDPs being a competitive advantage at the three levels (ID7, ID8, ID9); ANOVAs by ACHE Regions; Pearson Correlation Coefficients for items ID7, ID8, ID9 and A, B, C Value Scales
RQ7	Value Creation Survey (VCS)	Frequencies and Percentages, and Histograms (means and standard deviations) about LDPs being successful at helping develop leadership competencies at the three levels (ID1, ID2, ID3); ANOVAs by ACHE regions; Pearson Correlation Coefficients for items ID1, ID2, ID3 and A, B, C Value Scales
RQ8	Value Creation Survey (VCS)	Frequencies and Percentages, and Histograms (means and standard deviations) about LDPs being sufficient to meet the leadership development needs at the three levels (ID10, ID11, ID12); ANOVAs by ACHE region; Pearson Correlation Coefficients for items D10, ID11, I D12, and A, B, C Value scales

Population and Sample

The chosen sample for this study consisted of the 217 Institutional Representatives who were members of the Association of Continuing Higher Education (ACHE) in 2009. ACHE defines itself as follows:

ACHE is an institution-based, organization of colleges, universities, and individuals dedicated to the promotion of lifelong learning and excellence in continuing higher education. ACHE encourages professional networks, research, and exchange of information for its members and advocates continuing higher education as a means of enhancing and improving society. (<http://acheinc.org>)

ACHE also promotes professional development through an annual conference, regional conferences, and special offerings throughout the year.

Membership in ACHE may be institutional, affiliate, professional or honorary.

Institutional membership is based on the acceptance of applications that meet certain criteria.

These criteria include 1) acceptance of applications from institutions of higher learning which have programs of continuing higher education; 2) endorsement by the chief administrative officer of the institution; 3) institutional accreditation by its regional accrediting association; 4) having a specifically designed institutional program for continuing higher education with a designated administrative officer; and, 5) approval by the ACHE Board of Directors which oversees that the educational program offered by the applicant institution is consistent with the goals of the Association.

The characteristics of the population of ACHE's total membership in 2009 included the following aspects. Institutional and individual members represented 46 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico and six foreign countries (Canada, Jamaica, Japan, Mexico, and United Arab Emirates). There were 1,469 individual members representing 408 different institutions and organizations (Association of Continuing Higher Education, <http://acheinc.org/>). Within the

category of Institutional Memberships, there were 217 Institutional Representatives, the sample for this study.

The rationale for selecting ACHE's Institutional Representatives as the sample for this study was several-fold. First, as an individual member of ACHE, this researcher was personally interested in working with this sample. Second, because ACHE had formed a research committee committed to studying value creation processes, the subject of this study was in alignment with ACHE's research interests. Other reasons for surveying this group included access to ACHE's membership list of Institutional Representatives, and the convenience factor in surveying this group. The specific selection of Institutional Representatives to survey also was based on ACHE's recommendation that the survey of Institutional Representatives was most appropriate because they constituted a sample of continuing education professionals who had a range of experiences and expertise regarding continuing education programs, and were typically in a position to oversee their unit's decision making processes regarding credit and non-credit programming (C. Dougherty, personal communication, November 13, 2005). Dougherty's point about credit and non-credit programming was an important factor in this study of different types of continuing education programs (non-credit, credit, and blended non-credit and credit).

Also, this researcher was inspired by Shannon's (2003) article on *Measuring the Value of Continuing Education—Application of the Value Creation Index*. A personal interview was conducted with Dr. Daniel Shannon, Dean of the Graham School of General Studies, University of Chicago, about his study (Dr. Daniel Shannon, November 21, 2003). He confirmed that the idea for a study of the perceived value of leadership development programs for administrators in higher education would be most beneficial and results would help to advance the field of leadership development programs.

A national survey was conducted of the 217 Institutional Representatives of the Association of Continuing Higher Education. Ninety-five Institutional Representatives either did not respond to the survey or their responses (eight responses out of the 95 Institutional Representatives) were not useable for various reasons as follows: 1) two surveys were not usable due to comments made such as “Non Applicable”; 2) three withdrew; 3) one postcard was returned without having given a forwarding address; 4) one dropped out due to serious illness; and 5) one survey arrived too late and was not used. Consequently, the analyses reported here were based on responses by 122 Institutional Representatives (122 useable surveys), which represented a 56% response rate. A 50% response rate is “generally considered *adequate* for analysis and reporting. A response rate of 60% is considered *good*” (Babbie, 1990, p. 182).

Implementation of the Study

Following the proposal meeting, this research was submitted to the IRB committee at The University of Alabama for approval. The IRB committee approved the researcher’s application, and the survey, along with a cover letter that served as a consent form. The cover letter and survey were sent to the ACHE Institutional Representatives (see Appendices N, O, P).

A preliminary procedure was conducted prior to the actual study for exploratory purposes that allowed for trustworthiness of data. This procedure was a Pre-Test of the survey given to twenty-two current or former administrators who were involved in continuing education activities at The University of Alabama, College of Continuing Studies in 2009. These twenty-two professionals were Deans, Directors, Program Managers, and other colleagues who administered LDPs or participated in LDPs (non-credit, credit, or blended non-credit and credit). As to ACHE involvements, 16 (72%) of them were members of ACHE with two being former Presidents of ACHE. There were 14 respondents out of 22 respondents (64%) who completed

and returned the survey. For the respondents, survey acceptance was excellent and no survey modifications were necessary.

The Pre-Test served as a construct validity check to judge whether the survey instrument was an accurate faithful representation of the construct of value. By having the questionnaire reviewed by “experts” and piloting it with this group of professionals that were similar to the sample that was surveyed, construct validity was deemed as the most appropriate validity category to apply. Information derived from this Pre-Test, along with the information from the research literature, enhanced the development of the final survey. The final survey then was administered to the ACHE Institutional Representatives.

Survey Instrument

This research involved an original, 75-item, survey, entitled, “The Value Creation Survey” (VCS), (see Appendix P). Part I of this survey asked for participant beliefs about the value of leadership development programs (LDPs) provided by continuing education units for administrators. Section D of Part I focused on participant beliefs about the success (helpfulness) of LDPs, the priority given to LDPs, the competitive advantages provided by LDPs, and whether their institutions had a sufficient number of LPDs to meet the existing leadership development needs at multiple levels.

Part II focused on participant beliefs about the effectiveness of current continuing education LDPs at multiple levels. Part III dealt with participant demographics.

The survey consisted of closed-ended questions and quantitative measures, such as five-point Likert scales, rank order, and multiple-choice measures. The last question, which is open-ended to allow for additional comments from participants, concluded the survey.

The variables studied included a number of independent and dependent variables. The independent variables focused on the intangible benefits that LDPs for administrators in higher education afford to individuals, institutions, and the higher education enterprise as perceived and believed by administrators. The dependent variables focused on the value these programs create for individuals, institutions, and the higher education enterprise as judged by administrators (see Appendix P).

Data Collection and Handling

The survey was administered through the mail. SPSS for Windows 18 was used for the analysis of data. The College of Continuing Studies provides this software for professionals within the college.

Application was made to the Association of Continuing Higher Education (ACHE), requesting their approval to utilize their membership list of Institutional Representatives for the purpose of this study. ACHE granted its approval, and sent out an advance email to all the Institutional Representatives alerting them about the forthcoming survey and encouraging them to participate. The Value Creation Survey was mailed first-class to the 217 ACHE Institutional Representatives in the form of a cover memo describing the purpose of the study with instructions on how to complete the survey (see Appendix O). The cover memo also served as a Consent Form by stating that, "Institutional Review Board protocol calls for me to note that your participation in this study is entirely voluntary, and you retain the right to withdraw at any time." A return stamped first-class envelope was included for the surveys to be mailed back to the researcher at her office address. All surveys had an identification number for follow-up purposes.

Follow-up procedures included two additional mailings. The first follow-up mailing was a post-card mailed first class reminding participants who had not completed their survey the first time. A second follow-up mailing that included another copy of the survey and consent form plus a self-addressed, stamped first-class envelope was sent after the first reminder. Altogether, the process took approximately eleven weeks to complete. Responses were returned to the researcher at her office address at The University of Alabama, College of Continuing Studies.

Data Analysis

Once data collection was completed, the data were entered into a 2007 Excel spreadsheet for data analysis. The analysis used SPSS for Windows Version 18. These analyses included the following procedures: (1) demographic and item descriptive statistics; 2) internal reliability analysis using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha; 3) validity analysis using basic descriptives; 4) correlational analysis; 5) ANOVAs; 6) independent samples t-test for gender; 7) Levene's Test for Equality of Variances; 8) t-test for Equality of Means; and, 9) descriptive statistics and ANOVAs to compare value ratings by region. The validity and reliability of scores of the survey were established based on selected validity checks, such as, construct validity, and reliability checks, such as internal consistency.

The analyses also investigated possible differences in value based on nine demographics. These demographics included: 1) primary role; 2) how long in primary role; 3) prior administrative duties; 4) academic appointment; 5) teaching duties; 6) years in higher education; 7) gender; 8) ethnicity; and 9) ACHE region. Furthermore, 25 Institutional Representatives (20 percent) chose to make additional comments. This qualitative data were analyzed for themes with this information then used to conclude the discussion of the survey results.

Measurement Properties of the Value Creation Survey

The theoretical framework which underpinned this study was the concept of value. For Part I of the survey, three value scales were created: 1) LDP's value to the individual (Section IA); 2) LDP's value to the institution (Section IB); and 3) LDP's value to the higher education enterprise (Section IC). For each of these scales, measures of their reliability were performed. Construct validity (Fink & Kosecoff, 1998, p. 35) was established experimentally by Pilot Testing the survey with 22 ACHE members as a measure of their beliefs and perceptions about the value of LDPs. Reliability statistics using Cronbach's Alpha were performed on the three value scales (individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise) that were developed and addressed in Research Questions 1, 2, and, 3.

Chapter Summary

Chapter III summarized the methodology of this study. The summary highlighted key points as they related to the research problem, quantitative research design, instrumentation, research questions and methods of analysis, sample selection, data collection and handling procedures, and data analysis. The data collected from this study was confidential and compiled in compliance with all of the rules and regulations set forth by The University of Alabama regarding the use of human subjects.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS OF THE STUDY

This study examined the perceived value of leadership development programs (LDPs) provided by Continuing Education Units for Administrators in Colleges and Universities (ACHE member institutions). Included in this study were credit, non-credit and blended (credit and non-credit) programs. This study also investigated the value of LDPs at three levels: individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise, a value scale developed for each level.

The Value Creation Survey (VCS), shaped by the eight research questions (see Chapter III, Table 10) was sent to a sample of 217 ACHE Institutional Representatives: 122 responses (56% response rate) were received. Beliefs and perceptions of respondents about leadership competencies, and other items, such as helpfulness, priorities, competitive advantages, sufficiency, and effectiveness of LDPs, were measured. SPSS for Windows Version 18 was used in the analysis of data. Results were determined for the value of LDPs at the three levels noted above. The intent of this study was to assess the value of these programs in terms of the benefits they create at various levels for attendees and their institutions.

In this chapter, an analysis of the data is presented. This discussion covers six areas: 1) characteristics of the Institutional Representatives participating in this study; 2) reliability scores associated with the instrument used in this study; 3) type of validity check used; 4) summary statistics related to the Institutional Representatives' responses to the Value Creation Survey (VCS); 5) results of the statistical procedures used to answer the eight research questions;

and 6) summary comments from the Institutional Representatives participating in this study. The chapter concludes with a chapter summary.

Quantitative Results: Analysis of the Data

Characteristics of the Respondents

Questionnaire Part III dealt with the demographics of the Institutional Representatives which included the following nine categories: 1) primary institutional role; 2) length of time in primary institutional role; 3) duties pre-primary administrative role; 4) administrative role also with an academic appointment; 5) administrative role also with teaching duties; 6) employment length in higher education; 7) gender; 8) ethnicity; and, 9) ACHE region. SPSS runs were used to analyze this data, the descriptive statistics results providing information about frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations. ANOVA and t-test were used for comparisons of the data. The following discussion focuses on the descriptive statistics, followed by the results of the ANOVA and t-test procedures.

Respondents Primary Institutional Role. Respondents chose one of the following seven demographic items: Dean; Associate/Assistant Dean; Director: Credit Programs Division/Unit; Director: Non-Credit Programs Division/Unit; Program Manager/Coordinator: Credit Programs Division/Unit; Program Manager/Coordinator: Non-Credit Programs Division/Unit; and Other). Of the 116 respondents (95% response rate), the following results were found (see Table 12).

Table 12

Demographic 1: Respondents Primary Institutional Role

Primary Role	Frequency	Percent
Dean	46	39.7%
Associate/Assistant Dean	18	15.5%
Director: Credit Programs Division/Unit	21	18.1%
Director: Non-Credit Programs Division/Unit	7	6.0%
Program Manager/Coordinator: Credit Programs	3	2.6%
Program Manager/Coordinator: Non-Credit Programs	2	1.7%
Other	19	16.4%

These results indicated that most of the Institutional Representatives were upper-level administrators. While 21 were Directors of Credit Programs Division/Unit, only seven were Directors of Non-Credit Programs Division/Unit, which is considered an upper-level administrator in the field of continuing education as well.

The above results also captured examples of the 19 respondents who chose the “Other” category, which included the following primary roles: Director, Credit and Non-Credit Programs Unit; Special Projects; Multiple Project Director-Credit; Director, University Engagement Unit; Vice President, Academic Affairs; Assistant Vice President, Academic Affairs; Director Outreach/Continuing Education; Vice President; Associate Vice President; Marketing; Executive Director; Executive Director of Operations (credit, non-credit, on-line programs only); Executive Director (non-credit and credit); Associate Provost; and, Director Adult Student Services. Of these 19 respondents, five (4%) indicated that they had dual roles, and were responsible for both credit and non-credit programs in their divisions (or units).

Respondents Length of Primary Institutional Role. The second demographic question referred to the first question (just discussed) regarding one’s primary role and how long he/she

has been in that position. The five options to choose from were 0-2 years, 3-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-20 years, and over 20 years. The results of the 115 (94%) who responded to this question were as follows (see Table 13).

Table 13

Demographic 2: Respondents Length of Primary Institutional Role

Number of Years	Frequency	Percent
0-2 Years	17	14.8%
3-5 Years	32	27.8%
6-10 Years	43	37.4%
11-20 Years	15	13.0%
More Than 20 Years	8	.07%

These results indicated that most of the Institutional Representatives selected 6-10 years. Given these results at this point in time, most Institutional Representatives have at least six year's experience in their primary role.

Respondents Duties Pre-Primary Administrative Role. The third demographic question also referenced respondent's primary role, specifically asking if they had administrative duties prior to their current position. This was a *yes/no* question. Results of the 115 (94%) respondents were as follows (see Table 14).

Table 14

Demographic 3: Respondents Duties Pre-Primary Administrative Role

Administrative Duties Prior to Current Position	Frequency	Percent
Yes	108	94%
No	7	6.1%

As shown, almost all respondents had administrative duties prior to their current position.

Respondents Also with an Academic Appointment. The fourth demographic question asked participants if they had an academic appointment in addition to their administrative duties. The respondent question had three choices: *yes*, *no*, and *other appointment (please specify)*. The results of the 115 (94%) respondents were as follows (see Table 15).

Table 15

Demographic 4: Respondents Also with an Academic Appointment

Administrative and Academic Appointments	Frequency	Percent
Yes	44	38.3%
No	67	58.3%
Other Appointment (please specify)	4	3.5%

Those who selected the *other appointment* option indicated the following: administrator; affiliate faculty; *retreat rights* to academic college; and, non-credit teaching.

Respondents Also with Teaching Duties. The fifth demographic question was a follow-up to question four. If respondents answered *yes* to question four, then they were asked if they also have teaching duties. This question had three options: 1) *yes, one or more courses each semester*; 2) *yes, but not necessarily courses each semester*; and 3) *other, please specify*. Results of this question, 47 (39%), which were responded to less than the previous questions regarding demographics, were as follows (see Table 16).

Table 16

Demographic 5: Respondents Also with Teaching Duties

Administrative Plus Teaching Duties	Frequency	Percent
Yes	13	27.7%
No	20	42.6%
Other, please specify	14	29.8%

The reason for the difference in frequencies between demographic 4 (44) and demographic 5 (47) is that one does not have to have an academic appointment in order to teach. They may be adjuncts. Of those respondents who selected the *other* category, the following comments were made: *teach once a year but not required; none currently; dissertation committees; committee work, faculty senate, service, but no teaching; none other than volunteer teaching; no teaching duties; sporadic; one course per year; none; I have tenure but do not currently teach; only at an off-load level; and, three no's.*

Respondents Employment Length in Higher Education. Next, the sixth demographic question asked respondents how long they have been employed in higher education with five choices: 0-2 years; 3-5 years; 6-10 years; 11-20 years; and over 20 years. Of the 115 respondents (94%) to this question, results were as follows (see Table 17).

Table 17

Demographic 6: Respondents Employment Length in Higher Education

Employment Length in HE	Frequency	Percent
0-2 Years	1	.9%
3-5 Years	2	1.7%
6-10 Years	11	9.6%
11-20 Years	40	34.8%
More Than 20 Years	61	53.0%

Results indicated that 61 respondents (53%) had over 20 years experience in higher education. This number reflects long and well-established careers in higher education.

Respondents Gender. The seventh demographic question asked for respondents' gender (male or female). Of the 115 respondents (94%), the following results were indicated (see Table 18).

Table 18

Demographic 7: Respondents Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	59	51.3%
Female	56	48.7%

These results showed a close to an even divide with regard to gender.

Respondents Ethnicity. Next, demographic question eight pertained to ethnicity. The six options were: White, not Hispanic; Black, not Hispanic; Hispanic; Asian/Pacific Islander; Alaskan Native or Native American, not Hispanic; and Other. Of the six categories listed, three were chosen: White, not Hispanic; Black, not Hispanic; and, Hispanic. Of the 114 (93%) respondents, the results were indicated as follows (see Table 19).

Table 19

Demographic 8: Respondents Ethnicity

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent
White, Not Hispanic	105	92.1%
Black, Not Hispanic	3	2.6%
Hispanic	6	5.3%

No respondents indicated any other of the above categories. Three Blacks, not-Hispanic, and six Hispanics are insufficient numbers to compare them with other groups. One cannot assume they are representative of Black, not Hispanic or Hispanic populations.

Respondents ACHE Region. The ninth and last demographic question asked respondents to identify their ACHE region. There are eight ACHE regions in the United States. They include New England; Northeast; Northeast Metro; Mid-Atlantic; Great Lakes; South; Great Plains; and, West. Of the 118 respondents (97%), the following results were indicated (see Table 20).

Table 20

Demographic 9: Respondents ACHE Region

ACHE Region	Frequency	Percent
New England	13	11.0%
Northeast	5	4.2%
Northeast Metro	4	3.5%
Mid-Atlantic	28	23.7%
Great Lakes	11	9.3%
South	37	31.4%
Great Plains	10	8.5%
West	10	8.5%

These results indicated that the three regions having the greatest number of Institutional Representatives were the following regions in descending order: South, Mid-Atlantic, and New England regions. The regions having the fewest number of institutional representatives were the following in descending order: Great Lakes, Great Plains, West, Northeast, and Northeast Metro regions.

One last item worth mentioning is institutional type. The researcher drew from the 2005 ACHE Proceedings, presented at the 67th Annual Meeting in Madison, Wisconsin, on October 29-November 1, 2005. One concurrent session was entitled *Leadership and Authority in Continuing Education: A Retrospective Look at Changing Roles and Responsibilities* based on a 2005 study by Campbell, Dougherty, Penland, and Wilson. They presented their findings of an online survey of continuing education leaders and noted that, “Respondents were Institutional Representatives of ACHE member institutions [at that time].” In addition, “more than half of the respondents were from public institutions and most were from four-year colleges or universities” (p. 29). Although identification of institutional type was not included in this researcher’s survey because that would have added to the length of the survey, this researcher believes this question would be valuable to ask in future iterations of the Value Creation Survey and is one recommendation for further research.

Research Question 1

“What is the value of LDPs (credit, non-credit, or blended) designed for administrators at the individual level?” To determine this, VCS Part IA was used. There were 111 (91%) usable surveys with valid responses. The first step was to ascertain scale quality and determine if the 24 items statistically held together. Cronbach’s Alpha, “a measure of internal consistency,” was used to make this determination (Cronk, 1999, p. 102). The results showed that α was .939 for the 24-item scale (see Table 21).

Table 21

Frequency Distribution of Responses to Questionnaire Items Concerning Beliefs about the Value to Individuals of Leadership Development Programs

Item	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	Mean	SD	Cronbach's Alpha (if item deleted)
	1	2	3	4	5				
IA1	Develop listening skills	1	11	27	51	29	3.83	.952	.936
IA2	Develop questioning skills	0	4	21	67	26	3.98	.738	.936
IA3	Develop dialog skills	0	4	24	62	28	3.98	.763	.936
IA4	Develop writing skills	6	32	36	25	19	3.14	1.143	.934
IA5	Develop research skills	8	26	46	27	10	3.03	1.057	.935
IA6	Develop self awareness	1	6	23	52	36	4.03	.825	.938
IA7	Develop multi-frame thinking skills	0	8	31	52	26	3.84	.848	.936
IA8	Develop emotional intelligence	3	19	42	35	19	3.42	1.023	.935
IA9	Develop cultural awareness	1	11	40	50	16	3.59	.867	.937
IA10	Develop ethical leadership skills	2	8	26	42	39	3.92	1.001	.935
IA11	Develop servant leadership skills	2	13	40	41	21	3.57	.959	.934
IA12	Develop an interpersonal approach to leadership	1	5	27	60	25	3.89	.813	.936
IA13	Develop leadership skills in virtual environments	6	15	57	29	11	3.19	.958	.936
IA14	Develop mentoring skills	1	13	43	48	13	3.50	.841	.937
IA15	Develop problem solving skills	0	7	24	58	29	3.92	.854	.935
IA16	Develop administrative professionalism	0	3	31	55	28	3.94	.742	.938
IA17	Develop technology skills	8	26	53	24	6	3.95	.948	.936
IA18	Develop team skills	1	2	22	63	30	2.95	.731	.936
IA19	Develop collaborative leadership skills	0	2	20	66	30	4.05	.711	.936
IA20	Develop an understanding of leadership theories	1	1	38	50	28	4.05	.804	.942
IA21	Develop idealized influence skills	4	14	47	46	6	3.91	.876	.936
IA22	Develop inspirational motivation skills	5	9	50	40	14	3.32	.941	.934
IA23	Develop intellectual stimulation skills	2	9	45	49	12	3.45	.862	.935
IA24	Develop individualized consideration skills	2	10	49	43	12	3.46	.850	.936

$\alpha = .939$

Of the 24 items that comprised Part IA of the questionnaire, Cronbach's Alpha increased only if item IA20 (*develop an understanding of leadership theories*) was deleted (α increased to .942 from .939). According to Cronk (1999), "Numbers close to 1.00 are very good, but numbers close to 0.00 represent poor internal consistency" (p. 103).

Excellent scale reliability determined, the second step was to present the frequency distribution of responses to the questionnaire items concerning beliefs about the value to individuals of LDPs and determine item mean scores for the 24 items (see Table 21). Using five-point Likert scales (*strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*), participants were asked for their beliefs about the extent to which LDPs were of value to individuals who participated in them by enhancing the 24 competencies listed. A score of 1 indicated *strongly disagree*, and a score of 5 indicated *strongly agree*. A score of 3 indicated neutral to the question (overall scale mean was 3.64, overall standard deviation, .88).

Research Question 2

"What is the value of LDPs (credit, non-credit, or blended) designed for administrators at the institutional level?" To make this determination, VCS Part 1B was used. There were 117 (96%) useable surveys with valid responses. Once again, the first step was to ascertain scale quality and determine if the 12 items (independent variables) statistically held together. The results of the reliability analysis showed that α was .925 for the 12-question scale which showed very high reliability (see Table 22).

Table 22

Frequency Distribution of Responses to Questionnaire Items Concerning Beliefs about the Value to Institutions of Leadership Development Programs

Item	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	Strongly Agree	Mean	SD	Cronbach's Alpha (if item deleted)
IB1	Improve organizational development	2	5	21	56	33	3.97	.890	.917
IB2	Improve institutional commitment	2	9	24	62	20	3.76	.887	.918
IB3	Improve institutional competitiveness	4	12	38	50	14	3.50	.943	.918
IB4	Improve institutional reputation	4	14	46	38	16	3.42	.976	.921
IB5	Improve institutional ethics	4	8	36	44	26	3.69	.995	.918
IB6	Improve institutional performance	2	6	29	60	21	3.79	.859	.915
IB7	Improve institutional creativity and innovation	1	7	32	52	26	3.82	.867	.917
IB8	Improve institutional adaptability	1	12	29	59	17	3.68	.879	.918
IB9	Improve institutional networks	2	3	26	53	34	3.97	.880	.925
IB10	Improve "institutional leadership" culture	1	4	27	52	33	3.96	.855	.919
IB11	Improve the talent pool of capable leaders	1	3	23	54	37	4.05	.829	.920
IB12	Improve within institutions the perception of the value of LDPs	0	5	32	65	16	3.78	.732	.922

$\alpha = .925$

Concerning coefficient alpha, "Numbers close to 1.00 are very good, but numbers close to 0.00 represent poor internal consistency" (Cronk, 1999, p. 103).

Given excellent scale reliability was determined for IB, the second step was to present the Frequency Distribution of responses to the questionnaire items concerning beliefs about the value to institutions of LDPs and determine item mean scores for the 12 items (see Table 22). Using five-point Likert scales (*strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*), participants were asked to indicate their beliefs about the extent to which LDPs are of value to institutions by enhancing the 12 competencies listed. A score of 1 indicated their belief they *strongly disagree*, and a score of 5 indicated they *strongly agree* with 3 being a neutral position (overall scale mean was 3.78, standard deviation, .88).

Research Question 3

“What is the value of LDPs (credit, non-credit, or blended) designed for administrators to the higher education enterprise?” To determine this, VCS Part IC was used. There were 119 (98%) useable surveys with valid responses to Research Question 3. Again, the first step was to see if the 11 items held together statistically. Scale reliability using Cronbach’s Alpha indicated $\alpha = .923$ for the 11-question scale which was quite good (see Table 23). Respondents were consistent with the answers they gave across all eleven items.

Table 23

Frequency Distribution of Responses to Questionnaire Items Concerning Beliefs about the Value to the Higher Education Enterprise of Leadership Development Programs

Item	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	Mean	SD	Cronbach's Alpha (if item deleted)
	1	2	3	4	5				
IC1	Improve higher education's leadership	1	3	26	55	34	3.99	.828	.917
IC2	Improve higher education's global competitiveness	3	14	38	49	15	3.50	.947	.915
IC3	Improve higher education's reputation	2	10	47	39	21	3.56	.936	.916
IC4	Improve higher education's system effectiveness	2	9	36	53	19	3.66	.897	.912
IC5	Improve higher education's innovation	2	9	36	46	26	3.71	.949	.915
IC6	Improve higher education's adaptability	2	8	33	50	26	3.76	.929	.913
IC7	Improve networking in higher education	0	2	19	67	31	4.07	.698	.923
IC8	Improve higher education's leadership culture	0	3	23	61	32	4.03	.753	.916
IC9	Improve higher education's pool of capable leaders	1	3	23	54	38	4.05	.832	.917
IC10	Improve higher education's perception of the value of LDPs	0	5	41	53	20	3.74	.786	.918
IC11	Improve higher education's commitment to the system of higher education	3	14	45	43	14	3.43	.935	.917

$\alpha = .923$

The second step was to present the Frequency Distribution of responses to the questionnaire items concerning beliefs about the value of (LDPs) to the higher education enterprise. Item mean scores for the 11 items were determined (see Table 23). The same five-point Likert Scale used for IC (*strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*) that was used in IA and IB. Participants indicated their beliefs about the extent to which LDPs were of value to the higher education enterprise by administrators who participated in them by enhancing the eleven competencies listed (overall scale mean was 3.77, overall standard deviation .86).

The previous analyses verified that the items in each of the parts, IA, IB, and IC, formed cohesive scales. The next step was to look at how these scales related to one another, and to Part ID questions about: 1) helpfulness; 2) priority; 3) competitive advantage; and, 4) sufficiency. These questions were considered as four aspects of LDPs at multiple levels.

Correlational Results

Further Analysis: Correlations. Correlational analyses were performed using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient. According to Fink and Kosecoff (1998), “Correlations measure the relationship between two variables. They are reported within a range of +1 (perfect positive correlation) to -1 (perfect negative correlation)” (p. 69). Cronk (1999) noted, “Correlations between .3 and .7 are considered moderate. The same range applies to negative values” (p. 40).

With respect to the fourth aspect of LDPs being sufficient to meet the existing leadership development needs (ID10-ID12), the following was determined. The correlation between people’s beliefs about the value of LDPs at the individual level and sufficiency to meet their needs indicated a coefficient of .426 based on 115 (94%) responses. The correlation between people’s beliefs about the value of LDPs at the institutional level and sufficiency to meet their

needs had a coefficient of .362 based on 114 (93%) responses. The correlation between people's beliefs about the value of LDPs at the higher education enterprise level and sufficiency to meet their needs had a coefficient of .542 based on 118 (97%) responses. All of these correlations ranged from .362 to .542 and were considered to be positive (see Table 24).

Regarding the first aspect of LDPs being helpful in developing leadership competencies (ID1-ID3), the following was determined. The correlation between respondents' beliefs about the value of LDPs at the individual level and helpfulness indicated a coefficient of .513 with 116 (95%) responses. The correlation between respondents' beliefs about the value of LDPs at the institutional level and helpfulness indicated a coefficient of .522 with 115 (94%) responses. The correlation between respondent's beliefs about the value of LDPs at the higher education enterprise level and helpfulness indicated a coefficient of .528 with 118 (97%) responses. All of these results ranged from .513 to 5.28 and were considered to be positive (see Table 23).

With respect to second aspect of LDPs being a priority at the three levels (ID4-ID6), the correlation between people's beliefs about the value of LDPs at the individual level and LDPs being a priority indicated a coefficient of .449 with 116 (95%) responses. At the institutional level, the correlation between people's beliefs about the value of LDPs and LDPs being a priority indicated a coefficient of .566 with 115 (94%) responses. The correlation between LDPS being a priority and beliefs about the value of LDPs at the higher education enterprise level indicated a coefficient of .621 with 119 (98%) responses. Correlations ranged from .449 to .621 and were considered to be positive (see Table 24).

With respect to the third aspect of LDPs providing competitive advantage at the three levels (ID7-ID9), the following was determined. The correlation between people's beliefs about the value of LDPs providing competitive advantage at the individual level indicated a coefficient

of .460 with 116 (95%) responses. The correlation between people's beliefs about the value of LDPs providing competitive advantage at the institutional level indicated a coefficient of .617 with 115 (94%) responses. The correlation between people's beliefs about the value of LDPs providing competitive advantage at the higher education enterprise level indicated a coefficient of .717 with 119 (98%) responses. These correlations ranged from .460 to .717 and were considered to be positive (see Table 24).

What can we learn from the above correlation results? First, people tend to respond to items about sufficiency (ID10-ID12) relatively less consistently than they do items in the other categories (helpfulness, priority, competitive advantage). Second, people who value such programs perceived them as providing a competitive advantage (ID7) at the individual level with a coefficient of .460, (D8) the institutional level with a coefficient of .617, and (ID9) the higher education enterprise level with a coefficient of .717. The latter two of these (institutional and higher education enterprise) had noticeably high correlations (coefficients of .617 and .599) with ID5 (should be a priority at the institutional level) and with the higher education enterprise (coefficients of .703 and .717) value scales (see Table 24).

Table 24

Correlations: Items D1-D12 and A-C Value Scales

	Helpful			Priority			Competitive Advantage			Sufficient			A1-24	B1-12	C1-11
	ID1	ID2	ID3	ID4	ID5	ID6	ID7	ID8	ID9	ID10	ID11	ID12	Individ. Value	Institut. Value	Entpr. Value
ID1	1														
ID2	.643	1													
ID3	.501	.717	1												
ID4	.537	.366	.267	1											
ID5	.554	.435	.415	.599	1										
ID6	.454	.357	.467	.442	.783	1									
ID7	.582	.33	.308	.662	.562	.453	1								
ID8	.488	.339	.395	.461	.739	.667	.552	1							
ID9	.442	.274	.384	.258	.576	.693	.442	.771	1						
ID10	.311	.300	.227	.254	.218	.106	.349	.234	.222	1					
ID11	.284	.367	.329	.162	.396	.228	.221	.427	.343	.690	1				
ID12	.281	.334	.428	.138	.385	.387	.309	.480	.516	.581	.803	1			
Individ. Value	.513	.389	.461	.449	.469	.428	.460	.581	.517	.426	.380	.435	1		
Sum of A1-24	.639	.522	.473	.414	.566	.500	.518	.617	.599	.289	.362	.398	.757	1	
Institut. Value	.115	.115	.115	.115	.115	.115	.115	.115	.115	.114	.114	.114	.118	.118	1
Sum of B1-12	.587	.447	.528	.416	.618	.621	.494	.703	.717	.336	.449	.542	.650	.759	1
Entpr. Value	.119	.119	.118	.119	.119	.119	.119	.119	.119	.118	.118	.118	.116	.115	.119
Sum of C1-11															

Note: Correlations indicated in red are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Correlations indicated in blue are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

All four aspects of LDPs (success at helping develop, priority, competitiveness advantage, sufficiency in number) were correlated at the Individual, Institutional, and Higher Education Enterprise levels with a summed scale for the three value scales at that level. Correlations for each of the LDP aspects (H, P, CA, S) with each summed scale (individual, institutional, and HEE) were all significant at the 1% level. For *successful at helping*: .513, .522, .528; *considered a priority*: .449, .566, .621; *provide a competitive advantage*: .460, .617, .717; and *sufficient to meet existing needs*: .426, .362, .542.

Each level (individual, institutional, and HEE) was also correlated with each LDP aspect (helping develop; considered a priority; provide a competitive advantage; sufficient to meet existing needs) at that level as shown in the following table (see Table 25):

Table 25

Correlations Summary: Four LDP Aspects with Each Other at the Three Levels

	H	P	CA	S		H	P	CA	S
Ind. H	1.00	.537	.582	.311	Ind. CA	.582	.662	1.00	.349
Inst. H	1.00	.435	.339	.367	Inst. CA	.339	.739	1.00	.427
HEE H	1.00	.467	.384	.428	HEE CA	.384	.693	1.00	.516
Ind. P	.537	1.00	.662	.254	Ind. S	.311	.254	.349	1.00
Inst. P	.435	1.00	.739	.396	Inst. S	.367	.396	.427	1.00
HEE P	.467	1.00	.693	.387	HEE S	.428	.387	.516	1.00

As an example of working with Table 25, the upper left matrix focused on the aspect H (Successful at Helping). The highest correlation (.582) was H with CA (Provide a Competitive Advantage) at the Individual (Ind.) Level. At the Institutional (Inst.), the highest correlation (.435) was H and P (Considered a Priority). The bottom right matrix focused on S (Sufficient to meet existing needs). The highest correlation, .516, was S at the HEE level with CA, (Provide a

Competitive Advantage). The lowest correlation was .254, S at the Ind. level with P (Considered a Priority).

In Sum. Looking at the four matrices and considering Research Questions, RQ 4, 6, 7, and 8, survey respondents tended to respond to items about S, Sufficient to Meet Existing Needs (RQ 8), at multiple levels (individual, institutional, higher education enterprise) less consistently than they did items in the other three categories at multiple levels (should be considered a Priority, RQ 4; provides Competitive Advantage, RQ 6; Successful at Helping achieve, RQ 7).

Concerning research Questions 1, 2, 3, several other tests were run for selected comparisons involving demographic characteristics. Research looked at gender differences, ethnic differences, and regional differences for the three value scales in VCS Part I. These runs included: independent samples t-test for gender, descriptive statistics for ethnicity, and descriptive statistics and ANOVA to compare value ratings by region.

Independent Samples T-Test. An independent samples t-test comparison was calculated for gender, which calculated the mean score of respondents who identified themselves as males 58 (48%), to the mean score of respondents who identified themselves as females 55 (45%) and their responses to the three perceived value scales (individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise). Overall, there were 113 (93%) total responses recorded for the individual value of LDPs as perceived by males and females.

Regarding male and female perceptions of the value of LDPs to the individual, no significant difference was found in the results indicating $t(111) = .543, p = .941$. The mean and standard deviation for males ($M = 87.603, SD = 14.295$) were not significantly different from the mean and standard deviation for females ($M = 86.000, SD = 17.056$).

Regarding male and female perceptions of the value of LDPs to the institution, no significant difference was found in the results indicating $t(110) = .083, p = .703$. The mean and standard deviation for males ($M = 45.52, SD = 7.74$) were not significantly different from the mean and standard deviation for females ($M = 45.39, SD = 8.60$). Overall, there were 112 (93%) total responses recorded for the institutional value of LDPs as perceived by males and females.

Regarding male and female perceptions of the value of LDPs to the higher education enterprise, no significant differences were found. Results noted $t(110) = -.680, p = .461$. The mean and standard deviation for males ($M = 41.10, SD = 7.05$) were not significantly different from the mean and standard deviation for females ($M = 42.04, SD = 7.48$). There were 112 (93%) total responses recorded for the higher education enterprise value of LDPs as perceived by males and females.

Overall, no significant differences between males ($n = 58, 58, 58$) and females ($n = 55, 54, 54$) were found in the perceived value of LDPs to individuals, institutions, or the higher education enterprise (see Table 26).

Table 26

t-test Comparison of Males and Females: Value Scales

Group Statistics				
	Gender	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
IndValue:	Males	58	87.603	14.295
	Females	55	86.000	7.056
InstValue:	Males	58	45.517	7.726
	Females	54	45.388	8.598
HEEValue:	Males	58	41.103	7.045
	Females	54	42.037	7.483

Independent Samples t-test for Gender					
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
IndValue	.005	.941	.543	111	.588
InstValue	.146	.703	.083	110	.934
HEEValue	.547	.461	-.680	110	.498

An independent *t* test was calculated comparing the mean scores of respondents who identified themselves as males to the mean scores of respondents who identified themselves as females at the three levels: individual value; institutional value; and, higher education enterprise level. No significant differences were found at the individual value level $t(2) = .543, p > .05$. The mean and standard deviation for males ($M = 87.60, SD = 14.305$) were not significantly different from the mean and standard deviation for females ($M = 86, SD = 7.06$). Likewise, no significant differences were found at the institutional value level $t(2) = .083, p > .05$. The mean and standard deviation for males ($M = 45.52, SD = 7.73$) were not significantly different from the mean and standard deviation for females ($M = 45.39, SD = 8.60$). Also, no significant differences were

found at the higher education enterprise value level $t(2) = -.680, p < .05$. The mean and standard deviation for males ($M = 41.10, SD = 7.05$) were not significantly different from the mean and standard deviation for females ($M = 42.04, SD = 7.48$). According to Cronk (1999), “the t test is robust and can handle violations of the assumption of a normal distribution” (p. 56). Because means and standard deviations for males and females throughout the different levels were consistently found to be insignificant, no assumptions were accepted.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were calculated for ethnicity calculating the mean score of respondents who identified themselves as *White, not Hispanic* ($n = 103, 102, 102$, respectively), *Black, not Hispanic* ($n = 3, 3, 3$, respectively), or *Hispanic* ($n = 6, 6, 6$, respectively) and their responses to the three perceived value scales (individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise). The other three categories of ethnicity were not indicated. Altogether, there were 112 (92%) recorded responses pertaining to individual value scale, and 111 (91%) recorded responses pertaining to both the institutional and higher education enterprise value scales.

With respect to the *White, not Hispanic* category, their perceptions of the value of LDPs to the individual had a mean and standard deviation of $M = 86.25$, and $SD = 15.23$. Regarding the *Black, not Hispanic* category, their perceptions of the value of LDPs to the individual had a mean and standard deviation of $M = 106$, and $SD = 14.52$. With respect to the *Hispanic* category, their perceptions of the value of LDPs to the individual had a mean and standard deviation of $M = 87.5$, and $SD = 21.02$.

For the next set of descriptive statistics pertaining to ethnicity and the institutional value scale, perceptions of those in the *White, not Hispanic* category had a mean and standard deviation of $M = 45.25$ and $SD = 8.02$. With regard to those in the *Black, not Hispanic* category,

their perceptions of the value of LDPs had a mean and standard deviation of $M = 52$, $SD = 4.58$.

As for those in the *Hispanic* category, their perceptions of the value of LDPs had a mean and standard deviation of $M = 46.17$, $SD = 11.34$.

The last set of descriptive statistics pertaining to ethnicity and the higher education enterprise value scale, perceptions of those who indicated the *White, not Hispanic* category had a mean and standard deviation of $M = 41.25$, $SD = 7.16$. For those in the *Black, not Hispanic* category, their perceptions of the value of LDPs had a mean and standard deviation of $M = 48$, $SD = 8.19$. For those in the *Hispanic* category, their perceptions of the value of LDPs had a mean and standard deviation of $M = 44$, $SD = 8.20$ (see Table 27).

Table 27

Descriptive Statistics: Ethnicity (a)

Value Scale	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Ind	103	3.00	120.00	86.252	15.227
Inst	102	14.00	60.00	45.245	8.019
HEE	102	22.00	55.00	41.2451	7.157
Valid N (listwise)	99				

a. Ethnicity = White, not Hispanic

Descriptive Statistics: Ethnicity (a)

Value Scale	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
IndValue	3	91.00	120.00	106.000	14.525
InstValue	3	47.00	56.00	52.000	4.582
HEE	3	39.00	55.00	48.000	8.185
Valid N (listwise)	3				

a. Ethnicity = Black, not Hispanic

Descriptive Statistics: Ethnicity (a)

Value Scale	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Ind	6	64.00	111.00	87.500	21.021
Inst	6	28.00	59.00	46.166	11.338
HEE	6	33.00	55.00	44.000	8.197
Valid N (listwise)	6				

a. Ethnicity = Hispanic

Three Blacks, not-Hispanic, and six Hispanics are insufficient numbers to compare them with other groups. One cannot assume they are representative of Black, not Hispanic or Hispanic populations. Overall, there were too few non-white respondents to perform any

statistical comparisons by ethnicity. However, one result of these descriptive statistics stands out. The mean Individual Value attributed by Blacks was substantially higher than for either of the other groups.

Comparing Value Ratings by Region: Descriptive Statistics. Descriptive statistics were run for the eight ACHE regions with respect to the three value scales (individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise). There were a total of 116 (97%) responses. The following means and standard deviations were calculated for the individual value (see Table 28).

Table 28

Comparative Value Ratings by ACHE Regions: Descriptive Statistics (Individual Value)

Regions	Numbers	Means	Standard Deviations
New England	(N = 13)	$M = 89.85$	$SD = 11.79$
Northeast	(N = 5)	$M = 85.20$	$SD = 19.02$
NE Metro	(N = 4)	$M = 72.75$	$SD = 11.06$
Mid-Atlantic	(N = 27)	$M = 84.19$	$SD = 19.41$
Great Lakes	(N = 11)	$M = 84.91$	$SD = 14.89$
South	(N = 36)	$M = 87.86$	$SD = 16.18$
Great Plains	(N = 10)	$M = 91.60$	$SD = 12.84$
West	(N = 10)	$M = 86.70$	$SD = 10.63$

The second set of descriptive statistics was run for the eight ACHE regions with respect to the institutional value scale. There were a total of 115 (94%) responses. The following means and standard deviations were calculated for the institutional value (see Table 29).

Table 29

Comparative Value Ratings by ACHE Regions: Descriptive Statistics (Institutional Value)

Regions	Numbers	Means	Standard Deviations
New England	13	47.69	6.70
Northeast	5	43.20	11.12
NE Metro	4	39.00	7.16
Mid-Atlantic	26	44.58	8.24
Great Lakes	11	41.64	8.80
South	36	45.31	8.40
Great Plains	10	49.90	7.78
West	10	47.30	4.52

The third set of descriptive statistics was run of the eight ACHE regions with respect to the higher education enterprise value scale. There were a total of 115 (94%) responses. The following means and standard deviations were calculated for the higher education enterprise (see Table 30).

Table 30

Comparative Value Ratings by ACHE Regions: Descriptive Statistics (Higher Education Enterprise)

Regions	Numbers	Means	Standard Deviations
New England	11	43.45	4.63
Northeast	5	39.20	8.41
NE Metro	4	39.00	4.24
Mid-Atlantic	28	42.11	6.26
Great Lakes	11	39.18	7.83
South	36	40.92	8.16
Great Plains	10	44.20	8.55
West	10	41.80	6.55

Overall, there were no significant differences in value attributions across the eight regions. The NE Metro region gave the lowest ratings on all three scales (Tables 28, 29, 30).

Analysis of Variance. This second SPSS test was run to compare the three value ratings (individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise) by region. These three value ratings had total responses of 115 (94%), 114 (93%), and 114 (93%) respectively. The individual value ratings to the items on the Value Creation Survey had results of $F(7,108) = .804, p = .585$.

Regarding the institutional value ratings to the items on the Value Creation Survey had results of $F(7,107) = 1.489, p = .179$. Pertaining to the higher education enterprise value ratings to the items on the Value Creation Survey had results of $F(7,107) = .680, p = .689$. Overall, there were no significant differences in value attributions across eight of the regions. However, the Northeast Metropolitan region gave the lowest rating on all three scales (see Table 31).

Table 31

Analysis of Variance to Compare Value Ratings by Regions: 2-ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
IndValue	Between Regions	2409.831	7	201.404	.804	.585
	Within Groups	27043.031	108	250.398		
	Total	28452.862	115			
InstValue	Between Regions	667.966	7	95.428	1.489	.179
	Within Regions	6859.100	107	64.104		
	Total	7527.096	114			
HEEValue	Between Regions	248.956	7	35.565	.680	.689
	Within Regions	5595.792	107	52.297		
	Total	5844.748	114			

Again, there were no significant differences in value attributions across the eight regions, although the Northeast Metropolitan region gave the lowest ratings on all three scales.

After the previous analyses verified that the items in each of the three Parts, IA, IB, and IC, formed cohesive scales, the next step was to look at how those scales related to one another, and to the Part ID questions about helpfulness, priority, competitive advantage, and sufficiency.

Research Question 4

To what extent are LDPs for administrators considered a priority at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels? For Research Question 4, there were 119 valid responses (98%). This question was designed to examine respondent's beliefs about the priority given to LDPs at multiple levels. Frequency distributions and means for the specified variables, (ID4) the individual level, (ID5) the institutional level, and (ID6) the higher education enterprise level, were examined. Using five-point Likert scales (*strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*) with three being a neutral position, participants were asked to indicate their beliefs about the priority of LDPs at multiple levels. Of the 119 (98%) participants who responded to this question, the individual level mean score ($M = 4.27$) was the highest; then the institutional level mean ($M = 4.16$); and, the higher education enterprise level ($M = 3.96$) was lowest.

Because “graphing is a useful way to summarize, organize, and reduce your data” (Cronk, 1999, p. 31), a histogram graphically represented the frequency distributions and means for questions ID4, ID5, and ID6. The standard deviations (*SDs*) were also noted. The means and standard deviations for the three questions were as follows: The mean and SD for question ID4 were 4.27 and 0.767 respectively, for question ID5 were 4.16 and 0.902 respectively, and for ID6, 3.96 and 0.933 respectively. Overall, all levels were strongly to very strongly endorsed (see Figure 1 through Figure 3).

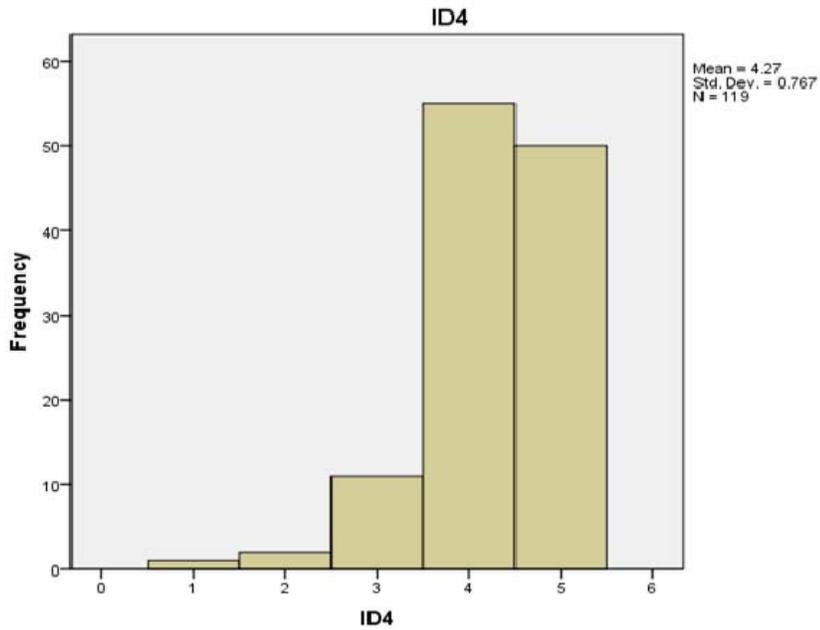


Figure 1. LDPs Should Be Considered a Priority at the Individual Level

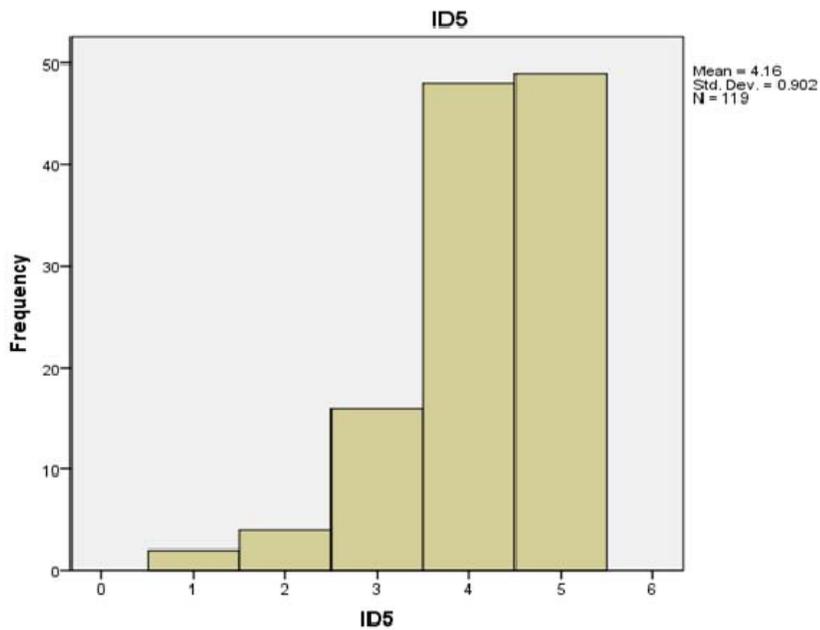


Figure 2. LDPs Should Be Considered a Priority at the Institutional Level

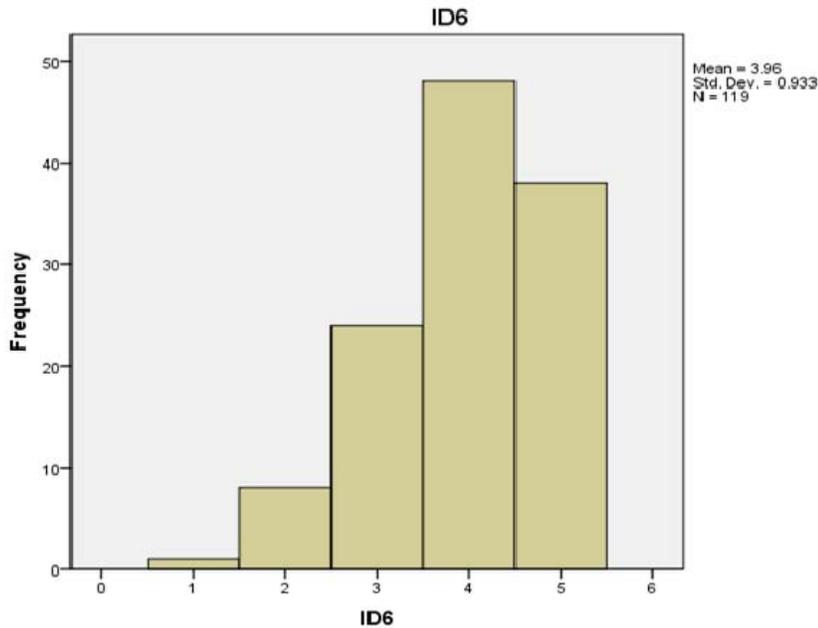


Figure 3. LDPs Should Be Considered a Priority at the Higher Education Enterprise Level Endorsement was highest for the individual level, then institutional, and enterprise levels. All three levels were strongly to very strongly endorsed.

Research Question 5

What models are most effective for enhancing leadership development at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels? For this research question, the researcher wanted to assess participants' beliefs about the three models of LDPs at the three different levels. The statistical analyses used were to find the frequency distributions and percentages for one's beliefs about current program offerings. These included non-credit, credit, and blended credit and non-credit programs. These three questions (Part II1, II2, and II3) were rank-order questions with 1 indicating most effective, and 3 the least effective. If a response did not indicate a rank-order for all programs, it was considered an incomplete response and was not counted.

There were six ways to record responses: 1) 1-2-3 (non-credit, credit, blended credit and non-credit); 2) 1-3-2 (non-credit, blended, credit); 3) 2-1-3 (credit, non-credit, blended); 4) 2-3-1

(credit, non-credit, blended); 5) 3-1-2 (blended, non-credit, and credit); and, 6) 3-2-1 (blended, credit, and non-credit). A frequency table was used to indicate both the number of cases in the sample with a particular value, and the percentage of cases with that value (see Table 32).

Table 32

Frequencies Distribution of Responses to Part II-1 Questionnaire Items Concerning Program Rankings (non-credit, credit, blended) at the Individual Level

Ranking	Frequency	Percent
1: Non-credit, credit, blended	10	10
2: Credit, non-credit, blended	36	36
3: Credit, non-credit, blended	6	6
4: Credit, blended, non-credit	8	8
5: Blended, non-credit, credit	25	25
6: Blended, credit, non-credit	15	15
Total	100	100
Missing	22	
Respondents	122	

Note: 61% of respondents chose ranking 2, credit, non-credit, blended, and ranking 5, blended, non-credit, credit.

VCS (II-1) related to the effectiveness of LDPs for enhancing leadership as perceived by respondents at the individual level, there were 100 (46%) valid cases. Table 32 indicates that 10 respondents (10%) chose sequence 1; 36 (36%) chose sequence 2; six (6%) chose sequence 3; 8 (8%) chose sequence 4; 25 (25%) chose sequence 5; and 15 respondents (15%) chose sequence 6. The note at the bottom of Table 32 underscores that about 3/5 of respondents chose LDP sequences 2 and 5.

VCS (II-2) related to the effectiveness of LDPs for enhancing leadership for institutions as perceived by respondents at the institutional level, there were 102 valid cases (see Table 33). Table 33 indicates that 11 respondents (10.8%) chose sequence 1, 39 (38.2%) chose sequence 2,

10 (9.8%) chose sequence 3, 7 (6.9%) chose sequence 4, 24 (23.5%) chose sequence 5; and, 11 respondents (10.8%) chose sequence 6. The note at the bottom of Table 33 underscores that just over 3/5 of respondents chose LDP sequences 2 and 5.

Table 33

Frequencies Distribution of Responses to Part II-2 Questionnaire Items Concerning Program Rankings (non-credit, credit, blended) at the Institutional Level

Ranking	Frequency	Percent
1: Non-credit, credit, blended	11	10.8
2: Credit, non-credit, blended	39	38.2
3: Credit, non-credit, blended	10	9.8
4: Credit, blended, non-credit	7	6.9
5: Blended, non-credit, credit	24	23.5
6: Blended, credit, non-credit	11	10.8
Total	102	100
Missing Respondents	20	
	122	

Note: 62% of respondents chose ranking 2, credit, non-credit, blended, and ranking 5, blended, non-credit, credit.

VCS (II-3), related to the effectiveness of LDPs for enhancing leadership as perceived by respondents at the higher education enterprise level, with 100 (46%) valid responses, six respondents (6%) chose sequence 1, 41 (41%) chose sequence 2, five (5%) chose sequence 3, eight (8%) chose sequence 4, 28 (28%) chose sequence 5, and 12 respondents (12%) chose sequence 6 (see Table 34). The note at the bottom of Table 34 underscores that just over 2/3 of respondents chose LDP sequences 2 and 5.

Table 34

Frequencies Distribution of Responses to Part II-3 Questionnaire Items Concerning Program Rankings (non-credit, credit, blended) at the Higher Education Enterprise Level

Ranking	Frequency	Percent
1: Non-credit, credit, blended	6	6
2: Credit, non-credit, blended	41	41
3: Credit, non-credit, blended	5	5
4: Credit, blended, non-credit	8	8
5: Blended, non-credit, credit	28	28
6: Blended, credit, non-credit	12	12
Total	100	100
Missing Respondents	22	
	122	

Note: 69% of respondents chose ranking 2, credit, non-credit, blended, and ranking 5, blended, non-credit, credit.

As can be seen the histograms were used to graphically represent the frequency distributions VCS parts II-1, II-2, and II-3 and show that respondents chose sequence 2 (non-credit, blended, credit) and sequence 5 (blended, non-credit, credit) most often. In all cases, the sequences credit, non-credit, blended and credit blended, non-credit, ranked last of the six possible ranking sequences first/second (see Figures 4 through 6).

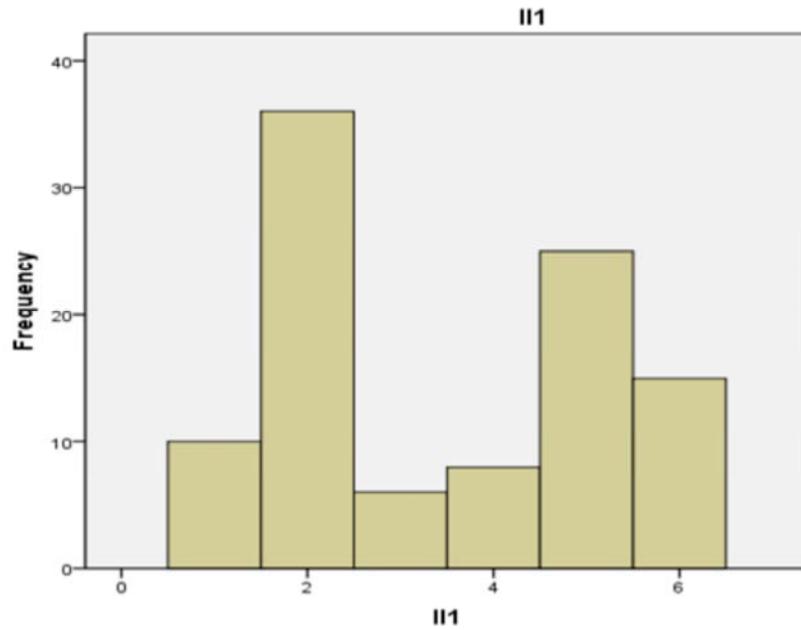


Figure 4. Types of LDPs Most Effective for Enhancing Leadership of Individuals

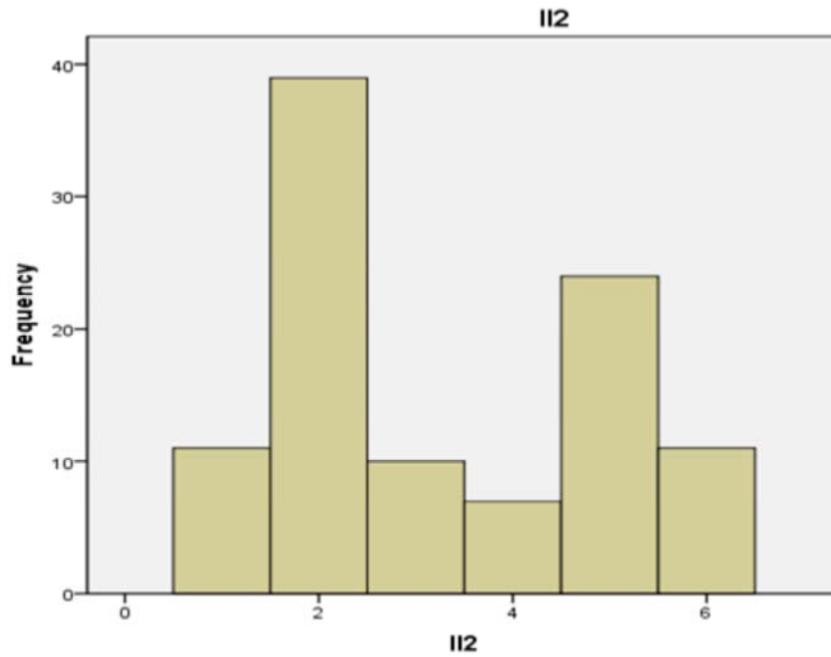


Figure 5. Types of LDPs Most Effective for Enhancing Leadership For Institutions

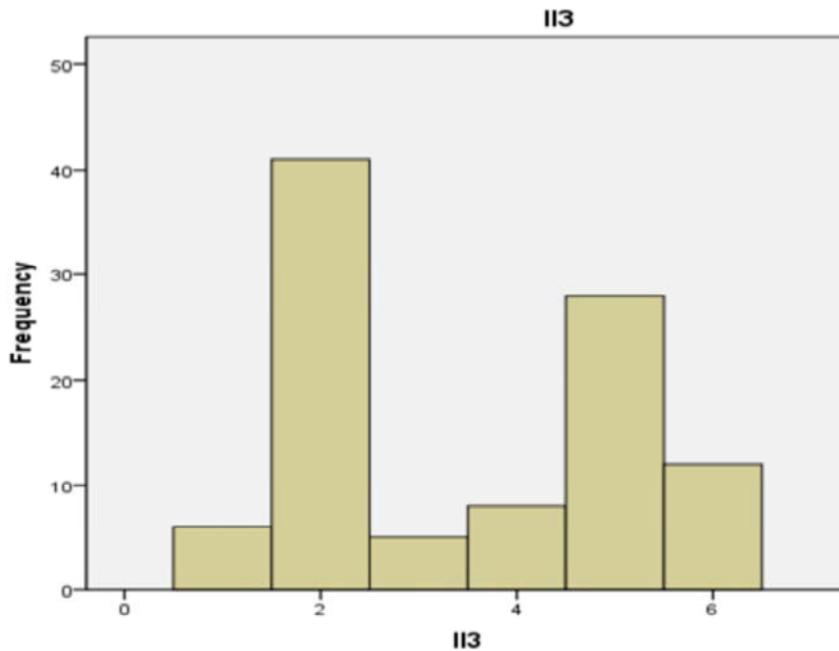


Figure 6. Types of LDPS Most Effective for Enhancing Leadership For the Higher Education Enterprise

Research Question 6

“To what extent do LDPS for administrators provide a competitive advantage at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels?” For this research question, the researcher wanted to assess one’s beliefs about competitive advantages. Using five-point Likert scales (*strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*), participants were asked to indicate their beliefs about the extent to which LDPS provide a competitive advantage at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels. A score of one indicated they *strongly disagree*, and a score of five indicated they *strongly agree* with three being a neutral position.

The statistical analyses used were to find the frequency distributions, percentages and means for the specified variables (ID7) individual, (ID8) institutional, and (ID9) higher educational enterprise levels. A frequency table was used to indicate both the number of cases in the sample with a particular value, and the percentage of cases with that value.

For the first variable (ID7) related to the individual level, the number of valid cases in the sample was 119 (55%). The table also indicated that 47 respondents (39.5%) chose *strongly agree*; 55 respondents (46.2%) chose *agree*; 15 respondents (12.6%) chose a neutral position; one respondent (8%) chose *disagree*; and, one respondent (8%) chose *strongly disagree*. For the second variable (ID8) related to the institutional level, the frequency table indicated the number of valid cases in the sample were 119 (55%). The table also indicated that 33 respondents (27.7%) chose *strongly agree*; 45 respondents (37.8%) chose *agree*; 31 respondents (26.1%) chose a neutral position; eight respondents (6.7%) chose *disagree*; and, two respondents (1.7%) chose *strongly disagree*. For the third variable (ID9) related to the higher education enterprise level, the number of valid cases in the sample were 119 (55%). The table also indicated that 22 respondents (18.5%) chose *strongly agree*; 37 respondents (31.1%) chose *agree*; 47 respondents (39.5%) chose a neutral position; 11 respondents (9.2%) chose *disagree*; and, two respondents (1.7%) chose *strongly disagree*.

A histogram was used to graphically represent the frequency distributions and means for variables (ID7), (ID8), and (ID9). Overall, LDPS were definitely seen as providing a competitive advantage at the individual level, not quite so much at the institutional level, and even less at the higher education enterprise level (where the modal response is in the *neutral* category). Even for this latter situation, however, responses were more toward the *agree* end of the scale (see Figure 7 through Figure 9).

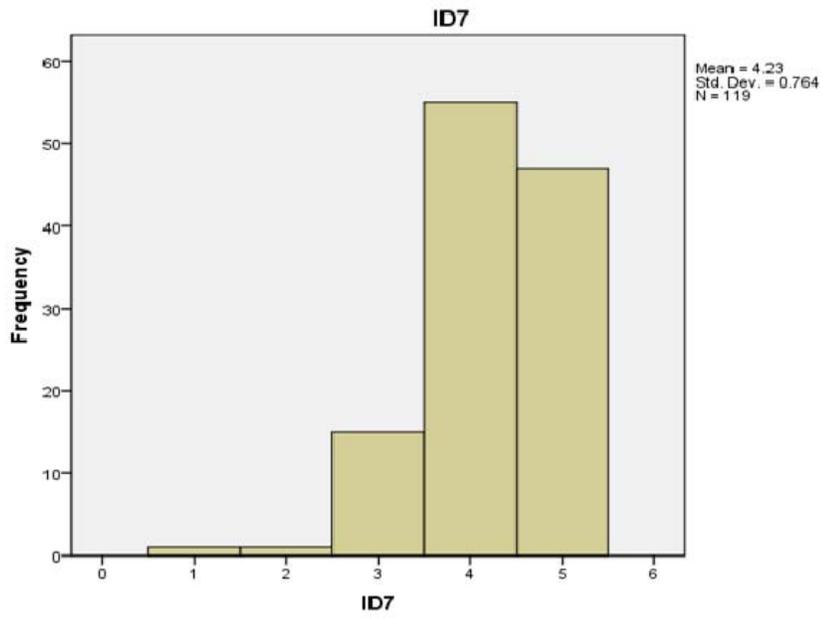


Figure 7. LDPs Provide a Competitive Advantage at the Individual Level

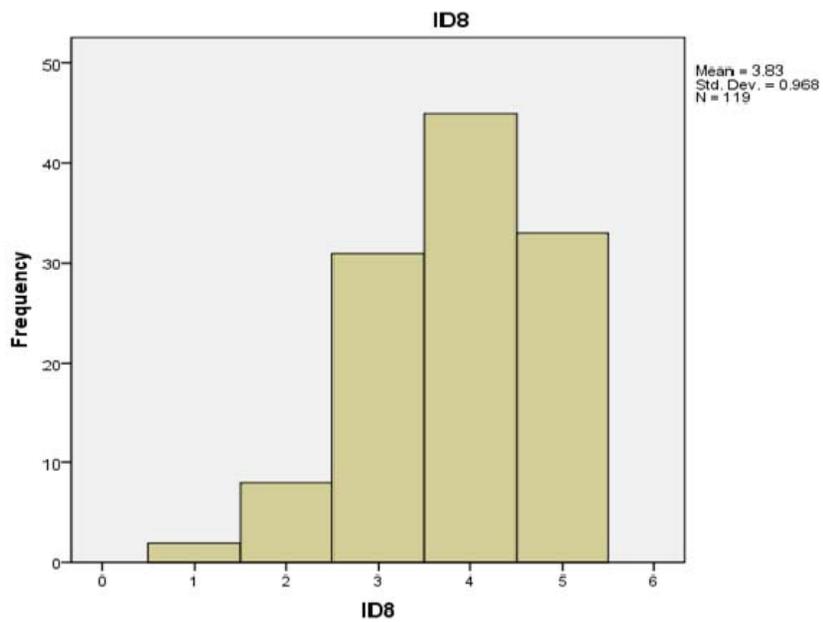


Figure 8. LDPs Provide a Competitive Advantage at the Institutional Level

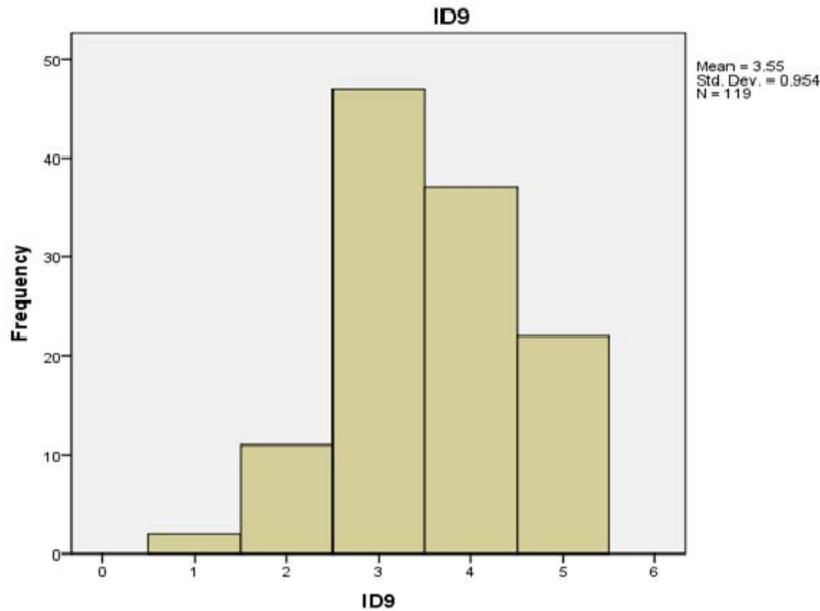


Figure 9. LDPs Provide a Competitive Advantage at the Higher Education Enterprise Level

Research Question 7

What are your beliefs about how successful LDPs are in helping develop leadership competencies at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels? For this research question the researcher wanted to assess participants in this study their beliefs about LDPs at these three levels. The statistical runs that were performed were based on five-point Likert scales (*strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*). The statistical analysis that was used was to determine the frequencies, percentages, and mean scores.

For the first question (ID1) related to the individual level, the frequency table indicated the number of valid cases in the sample was 119 (55%). The table also indicated that 38 respondents (31.9%) chose *strongly agree*; 56 respondents (47.1) chose *agree*; 21 respondents (17.6%) chose a *neutral* position; two respondents (1.7%) chose *disagree*; and, two respondents (1.7%) chose *strongly disagree*. For the second variable (ID2) related to the institutional level, the frequency table indicated the number of valid cases in the sample were 119 (55%) valid

responses. The table also indicated that 15 respondents (12.6%) chose *strongly agree*; 56 respondents (47.1%) chose *agree*; 32 respondents ((26.9%) chose a *neutral* position; 13 respondents (10.9%) chose *disagree*; and, three respondents (2.5%) responses chose *strongly disagree*. For the third question (ID3) related to the higher education enterprise level, the frequency table indicated the number of valid cases in the sample were 118 (54%). The table also indicated that 12 respondents (10.2%) chose *strongly agree*; 45 respondents (38.1%) chose *agree*; 44 respondents (37.3%) chose a *neutral* position; 16 respondents (13.6%) chose *disagree*; and, one respondent (.8%) chose *strongly disagree*.

A histogram was used to graphically represent the frequency distributions and mean scores for questions (ID1), (ID2), and (ID3). Overall, LDPs were seen as helping individuals build competencies ($M= 4.06$, most responses were 4 or 5). Neither the institutional level ($M=3.56$) nor the higher education enterprise level ($M = 3.43$ with lots of neutral and below responses) rated as highly as did the individual level (see Figures 10 through Figure 12).

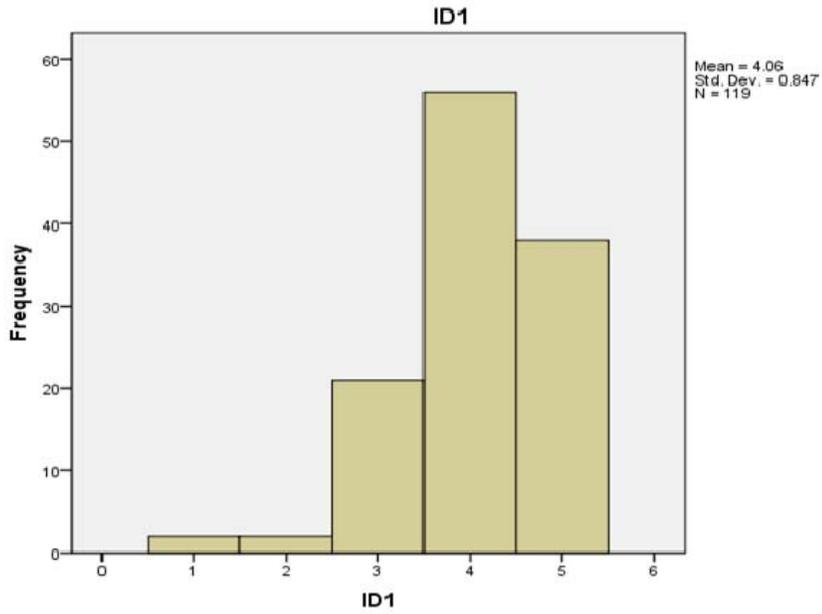


Figure 10. LDPs' Success at Helping Individuals Develop Their Leadership Competencies

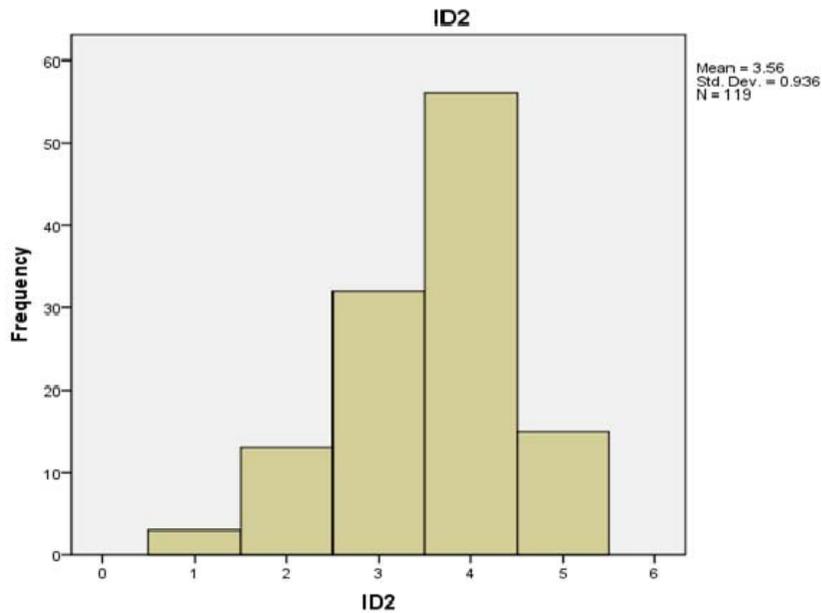


Figure 11. LDPs' Success at Helping Academic Institutions Meet Their Needs For Developing the Leadership Competencies of Their Administrators

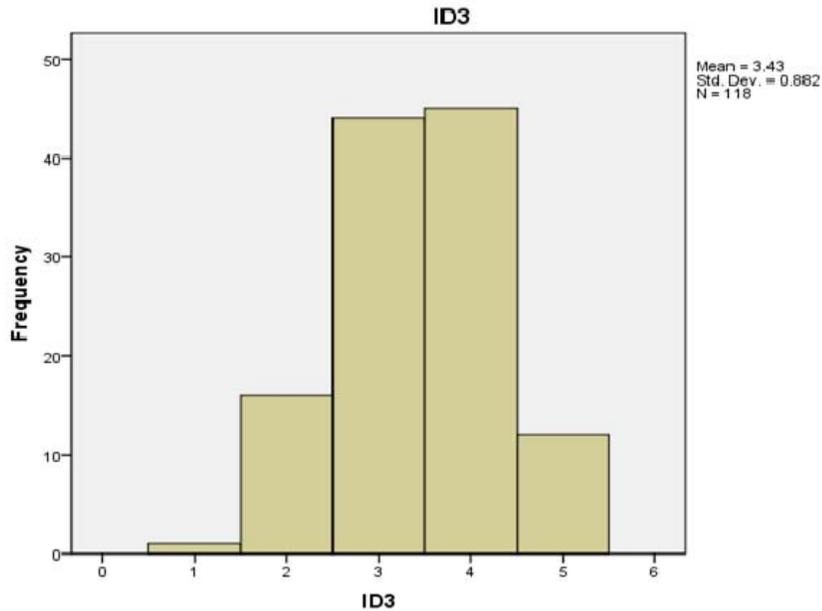


Figure 12. LDPs' Success at Helping the Higher Education Enterprise Meet Its Needs For Developing the Leadership Competencies of Its Administrators

Research Question 8

To what extent does your institution have sufficient programs to meet the leadership development needs for current and future administrators, for your institution, and for the higher education enterprise? For this question, the researcher wanted to assess one's beliefs about whether or not they have sufficient LPDs available at their institution. Using five-point Likert scales (*strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*), the participants were asked to indicate their beliefs about the extent to which LPDs are sufficient at their institution at the three levels (individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels). The statistical analysis that was used was to determine the frequencies, percentages, and mean scores.

For the first question (ID10) related to the individual level, the frequency table indicated the number of valid cases in the sample were 118 (54%) valid responses. The table also indicated 16 respondents (13.6%) chose *strongly agree*; 42 respondents (35.6%) chose *agree*; 37

respondents (31.4%) chose a *neutral* position; 20 respondents (16.9%) chose *disagree*; and, three respondents (2.5%) chose *strongly disagree*.

For the second question (ID11) related to the institutional level, the frequency table indicated the number of valid cases in the sample were 118 (54%). The table also indicated that eight respondents (6.8%) chose *strongly agree*; 35 respondents (29.7%) chose *agree*; 48 respondents (40.7%) chose a *neutral* position; 22 respondents (18.6%) chose *disagree*; and, five respondents (4.2%) chose *strongly disagree*.

For the third question (ID12) related to the higher education enterprise level, the frequency table indicated the number of valid cases in the sample were 118 (54%). The table also indicated that five respondents (5.1%) chose *strongly agree*; 29 respondents (24.6%) chose *agree*; 48 respondents (40.7%) chose a *neutral* position; 31 respondents (26.3%) chose *disagree*; and, four responses (3.4%) chose *strongly disagree*.

A histogram was used to graphically represent the frequency distributions and mean scores for questions (ID10), (ID11), and (ID12). The results indicated a stronger endorsement at the individual level ($M=3.41$) than at either the institutional ($M=3.16$) or higher education enterprise ($M=3.02$) levels. Over all, respondents seemed not very convinced about the sufficiency of the programs (see Figure 13 through Figure 15).

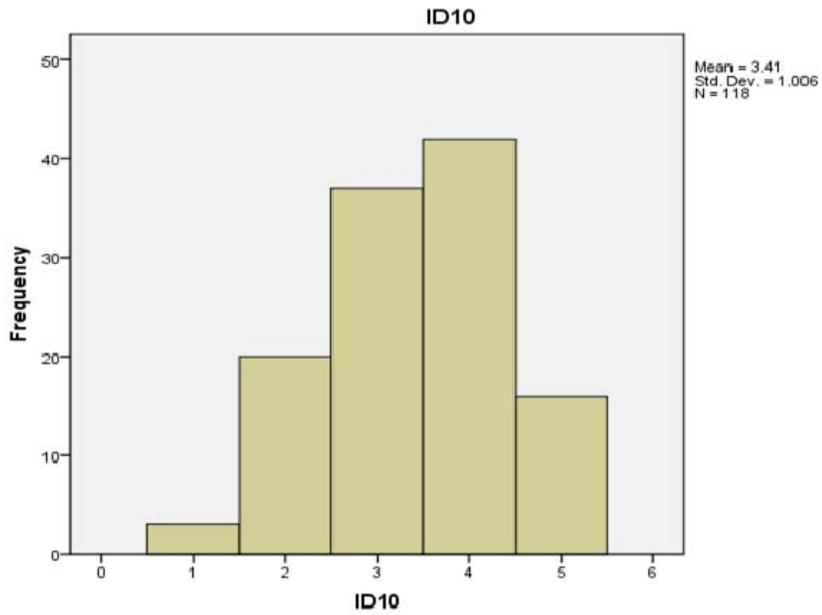


Figure 13. LDPs' Sufficiency To Meet the Existing Leadership Development Needs At the Individual Level

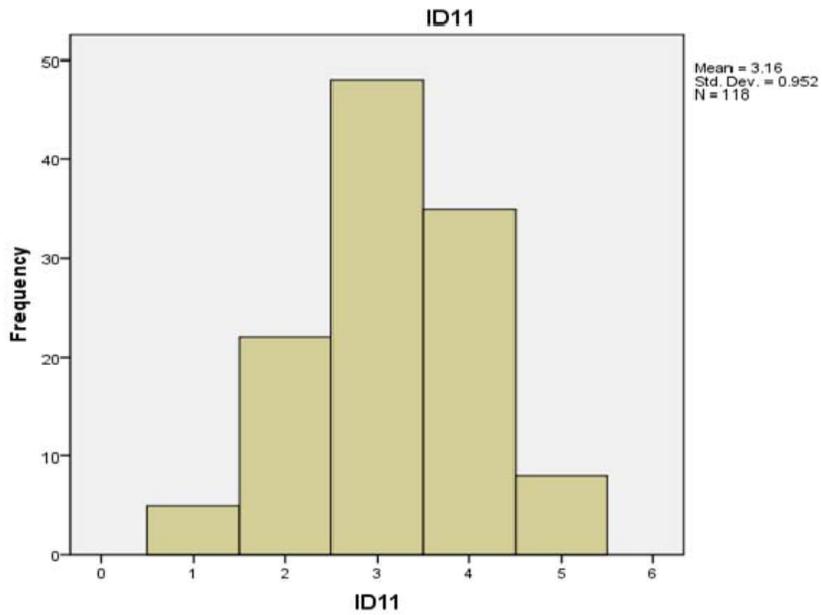


Figure 14. LDPs' Sufficiency To Meet the Existing Leadership Development Needs At the Institutional Level

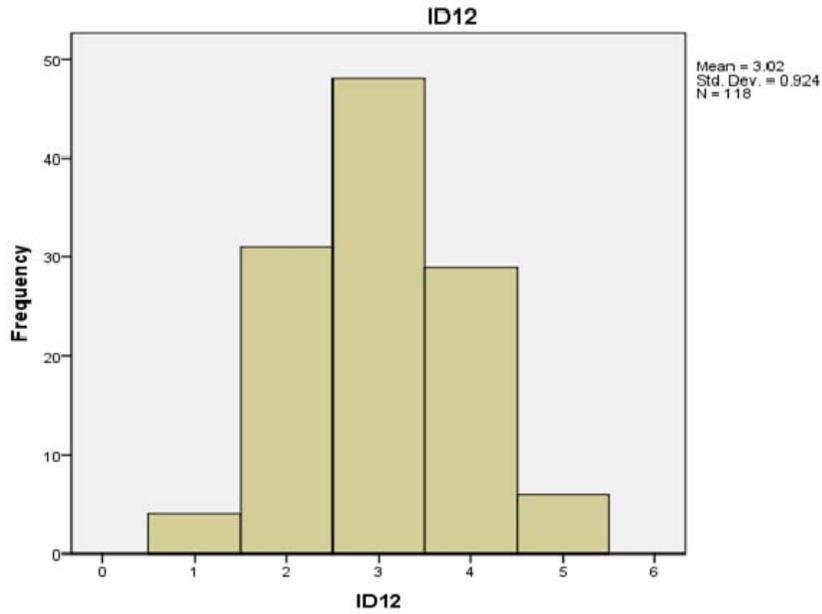


Figure 15. LDPs’ Sufficiency To Meet the Existing Leadership Development Needs At the Higher Education Enterprise Level

ANOVA Results and Frequency Distributions: Part ID

Analysis of variance was performed for each of the items in Part ID of the survey (items D1-12), comparing the average responses to each item across eight regions. The first part of each run was a table of *descriptive statistics* indicating number of respondents, means, and standard deviations of the responses, region by region. The means from these tables are the values that were compared in the ANOVA summaries that follow each set of means: the second part of each table. The key value in each of the ANOVA summaries was found in the final column (“Sig.” meaning “Significance”). If this number was smaller than 0.05, there were significant differences among the regional means. As it turns out, there were no significant differences among regions in responses to any of the twelve items in Part ID (see Table 35).

Table 35

ANOVA Summaries For Part I-D (items 1-12) Comparing Average Responses To Each Item Across the Eight ACHE Regions^a

Variable (Item)	Deg. Of Freedom	F Ratio	Significance
ID1	7, 107	.682	.685
ID2	7, 107	.529	.811
ID3	7, 107	1.232	.292
ID4	7, 107	.447	.870
ID5	7, 107	1.040	.408
ID6	7, 107	1.257	.279
ID 7	7, 107	.394	.904
ID8	7, 107	.377	.914
ID9	7, 107	.679	.690
ID10	7, 106	1.120	.356
ID11	7, 106	.572	.777
ID12	7, 106	.421	.887

^a Because Levene's Test showed that the homogeneity of variance assumption was not violated for any of the analyses, the results for the conventional F test are reported.

Frequency distributions were also performed for each of the items in Part ID of the survey (items D1-12). The 12 questions had three questions for each of four aspects pertaining to respondents beliefs about success of LDPs helping build leadership competencies (three questions); priority given to LDPs (three questions); competitive advantages provided by LDPs (three questions); and sufficiency of LDPs to meet existing leadership development needs (three questions). The reason for three questions per LDP aspect was one for the individual, one for the institutional, and one for the higher education enterprise levels. Mean scores and standard deviations were also run for the 12 items (see Table 36).

Table 36

Frequency Distribution of Responses to Questionnaire Items Concerning Beliefs about the Four Aspects of Leadership Development Programs

Item	Strongly Disagree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Agree 5	Mean	SD	Total
Such Programs are Successful at Helping:								
ID1. individuals develop their leadership competencies.	2	2	21	56	38	4.06	0.85	119
ID2. academic institutions meet their needs for developing the leadership competencies of their administrators.	3	13	32	56	15	3.56	0.94	119
ID3. the higher education enterprise meet its needs for developing the leadership competencies of its administrators.	1	16	44	45	12	3.43	0.88	118
Such Programs Should be Considered a Priority at the:								
ID4. individual level.	1	2	11	55	50	4.27	0.77	119
ID5. institutional level.	2	4	16	48	49	4.16	0.90	119
ID6. higher education enterprise level.	1	8	24	48	38	3.96	0.93	119
Such Programs Provide a Competitive Advantage at the:								
ID7. individual level.	1	1	15	55	47	4.23	0.76	119
ID8. institutional level.	2	8	31	45	33	3.83	0.97	119
ID9. higher education enterprise level.	2	11	47	37	22	3.55	0.95	119
Such Programs are Sufficient to meet the existing leadership development needs at the:								
ID10. individual level.	3	20	37	42	16	3.41	1.01	118
ID11. institutional level.	5	22	48	35	8	3.16	0.95	118
ID12. higher education enterprise level.	4	31	48	29	6	3.02	0.92	118

Descriptive Statistics: Part III (VCS 10, 11, and 12)

The VCS Part III concluded with two questions which asked about a respondent’s institution with respect to the type and number of LDPs it offered (VCS III 10, VCSIII 11), and if none were offered why a respondent thought this was the case (VCS 12)? A final question (VCS 13) was open ended and asked for any comments a respondent wanted to make.

Basic descriptive statistics were run for these questions. VCS question 10 asked respondents to “Chose all program types (with percentages) that describe the Leadership Development Programs (LDPs) provided by your institution’s Continuing Education Unit for Administrators (they may be faculty members with teaching responsibilities, or may not)”. The categories respondents could choose from included non-credit, credit, blended (non-credit and credit participants in same class), or no provision. Also, the percentages were to add to 100%. The results were as indicated (see Table 37).

Table 37

LDP Program Types and Percentages Offered by Your CE Unit For Administrators

Descriptive Statistics for Part III-10					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
III10nc%	115	0	100	32.83	42.551
III10cr%	115	0	100	18.43	33.615
III10bl%	115	0	50	1.83	6.634
III10np%	115	0	100	46.91	49.509

As evidenced above, no provision (np) had the highest mean and standard deviation, followed by non-credit LDPs credit LDPs, and then blended LDPs.

Respondents were asked in VCS question 11, “If your institution offered at least 1 program, about how many are offered annually in the following categories? The choices given were 1) non-credit, 2) credit, 3) blended (non-credit and credit participants in the same class).

The number of programs were presented in categories: 1) 1-2 programs, 2) 3-4 programs, 3) 5-6 programs, and 4) more than six (see Table 38).

Table 38

LDP Program Types: Frequencies and Percentages of Offerings

<i>Statistics for Part III-11</i>		
III-11 Non-Credit		
	Frequency	Valid Percent
1-2 Programs	26	41.0
3-4 Programs	16	25.8
5-6 Programs	4	6.5
More than 6	16	25.8
Total	62	100.0
III-11 Credit		
	Frequency	Valid Percent
0	1	2.4
1-2 Programs	16	39.0
3-4 Programs	10	24.4
5-6 Programs	5	12.2
More than 6	9	22.0
Total	41	100.0
III-11 Blended (Non-Credit and Credit)		
	Frequency	Valid Percent
0	1	6.7
1-2 Programs	10	66.7
3-4 Programs	3	20.0
5-6 Programs	1	6.7
More than 6	NA	NA
Total	15	100.0

As shown in the frequency statistics, non-credit LDPs were most frequent (26) at the 1-2 program level followed by the credit LDPs (16) and blended LDPs (10). At the 3-4 LDPs level,

non-credit LDPs were found to be the next most frequent (16), followed by credit (10) and blended (3). At the 5-6 LDPs level, the number of LDPs for each category was much less. One statistic that stood out was that respondents indicated that ACHE institutions had more than six LDPs (16), which tied with 3-4 LDPs level for non-credit LDPs.

The descriptive statistics for Part III-12 included frequencies and percentages. Respondents were asked, “If your unit does not offer such programs, why do you believe that this is the case? Check all that apply.” The following list of choices was presented to the respondents:

- Little or no value to the individual.
- Little or no value to the academic institution.
- Little or no value to the higher education enterprise.
- Lack of management expertise for such programs.
- Lack of enough of a participant pool.
- Little, if any, interest on the part of potential participants
- Not enough resources to support.
- Other (please explain) _____

Results are shown in Table 39.

Table 39

III-12a Through III-12h (Other): Respondents Beliefs About Why LDPs Are Not Offered By the CE Unit At Their Institution

III-12a Little or no value to the individual

Descriptive Statistics		
	Frequency	Valid Percent
0	118	97.5
1	3	2.5
Total	121	100.0

III-12b Little or no value to the academic institution

	Frequency	Valid Percent
0	115	95.0
1	6	5.0
Total	121	100.0

III-12c Little or no value to the higher education enterprise

	Frequency	Valid Percent
0	121	96.7
1	4	3.3
Total	121	100.0

III-12d Lack of management expertise for such programs

	Frequency	Valid Percent
0	115	95.0
1	6	5.0
Total	121	100.0

Table 39 (continued)

III-12e Lack of enough of a participant pool

	Frequency	Valid Percent
0	113	93.4
1	8	6.6
Total	121	100.0

III-12-f Little, if any, interest on the part of potential participants

	Frequency	Valid Percent
0	118	95.0
1	6	5.0
Total	121	100.0

III-12g Not enough resources to support

	Frequency	Valid Percent
0	88	72.7
1	33	27.3
Total	121	100.0

III-12h-Other (please explain.)

	Frequency	Valid Percent
0	101	83.5
1	20	16.5
Total	121	100.0

These III-12 *Other* results were based on the 20 responses out of 122 completed surveys (16% response rate) that were received by the researcher. Their comments were summarized and several themes arose from the results. Theme one had to do with nine respondents who commented on the fact that LDPs are offered through other university departments or other external sources. Their comments included 1) “LDPs offered through another department;” “use external LDPs from the higher education system and other external sources;” 2) “it is valued and

there is a designated unit that manages it;" 3) "offered via institutional HR unit;" 4) "done by Human Resources;" 5) "offered directly by university administration;" 6) "offered by other units at the university;" and, 7) "such programs offered by Human Resources and School of Education." The predominant university unit was found to be the Department of Human Resources.

The second theme that emerged was that it was not part of their unit's mission. Two respondents (.2%) made the following comments: 1) "not our focus;" and, 2) "not a part of our assigned role in the state system of higher education." The other comments made included a variety of statements as follows: 1) "a great deal of regional and local competitors;" 2) "expect individuals to achieve expertise thru grad degrees outside and/or other training;" 3) "lack of interest/support from highest level administrators and the perception of lack of enough of a participant pool—actually there would be;" 4) "time available—many pulling double duties, not enough resources to support;" 5) "we have never explored our role in this area;" and, 6) "just growing to that stage."

Qualitative Results: Part III (VCS 13)

The last question on the VCS survey, question 13, asked respondents about "Any additional comments you wish to make please write below." This was a qualitative question and was open-ended to allow respondents to express their views. Their comments were summarized and certain key themes arose from the results that were relevant to this study.

There were a total of 26 responses (21% response rate) from which emerged 12 themes. This number of themes indicated that responses were not consistent enough to form major thematic categories. Upon analysis, they ranged from complimentary to supportive to everything

in-between. The researcher limited this discussion to 12 key themes and select quotations that captured the highlights within the various themes.

Theme 1: Success of LDPs

Two comments addressed the success of LDPs. One of the comments highlighted three key ingredients to success: “Success of all leadership development depends on top down support, the commitment of the individual & positive culture for learning & leadership—which are all linked.” The second comment addressed the criticality of LDPs: “LDPs are critical to success.”

Theme 2: Value of LDPs

This comment emphasized usefulness/ value. “Programs like this seem most useful for individual growth in self-awareness and professional socialization.”

Theme 3: Individual Responsibility

“... I chose #3 in all instances for I truly believe any course/program can do only so much. The individual must want to do these things, too. Without the desire and commitment from the person, it matters not what is in the course/program.”

Theme 4: University Support of CE LDPs for Others But Not Internally

This response was mixed: “University leadership endorses CPE (continuing professional education) providing these programs to external and non-credit audiences, but has never supported an internal program. The university will send key people to national or regional training programs.”

Theme 5: System Support

“I work for the Board of Regents. We offer a Leadership Program from our office that allows one individual from each campus to participate. It is an 18 month program. The individuals are selected by the President of the college and/or University.”

Theme 6: Mentoring and Outsourcing

This response centered on mentoring and outsourcing. “In our institution, leadership development occurs via mentoring or is outsourced to professional associations or their organizations.”

Theme 7: Variability in LDPs

Three comments addressed the issue of variability from different perspectives. They included 1) “Answers to all questions in survey vary depending upon the specific Leadership Development programs offered;” 2) “Leadership programs vary depending on target populations. Unless the institution buys into its own programs, there is little impact generally;” and 3) “When considering most senior level administrators—exp. in Academic Affairs and Students Affairs that have terminal degrees—you must consider varying approaches.”

Theme 8: Budget Constraints

This comment emphasized the issue of tight budgets. “LDPs provided if top administrators support the value and concept and if money is available. LDPs are often 1st to be cut due to budget constraints.”

Theme 9: Issues with Answering Questions

Three responses addressed this issue from different perspectives. They stated 1) “I was unable to answer these questions effectively because my experience with leadership development and programs is limited to some disparate one-day sessions that were interesting,

but not particularly effective, particularly at the institutional level;” 2) “This survey should have had clearer operational definitions related to the focus of this study;” and 3) “Not completely clear on what is meant by leadership development programs (there are various interpretations possible).”

Theme 10: Assumptions

Four respondents addressed this issue from different perspectives. They stated 1) “It would have been helpful for you to better define and give examples of LDPs so I could check my thinking with you re: what constitutes an LDP. I’ve had to make some definitional assumptions that may not be valid. For example, is an executive master’s degree program considered valid? What about a week-long in-service retreat for current staff and administrators within the DCE unit? Is attendance at professional development conferences, such as ACHE considered an LDP;” 2) “... There appears some inherent assumptions regards LDPs. They are not all created equal. Good ones are great. Bad ones are merely excuses for not taking the time to do it right;” 3) “CE LDPs exist far less frequently than this survey seems (assumes) to believe;” and 4) “Making this specific to Higher Education (Administrators) makes it difficult to respond to this survey. Many of our programs and degrees are more general to administrative leadership and are more broadly based. Many of the questions assume the ability to change personality traits and should be recast for specific skills that can be impacted.”

Theme 11: Credit Degree Programs

“We have a Master’s program in professional leadership. Many employees have made an individual decision to complete that degree, including myself.”

Theme 12: Lack of CE LDPs

“We do not offer leadership development programs. I answered your questions based on my personal perceptions.”

Chapter Summary

The focus on intangibles and their value to organizations has emerged as a key element in the research of both popular and scholarly literatures. The link between leadership, leadership development, intangibles, and value/valuation in the business arena has been documented (Lev, 2001; Low & Kalafut, 2002; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004; Phillips, Myhill, & McDonough, 2007; Phillips & Phillips, 2007). Higher education has also examined these important relationships (Shannon, 2003; Roffe, 2003; Mattes & Maguire, 2004).

This study sought to explore the perceived value of Leadership Development Programs (LDPs) provided by Continuing Education Units for Administrators in Colleges and Universities (ACHE member institutions). Included in this study were three types of programs, credit, non-credit, and blended (credit and non-credit) programs. This study also investigated the value of LDPs at three levels: individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise with three value scales developed for each level. The research instrument designed to facilitate this study was an original survey and named the Value Creation Survey.

The results of the data analyses provided information concerning the following items: 1) the characteristics of the ACHE Institutional Representatives participating in the study; 2) the reliability scores associated with the three value scales; 3) the summary statistics related to the ACHE Institutional Representatives responses to the instrument used in this study; and 4) the answers to the eight research questions (enumerated next) proposed in this study. The study provided the following results.

For Research Questions 1, 2, and 3, the reliability scores for all three value scales (individual (24 questions), institutional (12 questions), and higher education enterprise (11 questions)) were excellent. The overall alpha (α) scores equaled .939, .925, and .939 respectively. These results indicated that items on each scale were measuring the perceived value of LDPs at each respective level.

Regarding Research Question 4 (LDPs should be considered a priority), correlation results for LDPs being considered a priority at all three levels ranged from .449 to .621 and were determined to be positive.

For Research Question 5 (program effectiveness), histogram/order analysis also was used to assess what LDP models (non-credit, credit, and blended non-credit) are most effective for enhancing leadership development at all three levels. The histograms indicated that respondents chose sequence 2 (non-credit, blended, credit) and sequence 5 (blended, non-credit, credit) most often, where credit was ranked third, with either of others as first/second.

With respect to Research Question 6 (LDPs provide a competitive advantage), correlation results for LDPs providing a competitive advantage at all three levels ranged from .460 to .717 and were determined to be positive.

For Research Question 7 (LDPs help develop leadership competencies), correlation results for LDPs being successful in helping develop leadership competencies at all three levels ranged from .513 to .528 and were considered to be positive.

For Research Question 8 (LDPs offered are sufficient to help meet existing leadership development needs), correlation results for LDPs being sufficient to meet existing leadership development needs at all three levels ranged from .362 to .542 and were considered to be positive.

The above results are summarized as follows: 1) people tended to respond to items about sufficiency (RQ 8) relatively less consistently than they did items in other categories (priority, RQ 4, competitive advantages, RQ 6, helpfulness, RQ 7); and 2) people who value such programs perceived them as providing a competitive advantage at the individual level (coefficient of .460), the institutional level (coefficient of .617) and the higher education enterprise level (coefficient of .717). The latter two of these had noticeably high correlations (.617 and .599) with priority at the institutional level and with the higher education enterprise value scale (coefficients of .703 and .717). The three value scales correlated quite strongly with one another.

Independent samples *t-test* was calculated for gender with the following results: 1) no significant differences between males and females were indicated in the perceived value of LDPs to individuals, institutions, or the higher education enterprise; and 2) because means and standard deviations for males and females throughout the different levels were consistently found to be insignificant, no assumptions were accepted. Descriptive statistics were calculated for ethnicity of respondents who identified themselves as *White, not Hispanic*, *Black, not Hispanic* or *Hispanic* and their responses to the three perceived value scales. The other three categories of ethnicity were not indicated. Overall, there were too few non-white respondents to perform any statistical comparisons by ethnicity. However, one result of these descriptive statistics stood out: the mean Individual Value attributed by Blacks was substantially higher than for either of the other groups.

Descriptive statistics were run for the eight ACHE regions with respect to the three value scales. Results indicated that there were no significant differences in value attributions across the eight regions. However, the Northeast Metropolitan region gave the lowest ratings on all

three scales. ANOVAs also were run to compare participant responses regarding the success/helpfulness of LDPs, priority, competitive advantage, and sufficiency across the eight regions at the three levels. Again, there were no significant differences among regions in responses to the issues regarding success/helpfulness of LDPs, priority, competitive advantage, and sufficiency.

Histograms were used to represent the frequency distributions and means for questions regarding success/helpfulness of LDPs, priority, competitive advantage, and sufficiency. Regarding success/helpfulness of LDPs, results indicated that LDPs were seen as helping individuals build competencies. Neither the institutional level nor the higher education enterprise level rated as highly as did the individual level. With respect to priority, results indicated that endorsement was highest for the individual level, then institutional, and enterprise levels. Overall, all levels were strongly to very strongly endorsed. Regarding competitive advantage, LDPs were definitely seen as providing a competitive advantage at the individual level, not quite so much at the institutional level, and even less at the higher education enterprise level. Even for the latter situation, however, responses were more toward the “agree” end of the scale. Regarding sufficiency of LDPs meeting the leadership development needs for current and future administrator at the three levels, results indicated a stronger endorsement at the individual level than at either the institutional or higher education enterprise levels. Overall, respondents seem not very convinced about the sufficiency of the programs.

ANOVAs were performed for each of the twelve items pertaining to success in helping, priority, competitive advantage, and sufficiency, comparing the average responses at the three levels to each item across the eight ACHE regions. As it turned out, there were no significant differences among regions in responses to any of the twelve items. Because Levene’s Test

showed that the homogeneity of variance assumption was not violated for any of the analyses, the results for the conventional F test were reported.

Basic descriptive statistics were run for survey Question 10 under demographics. Question 10 asked participants to “Choose all program types...that describe the Leadership Development Programs (LDPs) provided by your institution’s Continuing Education Unit for Administrators.” The results indicated means and standard deviations.

VCS Question 11 asked if their institution offered at least one program, about how many were offered annually in the following categories: non-credit, credit, and blended (non-credit and credit)? The statistics included frequencies and percentages. The most frequent results were 1-2 programs in all three categories (non-credit, credit, and blended non-credit and credit), followed by 3-4 programs in all three categories. The rest of the results were varied.

VCS Question 12 asked if their unit did not offer such programs. Why do they believe that this was the case (check all that applied)? The summary of their comments covered several themes. LDPs are offered through other university departments or other external sources, and LDPs are not a part of their unit’s mission.

VCS Question 13 was a qualitative question that asked respondents to express anything the VCS might not have. The qualitative responses from the survey respondents covered the themes as discussed on pages 52-54. The twelve themes were 1) success of LDPs; 2) value of LDPs; 3) individual responsibility; 4) university support; 5) system support; 6) mentoring and outsourcing; 7) variability in LDPs; 8) budget constraints; 9) issues with answering questions; 10) assumptions; 11) credit degree programs; and, 12) lack of LDPs.

Leadership Development Programs must have an increasing positive impact on the quality of higher education. The goal of this study was to contribute in a quantitative way to

understanding Leadership Development Programs. The hope for this chapter was that it made a positive contribution in achieving this objective.

CHAPTER V:
CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

“Much of what is best about the academy and the experiences it offers is abstract, intangible, and easily overlooked in the moment....” (Ruben, 2004, p. xviii)

Dr. Brent D. Ruben, Distinguished Professor of Communication and Organizational Psychology, and Executive Director of the Center for Organizational Development and Leadership at Rutgers University, captured the abstract and intangible nature of what he thinks is best about higher education in the above quotation. Ruben (2004) proposed eight key challenges for “The Academy.” The one especially relevant to this research was the importance of devoting more attention and resources to leadership. He linked this challenge to leadership development in higher education:

A new leadership development paradigm is needed...that uses the academy’s core educational values and competencies and allows those of us within the academy to benefit from the kinds of developmental experiences we have long advocated and provided for others...we need to encourage further study of leadership in higher education...[and] create more meaningful leadership development opportunities. (p. 386)

From this, the conclusion to draw is that various types of Leadership Development Program (LDP) opportunities should be made available throughout the Academy. The belief we have is that this orientation must apply to both academic administrators, such as Deans and Department Heads, and to other administrators in the Academy, such as those in management roles from library administration to those in human resources.

Ruben’s comment, “...we have long advocated and provided for others...” implies leadership development programs have been provided for-profit arena. In this arena, Zadrozny’s (2006) article in MIT’s, *Sloan Management Review*, MIT’s School of Business publication,

entitled “Leveraging the Power of Intangible Assets” provides an excellent parallel to the focus of this study. The author wrote,

Many managers have been looking forward to when they can track information about their intangible assets—for example, the value of...the quality of their human talent.... [And]...most managers have been slow to respond. Few have begun even to scratch the surface in seizing the opportunities that information about intangible assets offers. (p. 85)

Zadrozny (2006) referenced a global study wherein 94% of those surveyed believed that, “...comprehensive management of intangibles...as important...half considered it one of the top three issues facing their organizations. But management awareness about how to take advantage of this value remains surprisingly low” (p. 85).

With this in mind, this research drew a parallel to the Academy. This research focused on the perceived value of LDPs and, as noted herein, there is not extensive literature in the academic arena that provides quantitative support for the value of such programs. LDPs for administrators in higher education and the perceived value they create at the 1) individual, 2) institutional, and 3) higher education enterprise levels must be better understood and articulated. This study came with a goal of both wanting to add to and enriching that literature base.

The relationships between 1) intangibles, 2) leadership, and 3) leadership development programs have been recognized as important to businesses (Lev, 2001; Low & Kalafut, 2002; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004; Phillips, Myhill, & McDonough, 2007; Phillips & Phillips, 2007), and to academic institutions (Shannon, 2003; Roffe, 2003; Mattes & Maguire, 2004). The impact of these three variables on a fourth variable, “value creation,” has received increased attention with the goal of increasing understanding for how these concepts should be interrelated.

The association and interaction between tangible and intangible assets contribute to value-creation in today’s business arena (Daum, 2003; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004; Cohen, 2005).

The association and interaction between tangible and intangible assets contribute to value-

creation in today's highly competitive higher education environment (Shannon, 2003). The tangibles delivered by a leader through behavior and actions rest on the intangibles, such as the leader's abilities, skills and competencies. LDPs must enrich this understanding and that the assessment of leadership is shaped by the tangible experiences of followers. In sum, tangible assets have intangibles embedded in them and cannot exist without them.

Continuing education units in higher education were deemed appropriate to address the "Leadership Development Challenge." The programs they create must be flexible, adaptive, and entrepreneurial (Thompson, 1992; Newman, 2002; Hrabowski, 2003; Shannon, 2003). The "Leadership Development Paradigm," must advance a, "new, broader, and more inclusive view of organizational excellence" (Ruben, 2004). The balance of this dissertation's concluding Chapter V is organized into five sections: 1) summary of the study; 2) summary of the findings; 3) discussion and implications; 4) recommendations for future practice; 5) recommendations for future research.

Summary of the Study

Extensive scholarly work on leadership has been conducted in other fields such as social psychology and business management. In most instances, much of this work could be applied appropriately to the study of leadership in non-profit, professional organizations, such as colleges and universities. The recent trend in the study of leadership is towards a blended or integrated conceptual framework (Rost, 1991; Yukl, 2000). This study utilized a blended approach to leadership based on the following leadership theories: hybrid (Bass, 1990); excellence (Rost, 1991; Ruben, 2004); New Leadership (Bryman, 1992; Middlehurst, 1993); and integrative approaches (Yukl, 2002).

This study focused on the multi-level examination of the perceived value of university-based leadership development programs for administrators at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels. This more comprehensive perspective (Yukl, 2002; Teddlie & Taskakkori, 2003; Avery, 2004) was seen as desirable in this study.

This study researched the perceived value of LDPs provided by continuing education units for administrators in four-year institutions, specifically ACHE (Association of Continuing Higher Education) member institutions. According to Phillips and Schmidt (2004), the focus on perceptions and the effort to measure them is appropriate as, “Most leadership development programs [are] evaluated through perceived...benefits” (p. 297). Because perceptions are measurable, a quantitative study was undertaken. To validate the survey instrument, a pretest was given to 22 current or former administrators involved in continuing education activities at The University of Alabama, College of Continuing Studies. Fourteen respondents (64%) completed and returned the survey.

Information derived from this pretest, along with the information from the literature, enhanced the development of the final survey entitled the, “Value Creation Survey.” The “Value Creation Survey” (VCS) was designed as a cross-sectional survey with data collected at one point in time. Three categories of LDPs were included in this study: non-credit, credit, and blended (non-credit and credit) programs. For each program category, three value scales were developed to investigate the perceived value of LDPs at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels. The sample chosen and recommended by ACHE as most appropriate consisted of 217 Institutional Representatives who were members of ACHE in 2009. The original 75-item VCS survey was sent to the 217 Institutional Representatives and a second mailing was implemented. Responses from 122 representatives provided a 56% response rate.

A quantitative research design was driven by the challenge to identify and measure intangible benefits linked directly to LDPs for higher education administrators, whether academic or non-academic administrators. In LDPs, “the intangible benefits can be more important than the tangible measures” (Phillips & Schmidt, 2004, p. 206). The authors underscored that measures may not capture all the intangibles, no matter the degree and effort that went into developing the survey instrument. The VCS was developed with this in mind.

Eight research questions were developed for this study (presented in Chapter I). The first three questions addressed the perceived value of LDPs designed for administrators at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels. The remaining five research questions addressed five aspects of LDPs at three levels: 1) priority (a pressing need meriting attention); 2) effectiveness (producing or capable of producing a desired result); 3) competitive advantage (benefit resulting from some course of action); 4) success/helpfulness (favorable or desired and useful outcome); and 5) sufficiency (meeting one’s needs).

The literature presents a distinction between rational or objective views of leadership versus interpretive or subjective views of leadership (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Middlehurst, 1993; Yukl, 2002). The rational or objective view advances that, “leadership is real, measurable and substantive,” while the interpretive or subjective view advances that, “leadership is intuitive, intangible, or symbolic” (Middlehurst, 1993, p. 185). The subjective perspective emphasizes one’s personal beliefs about leadership and leadership development programs. This study attempted to bring together both perspectives of leadership and leadership development. The ultimate goal was to achieve a comprehensive, holistic understanding of how leadership, leadership development, intangibles, and valuation come together. This

understanding measured participants' perceptions of the value of LDPs at multiple levels (individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise).

Summary of the Findings

Eight research questions led to the development of a three-part Value Creation Survey (VCS) to measure the impact of LDPs. VCS Part I asked about the perceived value of LDPs at the individual level (RQ 1), at the institutional level (RQ 2), and at the higher education enterprise level (RQ 3). In addition, Part I focused on four aspects of LDPs at the same three levels: 1) if LDPs should be considered a priority (RQ 4); 2) if they provide a competitive advantage (RQ 6); 3) if they are successful at helping to develop leadership competencies (RQ 7); and 4) if they are sufficient to meet existing leadership development needs (RQ 8).

Part II of the VCS dealt with the focus of RQ 5, namely the effectiveness of the three different types of LDPs, non-credit, credit, and blended (credit and non-credit for attendees in a particular class). Effectiveness was measured by asking survey respondents to rank order the three program formats (there were six combinations for the three program formats), this measure at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise level. Part III of the VCS asked about respondent demographics, for example, one's primary role at his/her institution; how long in that position; one's gender; one's ACHE region. Along with questions about demographics, VCS Part III also asked for 1) percentages of the three program categories offered at one's institution, and 2) how many of each or why none was offered (if such was the case).

Cronbach's Alpha assessed scale reliability for the five-point "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" Likert scale developed to address RQ1, RQ2, and RQ3. The three value scales had alpha values above .900 indicating cohesiveness for items that comprised each of the three value scales. Statistical analyses (t-tests, ANOVAs) indicated no significant gender differences

between males and females with respect to the perceived value of LDPs at the three levels, individuals, institution, or the higher education enterprise. The correlation of the individual with the institutional value scales was .76, the individual value with the higher education enterprise value scales was .65, and for the institutional and higher education enterprise scales was .76. All correlations were significant at the 0.01 level. In sum, regional comparisons of the eight ACHE regions also showed no significant differences in value attributions.

Research Questions 4, 6, 7, and 8 were addressed in Part ID and research question in Part II of the survey. Responses for all five were measured at each of the three levels (individual, institutional, higher education enterprise). Regarding RQ4 concerning LDPs, “Should be considered a priority,” all levels were endorsed strongly to very strongly. Endorsement was highest for the individual level, next the institutional level, and lastly for the higher education enterprise levels.

Concerning the three course models (non-credit, credit, blended), six potential rankings were possible (non-credit, credit, blended; credit, non-credit, blended; and so forth). RQ5 asked for a ranking of model effectiveness at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels. No matter the level, for the six potential rank orderings of the three models the two highest ranked were credit, non-credit, blended by 35% to 40% of the respondents, and blended, non-credit, credit by 25% to 30% of respondents. All other combinations received support by 10% or less of the respondents.

Concerning the second LDP aspect and the focus of RQ6, “Such programs should provide a competitive advantage,” results indicated LDPs were most strongly perceived as providing a competitive advantage at the individual level. Institutions and the higher education

enterprise received more neutral responses with respect to “provide a competitive advantage.” Even here, however, responses were more toward the “agree” end of the Likert Scale.

With respect to the focus of RQ7, “Such programs are successful at helping develop leadership competencies,” results indicated that LDPs were seen as definitely helping individuals build competencies. Institutions and the higher education enterprise received neutral and lower responses on the 5-point Likert Scale. With respect to RQ8, “Such programs are sufficient to meet the existing leadership development needs,” there was a much stronger endorsement at the individual level than the institutional or higher education enterprise levels.

ANOVA analyses were performed on the four aspects of LDPs (successful at helping; considered a priority; provide a competitive advantage; sufficient number of programs) at multiple levels. These four aspects were compared with the average responses to each item across the eight ACHE regions. There were no significant differences among the eight regions in response to any of the four aspects. Levene’s Test showed that the homogeneity of variance assumption was not violated for any of these analyses.

VCS Part III focused on the following nine demographics of the ACHE Institutional Representatives (primary role; how long in primary role; prior administrative duties; academic appointment; teaching duties; years in higher education; gender; ethnicity; and ACHE region. Descriptive statistics summarized the data. The number of program types (non-credit, credit, and blended, no provision), offered at a respondent’s institution was asked. Of the 115 respondents, 31 (27%) indicated an LDP in just one category, and 33 (29%) indicated one or more such programs offered. Of the 31 whose institution offered just one LDP, 26 (84%) answered “non-credit” and five (16%) answered “credit” as to the type of program offered.

For those who answered one or more programs offered, Part III of the VCS asked how many were offered annually with categories presented “1-2,” “3-4,” “5-6,” and “more than 6.” For the 33 respondents answering more than one program offered, 17 (52 %) indicated the non-credit and credit combination; 10 of the 33 (30%) indicated the non-credit and credit and blended offerings. For the combination non-credit and blended, 1 of the 33 (3%) indicated this combination; 1 of the 33 (3%) answered credit and blended offerings. Of the 33 in the “more than one” category, 4 (12%) provided answers that were not usable. Of the 115 survey respondents, 51 (44%) answered “No Provision for Leadership Development Programs.”

If LDPs were not offered, eight response categories were presented on the VCS. The first three were specific to the value of LDPs to the individual, institution, and higher education enterprise. The results noted were as follows: “little or no value to the individual” (three responses); “little or no value to the academic institution (six responses); “little or no value to the higher education enterprise” (four responses); “lack of management expertise for such programs” (six responses); “lack of enough of a participant pool” (eight responses); “little, if any, interest on the part of potential participants” (six responses); “not enough resources to support” (33 responses); and, “Other” (20 responses). Overall, respondents to the issues of “not enough resources to support” and the “Other” category were chosen most often. With regard to the “Other” category, several themes emerged: 1) LDPs were offered through other university departments or other external sources; and 2) LDPs were not part of their unit’s mission (see Table 39).

Part III ended with an open-ended qualitative question asking for additional comments. Responses presented in Chapter IV included the following examples: 1) LDPs are valued; 2) individual responsibility to participate in LDPs; 3) have university support of LDPs; 4) have

system support for LDPs; 5) too many regional and local competitors; 6) use of mentoring and outsourcing; 7) variability in LDPs; 8) budget constraints; 9) no requests to offer LDPs; 10) need time available to participate (many doing double duties); 11) participation in credit degree programs; 12) lack of LDPs; 13) lack of interest/support from highest level administrators; and, 14) never explored their role in offering LDPs.

The Value-Creation Survey (VCS) was an original instrument developed for this study. The hope is that the findings positively contribute to the literature on leadership development (Middlehurst, 1993; Middlehurst, 1995; Vicere & Fulmer, 1998; Conger, 1992; Day, 2000; McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004) and the literature on intangibles (Blair & Wallman, 2001; Lev, 2001; Low & Kalafut, 2002; Shannon, 2003; Roffe, 2003; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004; Cohen, 2005; Marr, 2005).

Discussion and Implications

The field of leadership development as evidenced in the literature is continually evolving (Conger, 1992; Middlehurst, 1993; Vicere & Fulmer, 1998; Day, 2000; McCauley & Van Velsor 2004; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004). The issues include various approaches to and evolving paradigms of leadership development, and various approaches to the evaluation and measurement of outcomes of leadership development programs. These are issues that continue to challenge researchers and practitioners.

Increasing Need for Leadership Development Programs (LDPs)

As evidenced in this study, there is an increasing need for LDPs for higher education administrators. There are several reasons for this increasing need. As noted in the literature, the increase in competition coupled with the projected shortfall of qualified leaders (Day & Haplin, 2004; Phillips & Schmidt) is a contributing factor. Also, the impending leadership gap being

created by retirements throughout many organizations (Day & Halpin, 2004) is another contributing factor. In addition, one of the most critical leadership development challenges confronting today's organizations is acceleration of the development of leadership talent (Day & Halpin, 2004; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004; Ruben, 2004) which is a contributing factor.

Other contributing factors are equally apparent. While various types of LDPs for administrators exist, contrary to the for-profit arena, there often is no overall institutional commitment on the part of colleges and universities to support leadership development for these professionals. The need for LDPs for administrative staff historically has not been evidenced within academic organizations (McDade, 1987; Green, 1988; Green & McDade, 1991; McDade & Lewis (EDs.), 1994; Rubin, 2004). Rather, most institutions typically leave it up to the individual to take responsibility for charting his or her own leadership development undertakings.

Recognizing the need for LDPs, continuing higher education professional organizations, such as the Association for Continuing Higher Education (ACHE) and the University Professional & Continuing Education Association (UPCEA), have increased their leadership development programming for mid-level and executive administrators in higher education. Even with the ACHE and UPCEA leadership development programming initiatives, the need for LDPs at all levels (individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise) must be emphasized by institutions of higher learning. One of the results of this study confirmed the conclusion that the ACHE Institutional Representatives seemed not very convinced about the sufficiency (meeting one's needs) of LDPs for administrators in colleges and universities. Overall, what was learned is that respondents perceived LDPs as insufficient to meet the existing leadership development needs of administrators.

Leadership Development Focus

The focus of this study emphasized leadership development. For this study, leadership development was defined as developing and enhancing leadership capacities at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise. This definition supported the premise that leadership development includes both individual and organizational or institutional leadership development (Ramsden, 1998; McCauley & Van Velsor (Eds). 2004; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004; Ruben, 2004). This research expanded this premise to also include the higher education enterprise level. This conceptualization (of leadership development) embraced and supported the integrated and multi-level approach to this research (Yukl, 2002; Teddlie & Taskakkori, 2003; Avery, 2004). What was learned from this study is that respondents' perceptions throughout the survey were consistently higher at the individual level, and less at the institutional and higher education enterprise levels. Besides the individual level, this finding suggests that LDPs must address the broader perspective of the impact that LDPs have on institutions and the higher education enterprise in general.

Education-Based Paradigm of Leadership Development

In pursuing excellence in higher education, Ruben (2004) argued that, "Education must be at the core of a new paradigm for leadership development" (p. 302). This should not be interpreted as a generic comment about education, but education centered on understanding leadership and education and the process of leadership development. This research addressed the matter of priority (a pressing need meriting attention) via a study of the statistical correlation between people's beliefs about the value of leadership development programs (LDPs) and priority. The correlations at the three levels (individual, institutional, higher education enterprise) were positive with the implication that LDPs must receive increasing support.

Value Creation Survey

The Value Creation Survey (VCS) created for this study was designed to capture the perceived benefits of LDPs for administrators in ACHE member institutions. Several models were considered in the development of the VCS: the Value Creation Index (Low & Kalafut, 2002; Shannon, 2003); and the Leadership Scorecard (Phillips & Schmidt, 2004). Based on these models, the idea crystallized for an original Value Creation Survey (VCS) for administrators at ACHE member institutions in higher education. The VCS instrument was developed and implemented; the value of LDPs was quantified, the goal of this research achieved.

Identifying Intangible Benefits

Leadership is a tangible experience for the person or persons experiencing the leader. Leadership itself rests on an intangible asset base. The challenge for this study was to identify several of the intangible benefits of LDPs. All of these intangible benefits were designed to capture the beliefs of respondents about the value of LDPs at multiple levels (individual, institutional, higher enterprise). All were seen as key to understanding the issues of 1) priority, 2) competitive advantage, 3) successful at helping, and 4) sufficiency at the individual, institutional, higher enterprise levels. To identify which intangible benefits should be measured was the goal.

First, twenty-four intangible benefits were identified as leadership skills, competencies, and abilities important at the individual level (Greenleaf, 1977; Goleman, 1997; Day, Zaccaro & Halpin 2004; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004). Next, twelve intangible benefits were identified as important for the institution level (Phillips & Schmidt, 2004; Harris, 1993). Lastly, eleven intangible benefits were identified as important to higher education enterprise (Ramsden, 1998;

Ruben, 2004). Intangible benefits studied in this research were defined through a study of the literature and the input of experts in the field. The hope is that the VCS developed for this research will be used by others and modified as research expertise warrants.

Every LDP has intangible benefits associated with it and these must become tangible in the mind of program attendees. Asking someone, “How was the program?” or, “What did you learn?” will cause that person to provide a tangible assessment to the question. All of the intangibles associated with an LDP most probably cannot be measured. The challenge was to define and measure many of them, paving the way for future research to: sharpen the measures of those that have been articulated; increase the set of intangibles that are measured; and, translate all of this into increasingly valued LDPs.

Recommendations for Future Practice

Leadership development for higher education administrators has not been a high priority (McDade, 1987; Fife & Goodchild (Eds.), 1991; McDade & Lewis (Eds.), 1994; Middlehurst, 1995; Munitz, 1995; Freed, Klugman, & Fife, 1997; Green, 1998; Green & McDade, 1997; Birnbaum, 2001; Boggs, 2003; Rubin, 2004). In business and industry, leadership development via management development courses has a respected history.

The first recommendation for future practice is that LDPs at all levels, particularly at the institutional and higher education enterprise levels must be better understood. A suggestion is that ACHE Institutional Representatives meet with senior administrators at their institutions and implement an effort to advocate priority be given to LDPs across all levels. As previously noted, one of the key challenges facing any organization is to accelerate the development of leadership talent (Day & Halpin, 2004; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004; Ruben, 2004). ACHE Institutional Representatives are in the right position to achieve this goal for academic institutions.

VCS responses provided by respondents believed LDPs were most successful at helping individuals develop their leadership competencies. In comparison however, respondents were less impressed with the LDP impact on academic institutions and the higher education enterprise. A second recommendation for future practice is that programs must be developed with this goal: administrators at various levels in an institution of higher learning, the same for administrators of higher education enterprise organizations, should advocate LDPs across all administrative levels.

VCS survey results indicated that people who value LDPs perceived them as providing a competitive advantage (Low & Kalafut, 2002; Shannon, 2003; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004). This was most strongly perceived at the individual level, not quite so at the institutional level, and even less at the higher education institutional level. The third recommendation for future practice is that the very concept of competitive advantage must be the focus of research for institutions and higher education enterprises. This must be defined and understood with the variables to measure generally agreed upon. In the business arena, generally accepted measurements are market share and profits. The variables for the higher education arena must be determined.

Survey respondents tended to respond to items about the sufficiency of LDPs to meet the existing leadership development needs at multiple levels (individual, institutional, higher education enterprise) relatively less consistently than they did items in the three categories just discussed whether the individual, institutional, or higher education enterprise levels. There was much stronger LDP endorsement as to having enough such programs at the individual level than at the institutional or higher education enterprise levels. The fourth recommendation for future practice is that ACHE Institutional Representatives advocate more attention be given to the

development and implementation of LDPs for current and future administrators at their institutions.

Recommendations for Future Research

As has been advanced by Ruben (2004) and supported throughout this research, there is a need for more qualitative and quantitative research on leadership development for administrators in higher education, both the academic side of higher education (e.g., deans, department heads) and also the non-academic side (e.g., the head of HR at the institution, the head of the library system on campus). How is value creation defined and understood by these leaders? This has been of interest to many researchers. For example, with respect to important specifics having to do with leadership and leadership development, research on (a) leadership effectiveness has been presented (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 35; House and Aditya, 1997, p. 418 and Yukl, 2002, p. 19); (b) on the subjective perspective for determining leadership (Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum, 1989, Middlehurst, 1993, p. 185, and Yukl, 2002, p. 19); and (c) on measurement issues regarding leadership development (Phillips & Schmidt, 2004, pp. 206-222).

Research must focus on determining if there is an understanding by leaders, academic and non-academic, of the intangible dimensions of leadership that underpins the tangible measures. LDPs for administrators in higher education should include, as did this research, the perceptual aspects of intangible benefits that are linked to leadership development. The research should provide insight into the impact of leadership development at multiple levels, not just the individual level. Going to an LDP normally will have an attendee think in terms of how he or she will benefit from attending that program. But what about how that individual's institution will benefit? What about how the higher education enterprise will benefit? Program curriculum

must include discussion of how such programs contribute to the process of value-creation, program attendees only benefitting from these deliberations.

Research must focus on work experiences outside of and previous to the academic arena and how these experiences impacted one's leadership in the academic arena. Often these non-academic learning experiences come under the rubric of "management development" or "executive development." What might be learned from researching this and how might LDPs become better as a consequence of this research?

This study implemented a mailed survey to ACHE Institutional Representatives. Respondents were not asked if they had ever attended an LDP. Of 217 mailed surveys, 122 were returned with the assumption that only those who attended an LDP participated in the study. Further research may wish to exclude those who have not attended an LDP, or include them in a subset of respondents for data comparison purposes.

Along with a post-LDP reflection (mailed survey) as was the case for this study, research in an ongoing LDP program itself would seem to have much merit. Are the benefits of LDPs at multiple levels (individual, institutional, higher education enterprise) discussed? Do such programs discuss value-creation, a tangible goal of LDPs? Learning these things would prove useful. Value creation must be understood by program attendees during that program.

When returning to one's campus, are there discussions about how a program went; how it might impact the attendee and his/her institution; if others at that institution should attend that program; if there are any meetings wherein the attendee becomes "teacher?"

Research about the perceptions of program attendees concerning the leadership they experience from their own supervisors would be valuable. This information would add to the perceived value of LDPs by encouraging program attendees to experience such considerations.

This study's results were based on 122 ACHE Institutional Representatives. Further research must be undertaken in order to feel increasingly comfortable generalizing to all continuing higher education professionals. The findings of this study are considered to be useful in adding to the baseline of knowledge related to the value of leadership development in academic organizations and the perceived value of LDPs designed for administrators. The hope is that this study is replicated, comparisons made, and the knowledge base expanded.

Drawing from the 2005 ACHE Proceedings, one of the sessions was entitled, *Leadership and Authority in Continuing Education: A Retrospective Look at Changing Roles and Responsibilities*. This session was based on a 2005 study of ACHE Institutional Representatives (Brown, Campbell, Dougherty, Penland, & Wilson, 2005), and addressed the issues of institutional type and institutional size. Two of the findings were that “more than half of the respondents were from public institutions and most were from four-year colleges of universities” (p. 29). For this study, institutional type and institutional size were not included in the Value Creation Survey developed for this research. Both issues would be valuable to include in future studies. Hypotheses could be developed around these issues.

Most of the literature on leadership development focuses on business organizations rather than academic institutions. As noted by Ruben (2004), “Many of today's higher education institutions have all the complexity of...a major corporation” (p. 289). He added, “The responsibilities and expertise required of today's higher education leaders generally parallel those associated with leadership positions in business and other sectors...” (p. 290). Non-academic arenas look at and measure value creation in the form of well defined variables, such as market share and profitability.

Higher education must define and learn more about value creation issues in the academic arena such as this research attempted to do by asking about the variables 1) competitive advantages, 2) priorities, 3) intangibles, and 4) value-creation. Were these variables clearly understood? Other variables that contribute to value creation should be defined and researched. Also, other academic respondent groups must be researched with responses compared to those in this study. Given the approval for members to attend LDPs, the challenge for any academic institution in higher education is to understand the intangible benefits of LDPs and know how to measure and utilize them (that is, to translate the intangibles into tangibles) to attain and then maintain a competitive advantage in today's competitive higher education environment.

According to Phillips and Schmidt (2004), "Communicating results is as important as achieving them" (p. 227). Thus, research must be undertaken to determine if results are being communicated to the appropriate target audiences (e.g., Provost, Vice Chancellor, or other important stakeholders). The authors suggest several communication principles: timeliness (communicate results as soon as they are known); target audiences (Provost, Vice Chancellor, other important stakeholders); consistent communication (if a particular group regularly receives communication about outcomes this should continue whatever the results are); and audience perceptions (audience's opinion of the leadership development staff and function must be understood by the communicator, the presentation shaped by this understanding). These principles should serve as a checklist for the directors or program managers of LDPs when disseminating program results. Research should be designed to measure if this is happening. Ultimately, such communication will find its way into value creation.

Low and Kalafut (2002) provided a five-step process for managing intangibles, one being the need to decide on the metrics for measuring the value of key intangibles. It is critical to

quantify the impact of LDPs on these intangibles. Future studies of LDPs in higher education must serve as a resource to help with the design of unique measurement tools to quantify the impact of intangible benefits of LDPs on value creation at particular institutions. That was a goal of this research. These results should be made known to demonstrate transparency on the part of institutions and the higher education enterprise and act as a motivator for this to take place in other higher education institutions.

This study explored through the development of eight research questions possible relationships between nine demographics and the value scales at the individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise levels. T-tests and ANOVAs were used to explore these relationships. Further research may develop hypotheses about demographics and perceptions of LDPs. Comparison of research questions such as developed for this study with the results of hypotheses tested in subsequent studies may prove insightful about directions for LDPs.

A question may be considered about LDP attendance and an institution's accreditation. At this moment, it is not believed that such linkage exists. Research into this area may very well provide a new avenue of respect and legitimization for LDPs in the Academy with enrollments in such programs to be most positively impacted.

Future research should examine an orientation someone attending an LDP has (or does not) about himself or herself and the higher education enterprise. Consider, for example, an LDP aspect studied in this research having to do with "provides a competitive advantage." It is normal to think of something like this as to how it pertains to oneself (individual level). It seems correct to think that this might be considered with respect to one's institution (institutional level). That is, "How does my attending an LDP help my college or university?" What about how LDP attendance might provide a competitive advantage at the higher education enterprise level?

Answers to this question were provided by respondents. But might it have been the case that respondents wanted to be cooperative and answer all questions on a survey? It would be of value in future research to determine if someone does think in terms beyond the individual level and institutional level. Is the bigger picture of how LDPs impact the higher education enterprise ever thought about? The “health” of the higher education enterprise is dependent upon such considerations.

Conclusions

As is often the case with respect to the literature used in most academic research, the literature bases that provided major input to this study, namely leadership, leadership development, intangibles, and value creation, are in a state of evolution. On-going research should build on this study and incorporate the latest in quality research to enhance the intellectual contributions. The overall intent of this study was to add to the emerging research and scholarship in the field of continuing higher education regarding the perceived value of LDPs in terms of the intangible and tangible benefits they create (or strengthen) at various levels: individual, institutional, and higher education enterprise.

This study also provided insight into the relationship between LDPs and a variety of variables that may be viewed as aspects of LDPs, for example, success/helpfulness, priority, competitive advantage, sufficiency, and effectiveness. The goal is that the impact of LDPs strengthens one’s subjective perceptions of these aspects. The ideas and insights presented in this study are meant to provide a departure point for advanced understandings. Whether further quantitative research or qualitative research or both, the hope is that evidence presented in this study provides justification for continued research of this topic.

REFERENCES

- Alexander, J. R. (2004). Forward. In C. D. McCauley & E. Van Velsor (Eds.), *The center for creative leadership handbook of leadership development* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Alstete, J. W. (1995). *Benchmarking in higher education: Adapting best practices to improve quality*. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 5. Washington, D.C.: The George Washington University Graduate School of Education and Human Development.
- American Association of Community Colleges. (2006). Retrieved June 1, 2006, from <http://www.aacc.nche.edu>
- American Association of Community Colleges. (2005). *Competencies for community college leaders*. Washington, DC: American Association of Community Colleges.
- Amit, R., & Schoemaker, P. J. H. (1993). Strategic assets and organizational rent. *Strategic Management Journal*, 14(1), 33-46.
- Antonakis, J., Cianciolo, A. T., & Sternberg, R. J. (2004). Leadership past, present, and future. In John Antonakis, A. T. Cianciolo, & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *The nature of leadership* (pp. 3-15). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Association of Continuing Higher Education. (2006). Retrieved June 26, 2006, from <http://www.acheinc.org/>
- Avery, G. C. (2004). *Understanding leadership: Paradigms and cases*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Avolio, B., & Bass, B. (Eds.). (2002). *Developing potential across a full range of leadership styles: Cases on transactional and transformation leadership*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Ayman, R., Adams, S., Fisher, B., & Hartman, E. (2003). Leadership development in higher education institutions: A present and future perspective. In S. E. Murphy & R. E. Riggio (Eds.), *The future of leadership development* (pp. 201-222). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Babbie, E. (1990). *Survey research methods* (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York, NY: Free Press.

- Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Free Press.
- Baum, G. (2000). Introducing the new Value Creation Index. *Forbes ASAP*. Retrieved August 26, 2007, from www.forbes.com/asap/2000/0403/140_print.html.
- Becker, B. E., Huselid, M. A., & Ulrich, D. (2001). *The HR scorecard: Linking people, strategy, and performance*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Beder, H. (1989). Purposes and philosophies of adult education. In S. B. Merriam & P. M. Cunningham (Eds.), *Handbook of adult and continuing education* (pp. 37-49). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1997). *Leaders: Strategies for taking charge* (2nd ed.). New York: Harper Collins Publishers.
- Bensimon, E. M., Neumann, A., & Birnbaum, R. (1989). *Making sense of administrative leadership: The "L" word in higher education*. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 1. Washington, DC: The George Washington University School of Education and Human Development.
- Berquist, W. H. (1992). *The four cultures of the academy: Insights and strategies for improving leadership in collegiate organizations*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Birnbaum, R. (1986). Leadership and learning: The college president as intuitive scientist. *Review of Higher Education*, 9(4), 381-395.
- Birnbaum, R. (1988). *How colleges work: The cybernetics of academic organization and leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Birnbaum, R. (1989). The implicit leadership theories of college and university presidents. *The Review of Higher Education*, 12(2), 125-135.
- Birnbaum, R. (2001). *Management fads in higher education: Where they come from, what they do, why they fail*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Blair, M. M., & Wallman, S. M. (2001). *Unseen wealth: Report of the Brookings task force on intangibles*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- Boggs, G. R. (2003). Leadership context for the twenty-first century. In W. E. Piland & D. B. Wolf (Eds.), *New directions for community colleges: No. 123. Help wanted: Preparing community college leaders in a new century* (pp. 15-25). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (1997). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

- Boulton, R. E. S., Libert, B. D., & Samek, S. M. (2000). *Cracking the value code: How successful businesses are creating wealth in the new economy*. New York, NY: HarperCollins Publishers.
- Bragg, D. D. (2002). Doing their best: Exemplary graduate leadership programs. *Community College Journal*, 73(1), 49-53.
- Bricker's international directory: University-based executive development programs 2009*. Lawrenceville, NJ: Peterson's, a Nelnet Company.
- Brooking, A. (1997). *Intellectual capital*. London: International Thomson Business Press.
- Brown, P., Campbell, R., Dougherty, C., Penland, L. & Wilson, E. F. (2005, November). Leadership and authority in continuing education: A retrospective look at changing roles and responsibilities. *Proceedings of the Association for Continuing Higher Education*. 67th Annual Meeting, Madison, WI.
- Brungardt, C. (1996). The making of leaders: A review of the research in leadership development and education. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, 3(3), 81-95.
- Brungardt, C. L., Gould, L. V., Moore, R., & Potts, J. (1997). The emergence of leadership studies: Linking the traditional outcomes of liberal education with leadership development. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, 4(3), 53-67.
- Bryman, A. (1992). *Charisma and leadership in organizations*. London: Sage.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. (2000). *The Carnegie classification of institutions of higher education*. Retrieved June 1, 2006, from <http://www.carnegiefoundation.org>
- Cervero, R. M. (1984). Collaboration in university continuing professional education. In H. W. Beder (Ed), *New directions for continuing education: No. 23. Realizing the potential of interorganizational cooperation* (p. 28). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Cervero, R. M. (1988). *Effective continuing education for professionals*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Chaffee, E. E. (1984). Successful strategic management in small private colleges. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 55(2), 212-241.
- Chaffee, E. E., & Tierney, W. G. (1988). *Collegiate culture and leadership strategies*. New York, NY: American Council on Education and Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Cleveland, H. (1980). *Learning the art of leadership: The worldwide crisis in governance demands new approaches*. Unpublished manuscript.

- Cohen, A. M. (1998). *The shaping of American higher education: emergence and growth of the contemporary system*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Cohen, A. M., & Brawer, F. B. (2003). *The American community college* (4th ed.). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Cohen, J. A. (2005). *Intangible assets: Valuation and economic benefit*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Conger, J. A. (1992). *Learning to lead*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Conger, J. A. (1993). The brave new world of leadership training. *Organizational Dynamics*, 21(3), 46-58.
- Conger, J. A., & Benjamin, B. (1999). *Building leaders: How successful companies develop the next generation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Courtney, S. (1989). Defining adult and continuing education. In S. B. Merriam & P. M. Cunningham (Eds.), *Handbook of adult and continuing education* (pp. 15-25). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Creswell, J. W. (1999). Mixed methods research: Introduction and application. In G. J. Cizek (Ed.), *Handbook of educational policy* (pp. 455-472). New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cronk, B. C. (1999). *How to use SPSS: A step-by-step guide to analysis and interpretation*. Los Angeles, CA: Pyrczak Publishing.
- Dansereau, F., & Yammarino, F. J. (1998). One way to put the pieces together. In F. Dansereau & F. J. Yammarino (Eds.), *Leadership: The Multiple-Level Approaches Contemporary and Alternative* (pp. 327-349). Stamford, CT: JAI Press, Inc.
- Darkenwald, G. G., & Merriam, S. B. (1982). *Adult education: Foundations of practice*. New York, NY: Harper & Row, Publishers.
- Daum, J. H. (2003). *Intangible assets and value creation*. London, UK: John Wiley & Sons.
- Day, D. V. (2000). Leadership development: A review in context. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11(4), 581-613.
- Day, D. V., & Halpin, S. M. (2004). Growing leaders for tomorrow: An introduction. In David V. Day, S. J. Zaccaro, & S. M. Halpin (Eds.), *Leader development for transforming organizations* (pp. 3-22). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dew, J. R., & Nearing, M. M. (2004). *Continuous quality improvement in higher education*. Westport, CT: American Council On Education/Praeger Series on Higher Education.

- Dougherty, C. (2005). Applied survey techniques for continuing education practitioners. *The Journal of Continuing Higher Education*, 53(1), 39-42.
- Dressel, P. L. (1981). *Administrative leadership: Effective and responsive decision making in higher education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Duvall, B. (2003). Role of universities in leadership development. In W. E. Piland, & D. B. Wolf (Eds.). *New directions for community colleges: No. 123. Help wanted: Preparing community college leaders in a new century* (pp. 63-71). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- European Association of Research Managers and Administrators. (2011). Retrieved December, 10, 2011, from <http://www.earam.org/>, Brussels, Belgium.
- Etzioni, A. (1964). *A comparative analysis of complex organization: On power, involvement, and their correlates*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Eustace, C. (2000, October). *The intangible economy: Impact and policy issues*. Report of the European High Level Expert Group on the Intangible Economy. European Commission. Retrieved on June 11, 2006, from www.edis.sk/ekes/intangible.pdf
- Fielder, F. E. (1971). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Fielder, F. E., & Garcia, J. E. (1987). *New approaches to effective leadership*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Fife, J. D. (1987). Forward. In S. A. McDade, *Higher education leadership: Enhancing skills through professional development programs*. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, N. 5. Washington, DC: Association for the Study of Higher Education.
- Fife, J. D. (1991). Course offerings in higher education doctoral programs. In J. D. Fife & L. F. Goodchild (Eds.), *New directions for higher education: No. 76. Administration as a profession* (pp. 77-86). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Fife, J. D., & Goodchild, L. F. (Eds.). (1991). *Administration as a profession*. New Directions for Higher Education: No. 76. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Fink, A., & Kosecoff, J. (1998). *How to conduct surveys: A step-by-step guide* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Freed, J. E., Klugman, M. R., & Fife, J. D. (1997). *A culture for academic excellence: Implementing the quality principles in higher education*. ASHE ERIC Higher Education Report, Vol. 25, No. 1. Washington, DC: The George Washington University, Graduate School of Education and Human Development.
- French, J. R. P., & Raven, B. (1968). The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright & A. Zander (Eds.), *Group dynamics research and theory* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Harper & Row.

- Fullan, M. (2001). *Leading in a culture of change*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Fulmer, R. M., Gibbs, P. A., & Goldsmith, M. (2000). Developing leaders: How winning companies keep on winning. *Sloan Management Review*, 42(1), 49-59.
- Fulmer, R. M., & Goldsmith, M. (2001). *The leadership investment: How the world's best organizations gain strategic advantage through leadership development*. New York, NY: AMACOM.
- Gmelch, W. H. (2000). Leadership succession: How new deans take charge and learn the job. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 7(3), 68-87.
- Goleman, D. P. (1997). *Emotional intelligence*. New York, NY: Bantam Books.
- Goodchild, L. E., & Fife, J. D. (Eds.). (1991). Conclusion. In J. D. Fife & L. F. Goodchild (Eds.), *New directions for higher education: No. 76. Administration as a profession* (pp. 115-117). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Gould, Moore, & Potts. (1997). Training a new generation of leaders. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 7(1), 70-81.
- Green, M. F. (Ed.). (1988). *Leaders for a new era: Strategies for higher education*. New York: American Council on Education and Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Green, M. F., & McDade, S. A. (1991). *Investing in higher education: A handbook of leadership development*. Washington, DC: American Council on Education.
- Griffith, W. S. (1985). In R. M. Cervero, & C. L. Scanlan (Eds.), *New directions for continuing education: No. 27. Problems and prospects in continuing education* (pp. 101-108). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Grint, K. (Ed.). (1997). *Leadership: Classical, contemporary, and critical approaches*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Grint, K. (2000). *The arts of leadership*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Gumport, P. J., and Sporn, B. (1999). Institutional adaptation: Demands for management reform and university administration. In J. C. Smart (Ed.), *Higher education handbook of theory and research* (Vol. 14, pp. 103-145). New York, NY: Agathon Press.
- Hall, R. (1992). The strategic analysis of intangible resources. *Strategic Management Journal*, 13(2), 135-144.
- Hand, J., & Lev, B. (2003). Introduction and overview. In J. Hand and B. Lev (Eds.), *Intangible assets: Values, measures, and risks*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press, Inc.
- Harris, T. E. (1993). *Applied organizational communication: Perspectives, principles, and pragmatics*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Harvard University. (2006). Retrieved August 26, 2006, from www.harvard.edu
- Hatfield, T. (1989). Four-year colleges and universities. In S. B. Merriam and P. M. Cunningham (Eds.), *Handbook of adult and continuing education* (pp. 303-315). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1977). *Management of organizational behavior* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Hill, R. (1992). The strategic analysis of intangible resources. *Strategic Management Journal*, 13(2), 135-144.
- House, R. J. (1971). A path-goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Quarterly*, 16, 321-338.
- House, R. J., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo Vadis? *Journal of Management*, 23(3), 409-473.
- Hoyt, J. E., & Whyte, C. (2011). Increasing the quality and value of conferences, seminars, and workshops. *The Journal of Continuing Higher Education*, 59(2), 97-103.
- Hrabowski, F. A., (2003). Building a university for a changing World. *Continuing Higher Education Review*, 67, 7-18.
- Itami, H. (1987). *Mobilizing invisible assets*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Johanson, U. (2005). A human resource perspective on intellectual capital. In B. Marr (Ed.), *Perspectives on intellectual capital: Multidisciplinary insights into management, measurement, and reporting* (pp. 96-105). New York, NY: Elsevier Inc.
- Kalafut, P. C., & Low, J. (2001). The value creation index: quantifying intangible value. *Strategy and Leadership*, 29(5), 9-15.
- Kaplan, R. S., & Norton, D. P. (1996). *The balanced scorecard*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Kaplan, R. S., & Norton, D. P. (2000). Having trouble with your strategy? Then map it. *Harvard Business Review*, 78(5), 167-176.
- Kaplan, R. S., & Norton, D. P. (2004). Measuring the strategic readiness of intangible assets. *Harvard Business Review*, 82(2), 52-63.
- Katsinas, S. G., & Kempner, K. (March 1, 2005). *Strengthening the capacity to lead in the community college: The role of university-based leadership programs* (an NCI White Paper). Lubbock, TX: National Council of Instructional Administrators (NCIA) at Texas Tech University College of Education.

- Keller, G. (1983). *Academic strategy: The management revolution in American higher education*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Kerr, C. (2001). *The uses of the university* (5th ed.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Kerr, S., & Jermier, J. M. (1978). Substitutes for leadership: Their meaning and measurement. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 22, 375-403.
- Kirkpatrick, L. A., & Feeney, B. C. (2001). *A simple guide to SPSS for windows: For versions 8.0, 9.0, and 10.0* (revised edition). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thompson Learning.
- Klenke, L. (1993). Leadership and the great divide: Crossing into the 21st century. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 1(1), pp. 112-127).
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1987). *The leadership challenge* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Laanan, F. S. (2009, July). *Meeting the needs of today's community college students: Implications for practice*. Power Point presentation at the Alabama Community College Leadership Academy, The University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, AL.
- Lepak, D. P., & Snell, S. A. (1999). The human resource architecture: Toward a theory of human capital allocation and development. *The Academy of Management Review*, 24(1), pp. 31-48).
- Lev, B. (2001). *Intangibles: Management, measurement, and reporting*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- Lev, B. (2004). Sharpening the intangibles edge. *Harvard Business Review*, 82(6), 109-116.
- Lev, B., & Hand, J. R. M. (2003). Introduction and Overview. In B. Lev & J. R. M. Hand (Eds.), *Intangible assets: Values, measures, and risks* (pp. 1-16). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Liveright, A. A., and Haygood, N. (Eds.). (1968). *The exeter papers: Report of the first international conference on the comparative study of adult education*. Boston University, MA: Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults.
- Lomax, R. G. (2001). *An introduction to statistical concepts for education and behavioral sciences*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates.
- London, M. (2002). *Leadership development: paths to self-insight and professional growth*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Louisiana State University Division of Continuing Education. (2006). Retrieved August 26, 2006, from www.doec.lsu.edu

- Low, J., & Kalafut, P. C. (2002). *Invisible advantage: How intangibles are driving business performance*. Cambridge, MA: Perseus Publishing.
- Lucas, C. J. (1996). *Crisis in the academy: Rethinking higher education in America*. New York, NY: St. Martin's Press.
- Major, C. H. (2005). Executive Ed.D. in higher education administration. Unpublished proposal, The College of Education. Tuscaloosa, AL: The University of Alabama.
- Marr, B. (Ed.). (2005). *Perspectives on intellectual capital: Multidisciplinary insights into management, measurement, and reporting*. Burlington, MA: Elsevier, Inc.
- Marr, B., Schiuma, G., & Neely, A. (2004). The dynamics of value creation: Mapping your intellectual performance drivers. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 5(2), 312-325.
- Mattes, B. S., & Maguire, L. L. (2004). The self-directed program review: Demonstrating value added by continuing education. *Continuing Higher Education Review*, 68, 67-77.
- McCauley, C. D., Moxley, R. S., & Van Velsor, E. (Eds.). (1998). *The center for creative leadership handbook of leadership development*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- McCauley, C. D., & Van Velsor, E. (Eds.). (2004). *The center for creative leadership handbook of leadership development* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- McDade, S. A. (1987). *Higher education leadership: Enhancing skills through professional development*. ASHE ERIC Higher Education Report, No. 5. Washington, DC: Association for the Study of Higher Education.
- McDade, S. A., & Lewis, P. H. (Eds.). (1994). Editors' notes. In M. Kramer (Editor-in-Chief), *New directions for higher education: Vol. XXII, No. 3. Developing administrative excellence: Creating a culture of leadership* (pp. 1-3). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- McNay, I. (1995). From the collegial academy to corporate enterprise. The changing cultures of universities. In T. S. Schuller (Ed.), *The changing university?* (pp. 105-115). London: The Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary and Thesaurus. (2006). In Encyclopedia Britannica Online. (Academic Ed.). Retrieved August 26, 2006, from <http://www.lib.ua.edu/cgi-bin/databases.cgi>
- Mertens, D. M. (2005). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Middlehurst, R. (1993). *Leading academics*. Bristol, PA: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

- Middlehurst, R. (1995). Changing leadership in universities. In T. Schuller (Ed.), *The changing university?* (pp. 75-92). Bristol, PA: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.
- Moore, M. R., & Diamond, M. A. (2000). *Academic leadership: Turning vision into reality*. Ernst & Young, LLP.
- Moorman, R.H., Wells, D.L. & Wilwerding, S. (2003). Leadership development as an extra-curricular activity: Guiding the undergraduate leadership development experience. In R. Pillai, & S. Stites-Doe (Eds.), *Teaching leadership innovative approaches for the 21st century* (pp. 203-226). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Munitz, B. (1995). Wanted: New leadership for higher education. *Planning for Higher Education*, 24(1), 9-16.
- Murphy, S. E., & Riggio, R. E. (2003). Introduction to the future of leadership development. In Susan Elaine Murphy & Ronald E. Riggio (Eds.), *The future of leadership development* (pp. 1-7). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Murrell, P. H., & Davis, T. M. (1991). Visions and priorities: The future of higher education doctoral programs. In J. D. Fife & L. F. Goodchild (Eds.), *New directions for higher education: No. 76. Administration as a profession* (pp. 77-86). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Nadler, L. (1984). Human resource development. In L. Nadler (Ed.), *The handbook of human resource development* (pp. 1-47). New York, NY: Wiley.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2010). *Digest of Education Statistics*. Retrieved December 10, 2011, from National Center for Education Statistics website <http://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d10>
- Newman, F. (2002). Continuing education's new life in the fast lane. *Continuing Higher Education Review*, 66, 30-49.
- Oxford English Dictionary* (online). (1989). (2nd Ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press. Retrieved August 25, 2006.
- Peters, T. J., & Waterman, R. H. (1982). *In search of excellence*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Phillips, J. J., Myhill, M., & McDonough, J. B. (2007). *Proving the value of meetings & events: how and why to measure ROI*. Birmingham, AL: ROI Institute and Dallas, TX: MPI Meeting Professionals International.
- Phillips, J. J., & Phillips, P.P. (2007). *Show me the money: how to determine ROI in people, projects, and programs*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

- Phillips, J. J., & Schmidt, L. (2004). *The leadership scorecard*. Burlington, MA: Elsevier, Butterworth, Heinemann.
- Pillai, R., & Stites-Doe, S. (Eds.). (2003). *Teaching leadership: Innovative approaches for the 21st century*. Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Porter, M. E. (1985). *Competitive advantage: Creating and sustaining superior performance*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Queeney, D. S. (2000). Continuing professional education. In A. L. Wilson & E. R. Hayes (Eds.), *Handbook of adult and continuing education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Ramsden, P. (1998). *Learning to lead in higher education*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Rhodes, F. H. T. (2001). *The creation of the future*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Riggio, R. E., Ciulla, J. B., & Sorenson, G. B. (2003). Leadership education at the undergraduate level: A liberal arts approach to leadership development. In S. E. Murphy & R. E. Riggio (Eds.), *The future of leadership development* (pp. 223-236). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Rocco, T. S., Bliss, L. A., Gallagher, S., Perez-Prado, A., Alacaci, C., Dwyer, E. S., Fine, J. C., & Pappamihel, N. E. (2003). The pragmatic and dialectical lenses: Two views of mixed methods use in education. In A. Tashakkori, & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbooks of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 595-615). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Roffe, Ian. (2003). University of Wales, Lampeter: Perceived value and e-learning. *Continuing Higher Education Review*, 67, 61-80.
- Rost, J. C. (1991). *Leadership for the twenty-first century*. New York, NY: Praeger.
- Rowley, D. J., & Sherman, H. (2001). *From strategy to change: Implementing the plan in higher education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Ruben, B. D. (2004). *Pursuing excellence in higher education: Eight fundamental challenges*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Scanlan, C. L. (1985). Practicing with purpose: Goals of continuing professional education. In R. M. Cervero, & C. L. Scanlan (Eds.), *New directions for continuing education: No. 27*, (pp. 5-19). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Senge, P. M. (1990). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization*. New York, NY: Doubleday.
- Senge, P. M., Kleiner, A., Roberts, C., Ross, R., Roth, G., & Smith, B. (1999). *The dance of change: The challenges to sustaining momentum in learning organizations*. New York, NY: Doubleday.

- Shannon, D. (2003). Measuring the value of continuing education—application of the value creation index. *Continuing Higher Education Review*, 67, 49-60.
- Storey, J. (Ed.). (2004). *Leadership in organizations: Current issues and key trends*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Storey, J. (2004). Changing theories of leadership and leadership development. In John Storey (Ed.), *Leadership in organizations: Current issues and key trends* (pp. 11-37). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Sullivan, P. H. (2000). *Value-driven intellectual capital: How to convert intangible corporate assets into market value*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Teddlie, C., & Taskakkori, A. (2003). Major issues and controversies in the use of mixed methods in the social and behavioral sciences. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 3-50). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- The University of Alabama. (2005). *The Alabama community college leadership academy*. Tuscaloosa, AL The University of Alabama. Retrieved July 31, 2006, from <http://www.bama.ua.edu/~accla/>
- The University of Alabama. (2005). *Professional and management development programs*. Tuscaloosa, AL: The University of Alabama. Retrieved August 26, 2006, from <http://pmdp.ccs.ua.edu/courses.cfm?groupid=GOVPMDDP>
- The University of Alabama. (2006). *The University of Alabama Leadership Academy*. Tuscaloosa, AL. Retrieved August 26, 2006, from <http://www.leadershipacademy.ua.edu.html>
- The University of Alabama College of Continuing Studies. (2006). Tuscaloosa, AL. Retrieved August 26, 2006, from www.ccs.ua.edu
- The University of Alabama School of Law. Tuscaloosa, AL. Retrieved August 26, 2006, from www.law.ua.edu
- Thompson, J. (1992). *The widening circle: Extension and continuing education at The University of Alabama, 1904-1992*. Tuscaloosa, AL, The University of Alabama College of Continuing Studies.
- Townsend, B. K., & Wiese, M. D. (1991). The higher education doctorate as a passport to higher education administration. In J. D. Fife, and L. F. Goodchild (Eds.), *New directions for higher education: No. 76. Administration as a profession* (pp. 5-13). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Ulrich, D., & Brockbank, W. (2005). *The HR value proposition*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

- Ulrich, D., & Smallwood, N. (2003). *How to build value through people and organization. Why the bottom line isn't!* Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Ulrich, D., & Smallwood, N. (2004). Capitalizing on capabilities. *Harvard Business Review*, 82(6), 119-127.
- University of California, San Francisco, Center for the Health Professions Leadership Programs. (2006). Retrieved August 26, 2006, from www.ucsf.edu
- University of Michigan Health System. (2006). Health Care Leadership Institute. Retrieved August 26, 2006, from <http://www.umich.edu/leadership/training/exec/index.htm>
- Van Seters, D.A., & Field, R. H. G. (2002). The evolution of leadership theory. *Journal of organizational change management*, 3(3), 29-45.
- Veysey, L. R. (1965). *The emergence of the American university*. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.
- Vicere, A. A., & Fulmer, R. M. (1998). *Leadership by design: How benchmark companies sustain success through investment in continuous learning*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Vroom, V. H., & Yetton, P. W. (1973). *Leadership and decision making*. Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Yukl, G. (2002). *Leadership in organizations* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Zadrozny, W. (2006). Leveraging the Power of Intangible Assets. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 48(1), 85-89.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Examples of Multi-frame Models in Higher Education Administration and Business Administration Relevant to Leadership in Higher Education Administration

Perspectives	Authors	Salient Concepts
1. Four Frames	Birnbaum (1988) (Higher Education)	Types of institutions: collegial, bureaucratic, political, anarchical; also, cybernetic. Leadership themes: leading/influencing, complicating, learning, administering/controlling, and balancing.
2. Four Frames	Bolman & Deal (1984, 1991) (Business)	Ways of viewing organizations (structural, human resource, political, and symbolic; also, cybernetic); conceptions of leaders (leaders as social architects, leaders as catalysts/facilitators/servants, leaders as advocates, leaders as artists/prophets/poets).
3. Four Frames	Berquist (1992) (Higher Education)	Types of academic cultures: collegial, managerial, negotiating, developmental; also, cybernetic.
4. Four Frames	McNay (1995) (in Schuller (Ed.) (1995) & in Ramsden (1998)); (Middlehurst (1995) (in Schuller (Ed.) (1995) (Higher Education)	Types of universities and academic cultures: collegial, bureaucratic, corporate, and enterprise. Types of leadership within various university types/cultures: servant leadership/collegial; managerial leadership/bureaucratic; planning & crisis-handling leadership/corporate; entrepreneurial and adaptive leadership/enterprise.
5. Sixteen Frames	Rowley & Sherman (2001)	Strategic choice model for academic

(Higher Education)

organizations consisting of sixteen types of higher education institutions. Classical forms of colleges and universities (research colleges and universities, comprehensive colleges and universities, small colleges and universities, specialty colleges and universities). New breed of colleges and universities (co-op colleges and universities, composite universities, perpetual learning colleges and universities, virtual universities, virtual college and university indexes, self-directed teams within colleges and universities, assessment and competency based colleges and universities, corporate universities, company universities, alternative colleges and universities, emerging).

Appendix B

Organizational Frames, Conceptions of Leadership, and Related Skill Sets

(Bolman & Deal, 1991, pp. 317-318)

Organizational Frames and Conceptions of Effective Leadership	Leadership Skills
1. Structural Frame: Leader as Social Architect	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. The ability to analyze and design the right blueprint for an organization's structure and strategy.2. The ability to get organizational plans accepted and ideas implemented.3. The ability to continually experiment, evaluate, and adapt.
2. Human Resource Frame: Leader as Catalyst and Facilitator; Leader as Servant	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. The ability to motivate and empower subordinates to perform at their best.2. The ability to ensure that other people's highest priority needs are being served.3. The ability to increase participation, provide support, share information and move decision making as far down the organization as possible.
3. Political Frame Leader as Advocate	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. The ability to clarify the organization's agenda.2. The ability to set realistic organizational goals.3. The ability to assess the distribution of power and special interests with respect various stakeholders.4. The ability to build linkages with other stakeholders in order to move the organization forward.5. The ability to persuade, negotiate and use power appropriately.

4. Symbolic Frame:
Leader as Artist, Prophet,
Poet

1. The ability to interpret experience by bringing order, meaning, and predictability out of uncertainty and ambiguity.
2. The ability to discover and communicate a vision and to persuade others to follow it.
3. The ability to understand the experiences, values and aspirations of followers and to relate a vision to the values and needs of followers.
4. The ability to use symbols and stories to communicate a vision that builds faith and loyalty among an organization's employees and other stakeholders.

5. Cybernetic Frame:

1. The ability to view a system as a set of interacting and interrelated parts.
2. The ability to view human organizations as open systems with permeable boundaries that enable them to be continually engaged in importing, transforming, and exporting matter, energy, information, and people.
3. The ability to understand human organizations as capable of negative entropy (to survive and grow rather than decay and die) if they are able to work out a mutually beneficial relationship with their environment.
4. The ability to view organizations as a hierarchical arrangement of subsystems, systems, and super-system.
5. The ability to understand that a system is more than the sum of its parts.

5. Cybernetic Frame* (continued)

6. The ability to understand the organizational tendency to maintain steady states (states of equilibrium) in which diverse forces are approximately balanced. Such steady states have the property of ultrastability: the more that a system

is threatened with disequilibrium, the more resources it will marshal to maintain or restore its balance.

7. The ability to understand that to maintain a steady state, open systems need adaptive processes, including feedback loops, that enable the systems to sense relevant changes in the internal or external environment and to adjust their properties accordingly.

*Note: Bolman and Deal combined ideas from systems theory and cybernetics that led to the development of a fifth frame: the cybernetic frame. The cybernetic frame was represented in terms of propositions, on which the above leadership skills were based.

Appendix C
Models of Organizational Functioning in Higher Education
(Birnbaum, 1988)

Organizational Models

Unique Characteristics

1. Collegial Model

1. Mission: liberal education, moral education.
2. Leadership: democratic; President as first among equals.
3. Culture: coherent; shared sense of family.
4. Authority: shared governance.
5. Decision-making: consensus among faculty members and administrators.
6. Coupling: tight, internal processes amongst institutional members.
7. Communication: open and informal.
8. Faculty: local academic professionals.

2. Bureaucratic Model

1. Mission: emphasis on access, low cost, career preparation, and meeting community needs.
2. Leadership: President as ultimate decision-maker.
3. Culture: impersonal.
4. Authority: hierarchical.
5. Decision-making: rational; standard operating procedures.

2. Bureaucratic Model (continued)

6. Coupling: tight coupling of processes within the institution; loose coupling of processes outside the institution.
7. Communication: structured with feedback.
8. Faculty: cosmopolitan academic professionals.

3. Political Model

1. Mission: teaching and research.
2. Leadership: President as mediator.
3. Culture: fragmented; interdependent factions.
4. Authority: through influence; power-based.
5. Decision-making: decentralized.
6. Coupling: loose coupling of both internal and external processes.
7. Communication: interaction through negotiation, compromise, and coalition formation.

4. Anarchical Model

8. Faculty: cosmopolitan.
1. Mission: research and service.
2. Leadership: symbolic; President as prophet and artist.
3. Culture: subcultures within a larger culture.
4. Authority: many semi-autonomous units.

4. Anarchical Model (continued)

5. Decision-making: unclear; competitive; garbage-can decision-making.
6. Coupling: loose internal and external coupling processes;
7. Communication: fluid, unstable interactions and participation.
8. Faculty: cosmopolitan.

5. Cybernetic Model

1. Mission: academic excellence.
2. Leadership: transactional and transformative.
3. Culture: fragmented and hierarchical large culture; collegial and hierarchical subcultures.
4. Authority: subunit organizational hierarchy and authority.
5. Decision-making: rational.
6. Coupling: loosely coupled subunits.
7. Communication: nonlinear.
8. Faculty: cosmopolitan.

Appendix D

Leadership Themes and Related Skill Sets

(Birnbaum, 1988, pp. 201-229)

Leadership Themes

Leadership Skills

1. Leading/Influencing

1. The ability to provide both transactional (detection of problems, development of adjustments, facilitation of constant rebuilding of organizational systems) and transformative (enactment of significant changes) leadership.
2. The ability to cultivate leadership within various subunits.
3. The ability to influence institutional processes without causing alienation.

2. Complicating

1. The ability to view and understand an institution by using multiple frames.
2. The ability to recognize possible unanticipated consequences to one's actions.
3. The ability to rely on intuition.
4. The ability to be reflective during the process of one's actions.

3. Learning

1. The ability to detect and understand cognitive biases and preconceptions that may influence judgment.
2. The ability to encourage "dissensus."

4. Administering/Controlling

1. The ability to exercise a broad range of information-related skills, communication and interaction skills, human-relations skills, technical skills and other management skills such as valuing and managing inconsistencies and dichotomies.

5. Balancing

1. The ability to achieve balance by sustaining institutional structures, processes and cultures through minor modifications when problems are noticed, rather than through dramatic and significant changes (except in times of institutional crisis when that institution's survival is threatened or when major change must be undertaken to improve institutional effectiveness).

Appendix E

Academic Cultures, Qualities of Effective Leadership and Related Skill Sets (Berquist, 1992)

Academic Cultures and Qualities of Effective Leadership

Leadership Skills

1. Collegial Culture:
Leadership qualities of
charisma, wisdom, vision,
and political savvy
 1. The ability to gain authority
because of quality of thought
and character.
 2. The ability to rule by moral
force.
 3. The ability to assume leadership
through committee and
deliberative group activities or
from autonomous academic
activities.
 4. The ability to exert leadership
through the complex give-and-
take of campus politics.
 5. The ability to negotiate inside
and outside of committee
meetings (quasi-political skills).
 6. The ability to influence faculty
deliberations.
2. Managerial Culture:
Leadership qualities of
competence, entrepreneurship,
and vision
 1. The ability to fill and demonstrate
competence within a clearly
specified role within a formal,
hierarchical structure.
 2. The ability to gain influence by
moving through the formal lines
of authority based on managerial
competence.
 3. The ability to influence and enact
change through effective fiscal

and personnel management.

2. Managerial Culture (continued):

4. The ability to emphasize vision and the creative enactment of vision.
5. The ability to generate entrepreneurial and intreprenurial approaches to problem solving.
6. The ability to combine innovation and creativity with intuition and efficient administration.
7. The ability to employ modern corporate management theory.
8. The ability to delegate responsibility.
9. The ability to influence and control events by acquiring and using valid and useful information.

3. Developmental Culture:
Leadership qualities of idealism, collaboration, rationalism, spirit of inquiry, commitment to inclusiveness, emphasis on conflict resolution, charisma, service (servant leader)

1. The ability to create a “healing” and positive influence on the life of an institution and its people.
2. The ability to bridge the gap between the needs of individuals and the requirements of the institution itself.
3. The ability to mesh the rationalistic approach to understanding and planning for human interaction with the “spirit of inquiry.”
4. The ability to provide other people with valid and useful information about possible alternatives in decision making.
5. The ability to collaborate with others in decision making.

3. Developmental Culture (continued):

6. The ability to “unfreeze” an organization through the introduction of new information that calls into question the status quo and that promotes learning and change.
7. The ability to promote inclusiveness and encourage participation and involvement.
8. The ability to manage conflict resolution through rational means.
9. The ability to influence rather than control, suggest rather than demand, inform rather than direct.
10. The ability to encourage increased collective awareness of the problems facing an institution and joint recognition of alternative solutions to problems.
11. The ability to exert influence through focus on institutional mission and use of service.

4. Negotiating Culture:
Leadership qualities of valuing equity and egalitarianism, concern to formal structure and procedures, commitment to long-term leadership position.

1. The ability to formulate common plans and integrate complementary assumptions with the other academic cultures about influence and change in higher education.
2. The ability to provide needed corrections to the dominant collegial and managerial cultures in higher education.

4. Negotiating Culture (continued):

3. The ability to affect both the

formulation of organizational rules and the interpretation and adjudication of those rules through grievance and arbitration procedures.

4. The ability to keep in mind the welfare of faculty and staff when formulating institutional plans.
5. The ability to collaborate with many different kinds of people to achieve objectives, accomplish tasks, and/or share opinions.
6. The ability to use power and persuasion in confronting collegiate management.
7. The ability to achieve compatibility between personal and organizational well-being.
8. The ability to enact social awareness and action in academic settings.
9. The ability to reconcile the preservation and deprivation of faculty members.

Appendix F

Four University Models and Organizational Cultures (McNay, 1995, in Schuller (Ed.), 1995, pp. 105-115)

University Models and Cultures

Unique Characteristics

1. The Collegiate University

1. Loose policy definition.
2. Loose control over implementation.
3. Focus on freedom to pursue university and individual goals unaffected by external control.
4. Discipline-based departments as the main organizational unit.
5. Standards set by international scholarly community; evaluation by peer review.
6. Consensual decision-making.
7. Permissive management style.
8. Students seen as apprentice academics.

2. The Bureaucratic University

1. Loose policy definition.
2. Tight control of implementation.
3. Representative of managerialism in higher education.
4. Focus on regulation, consistency, and rules.
5. Formal-rational management style.
6. Power wielded by cohort of senior administrators.
7. Standards related to regulatory bodies and external references; evaluation based

on audit of procedures.

2. The Bureaucratic University
(continued)

8. Rule-based decision-making.

9. Students viewed as statistics.

3. The Corporate University

1. Tight policy control.

2. Tight control of implementation.

3. Focus on loyalty to the organization and senior management.

4. Commanding and charismatic management style.

5. Crisis-driven, competitive ethos.

6. Political and tactical decision making.

7. Standards related to organizational plans and goals; evaluation based on performance indicators and benchmarking.

8. Students seen as units of resource and customers.

4. The Enterprise University

1. Tight policy definition.

2. Loose control of implementation.

3. Focus on competence.

4. Oriented to the outside world; espouses continuous learning in a turbulent environment.

5. Management style that of devolved leadership.

6. Dominant unit the small project team.

7. Flexible decision-making emphasizing accountable professional expertise.

4. The Enterprise University* (continued)

8. Standards related to market strength; evaluation based on achievement and repeat business.

9. Students seen as clients and partners in the search for understanding.

*Based on the degree of “tightness” or “looseness” on two dimensions: policy definition and control over implementation (McNay, 1995, p. 31, in T. Schuller (Ed.), *The Changing University?* (1995), pp. 105-108).

Appendix G

Changing University Cultures and Changes in Academic Leadership

(Middlehurst, 1995, in Schuller (Ed.), 1995, pp. 84-85)

Types of University Cultures

1. Collegial Culture

2. Bureaucratic Culture

3. Corporate Culture

Types of Academic Leadership

1. Servant Leadership. Leadership as a consensual background activity. Control through consultation, persuasion, consent, permission. Authority derives from professional status. Leaders represent the academic group. Management and leadership, like teaching, is for gifted amateurs and does not require formal preparation.

2. Managerial leadership. Leadership as formal rule-governed behavior. Control through systems, administration, transactions, rationality. Authority derives from position. Leaders represent managers more senior in the hierarchy. Management skills are learned through induction and experience.

3. Planning and crisis-handling leadership. Leadership as command, charisma, transformation, power, strategic positioning. Authority and control derive from mission-congruence and political connections. Leaders represent the CEO. Leadership and management are learned through training.

4. Enterprise Culture

4. Entrepreneurial and adaptive leadership. Leadership as guidance, enabling, articulation of vision, support for task achievement. Authority and control derive from successful performance. Leaders represent clients/customers/staff. Leadership and management are professional skills learned through education and reflection on experience.

Appendix H

Types of Higher Education Institutions (Rowley and Sherman, 2001, pp. 36-53)

The Classical Forms of Colleges and Universities

Type	Description and Characteristics
1. Research Colleges and Universities	1. Provide leadership in basic and laboratory research; supports society's need for research and new knowledge; support graduate programming and fostering the next generation of college and university faculty, researchers, and campus leaders; fulfill their role as educators; bureaucratic in administrative structure; unstructured faculty activities; elite academics and administrators; dependent upon large resource bases; provider-oriented; moderate level of risk (pp. 38-40).
2. Comprehensive Colleges and Universities	2 Both public and private institutions; geared to educate the growing number of learners emerging in the Information Age; geared for more effective undergraduate education than their research counterparts; provide a solid liberal arts program along with specialization in a variety of disciplines; degree granting at both the undergraduate and graduation levels; less resources than research institutions; more market-driven; administrative bureaucracy highly professionalized faculty and staff; more consumer-oriented than their research counterparts; significant state funding for public institutions; greater state assessment and accountability requirements for public institutions; necessary tuition, grants, gifts, & contracts for institutions based on institutional repu-

tations (pp. 40-44).

3. Small Colleges and Universities
 4. Community Colleges
 5. Specialty Colleges and Universities
 6. Co-op Colleges and Universities
3. Less than five thousand students; either public or private; small resource base; little or no emphasis on research; professionalized faculty; less bureaucracy and more collegiality; single strong campus culture; provider or consumer driven depending on resource base pp. 44-47).
 4. Offer lower division courses and grant associate degrees and certifications; primarily publicly funded; open enrollment basis; ambiguity of mission; highly hierarchical; bureaucratic administration; small, less professionalized faculty base; exist to meet specific community learning needs; low tuition; market viability supported by low-cost competitive position (pp. 47-50).
 5. Capitalize on one particular discipline or set of related disciplines (i.e., engineering and mathematics, military programs); create centers of excellence with a definite research component that have a supportable marketing appeal; one-dimensional structure; higher levels of centralization and bureaucracy; unified culture; solid state, government, or industry support; provider-driven philosophy (pp. 50-52).
 6. A cooperative effort among two or more colleges (i.e., special-interest institution, a resource-sharing arrangement, or a foreign campus); designed as a way of sharing campus services, faculty, academic programs, and facilities in order to reduce expenses, provide greater economies of scale, provide additional support for smaller programs, and provide better service to learners; structural change needed in order create proper jurisdiction; peripheral to the primary activities of the campus; low level

of funding; moderate level of risk (pp. 58-61).

7. Composite Universities

7. Treatment of traditional colleges and universities more like business operations from a financing viewpoint; linkage of performance to funding; elimination of the traditional method of allocating resources by universally increasing or decreasing them based on revenue accumulation; increased allocations for programs that demonstrate high quality and achieve their goals; reduced allocations for programs that do not demonstrate high quality or meet their goals; strong market philosophy that supports more popular and higher quality programs; strong consumer influence (pp. 61-63).

8. Perpetual Learning Colleges and Universities

8. Usually part of a college or university continuing education program; emphasizes lifelong learning; provides for high quality, up-to-date educational opportunities, based on lifelong relationships between learners and institutions; provides for on-going contact that is discipline-specific through periodic seminars, distance learning, e-mail, the Internet, or other means of interactive educational methods; benefits to the college or university include possible joint research between faculty and alumni in a more immediate and direct fashion; funding through user and participant fees, membership fees, or from grants and endowments; provider-driven as well as consumer-oriented philosophy (pp. 63-65).

9. Virtual Universities

9. Internet-based programs associated with existing colleges or universities or start-up and stand alone programs, both academic and non-academic; provides learning opportunities that are either degree or nondegree based; highly customer-centered approach; structured either as a virtual, central administrative system supported by a variety of other institutions that pro-

9. Virtual Universities (continued)

vide the products and services on a contractual basis, as a component of an institution's traditional academic programs, or as a separate academic campus within a college or university utilizing the same academic, service, and administrative services but having its own administrative head; provider-oriented and market-driven pp. 65-69).

10. Virtual College and University Indexes

10. Index service that provides learner access to information in a nonaligned form; organizations that index courses available from traditional and virtual colleges and universities worldwide that can be accessed by learners from any part of the world who have access to computer technology; provides a digital learning process; consumer-learner driven; courses may be credit or non-credit; the connection between the academic institution and the learner is by the discretion of the learner; structurally, a not-for-profit office or most department often associated with a major academic sponsor; scarce resources, hence a moderate risk for any college or university developing its own indexing service (pp. 69-71).

11. Self-Directed Teams

11. Cross-disciplinary groups of professors working with groups of learners to create and transfer knowledge; transdisciplinary teams that function in lieu of departments; campus-wide approach of self-directed teams of faculty, staff, and administrators assigned to projects with time and resources to complete the project; a college or university structured around self-directed teams so as to create flexibility, reduce costs, flatten the organizational structure, and improve the learning a research capabilities of the campus; funding patterns typical of most traditional comprehensive or small universities; consumer-learner oriented as well as institutional-oriented (pp. 71-73).

12. Assessment and Competency-Based Colleges and Universities

12. An emerging model spurred on by external calls for assessment and outcomes-based education by external constituencies (i.e., Colorado Commission on Higher Education's initiative to implement a two-tier assessment system for all public colleges and universities in the state that would test sophomores in basic skills and juniors and seniors in higher-level skills; the assessment-competency based method of learning where learning is assessed rather than graded and the learner is a major evaluator in determining when competency is reached; a college or university adopting a full assessment-competency model and having the structural characteristics of a traditional campus with academic departments in charge of developing and delivering their programs; a heavily resource dependent model capable of forecasting and responding to the future needs of learners.

13. Corporate Universities

13. One of the fastest growing segments of higher education; the for-profit learning institution (i.e., The University of Phoenix); may hold national recognized accreditations, offer undergraduate, graduate, doctoral, and certificate programs, and have on-site and on-line classes; extremely consumer-oriented; can produce high levels of quality graduates; can use their marketing clout to attract high-quality students; run strictly as businesses; form alliances with businesses to assure a steady flow of students and to develop programs of value to companies; faculty members that are practitioners rather than academics; programs areas that are more professional rather than nonprofessional in nature; follow the standard model of hierarchical structure; top-down decision-making patterns rather than shared governance; success measured in terms of profit.

14. Company Universities

14. In-house educational and training programs for employees to provide them with knowledge that is company and industry specific; program growth the result of a general concern that students who graduate from traditional colleges and universities do not have the basic skills needed thus requiring companies to provide some of this basic education themselves; examples of companies that have created what they call universities and that have developed major educational organizations within their own structures to organize and administer the academic programs include Motorola University and IBM University; in-house trainers and educators as well as traditional academics who provide both full-time and adjunct educational services; part of the multi-divisional structures of the host companies; sensitive to the needs and wants of the company's management; hierarchical structure like that of the host company; faculty who are purely employees and who have no research or service requirements; well-supported by resources that are specifically dedicated to company objectives.

15. Alternative Colleges and Universities

15. Free-form, non-accredited, usually not-for-profit institutions that provide educational opportunities at the college level; low tuition, non-credit, market-driven courses, from basic skills to gardening, foreign languages, and computer science; another form of competition to the programs of the traditional campus; highly decentralized and subject to external pressures and opportunities; guided by the philosophy that people who want to teach develop most of the classes and that to have a successful class, the instructor needs to develop material that fills a marketing need.

16. Emerging Models

16. New models that will continue to evolve as societal needs become evident; more responsive to the needs of society and less provider-oriented; tightly controlled resources reflective of the values of the contemporary efficiency-driven world.

Appendix I

The Culture of Leadership Concept in Higher Education (McDade & Lewis, 1994)

Leadership As Culture

A learning organization for faculty and staff similar to Senge's (1990) learning organization in business

1. Creating a Culture of Leadership

Features of the Leadership Culture

1. Having the goal of building an organization where people from all levels are continually learning how to learn together (p. 6).
2. The sense of connection between the individual's concerns and those of the greater whole (p. 6).
3. Emerging leaders at all levels who are open learners themselves (p. 6).
4. Leaders at all levels who are able to inspire in others the confidence and the will to work collectively in creating new answers as well as new issues (p. 6).
5. Focus on institutional problem solving versus strategies that primarily benefit individual interests (p. 6).
6. Provision of developmental experiences to foster the development of internal leaders (p. 6).
7. Emphasis on how individual units fit into the big picture to help illuminate connections not before recognized (p. 6).
8. Increased creativity and commitment for approaching large problems (p. 6).

1. Creating a Culture of Leadership
(continued)

9. Thinking that becomes institutional in character (p. 6).
10. Increased dialogue and accessibility to information (p. 6)
11. The feeling of inclusion versus exclusion by various groups (i.e., women and minorities) (p. 6).
12. The preparation of larger talent pools for future personnel needs (p. 6).
13. Emphasis on leadership possibilities for everyone (p. 6).
14. Providing for opportunities to develop new skills, take part in activities beyond one's normal spheres, develop networks, observe role models, and learn effective ways to communicate one's views (p. 6).
15. Promoting and making visible development opportunities for the traditionally underrepresented groups (p. 7).
16. Institutional reexamination and reevaluation of human resource development in order to make better use of existing faculty and staff in responding to the accelerating demands of society (pp. 7-8).
17. Stimulation of ongoing human resource enhancement and leadership development through off-campus programs and internal programming (pp. 8-9).
18. Sharing both the responsibilities and the opportunities for meeting future challenges in higher education (p. 9).
19. Ensuring that an institution will have the human resources needed for shaping its own destiny amid demands for change

(p. 9).

2. Developing Institutional Teams

1. Creating a work environment in which administrators, faculty members, trustees, students and other campus constituencies can work together constructively to solve problems (pp. 18-19).
2. Encouraging teams to be open to new ideas, to be willing to be vulnerable, and to take risks (p. 19).
3. Creating a trusting environment (p. 20).
4. Providing support through encouragement and devoting time and resources to teamwork (p. 22).
5. Recognizing, developing, and using available personnel resources—faculty, administrators, students, alumni, and trustees, in a comprehensive approach to problem solving and planning (p. 25).

3. Implementing the Culture of Leadership

1. Designing internal leadership development activities on campus with the support and involvement of top administrators (p. 93).
2. Building commitment in others to leadership development programming to sustain programs when key supporters leave or no longer have influence over the program (p. 94).
3. Garnering support from those with money and influence to carry forward an initial startup (p. 94).
4. Broadening support to include those for whom the program is meant to benefit (p. 94).
5. Integrating leadership programming with the work of the institution (p. 95).

3. Implementing the Culture of Leadership
(continued)

6. Aiming for a change in institutional culture, behaviors and attitudes through developmental activities (p. 95).
7. Selecting the right sponsoring unit within the institutional framework to implement leadership development programming that will ensure its eventual integration within the campus culture on an enduring basis. Characteristics of the unit should include: a strong connection with the institution's planning process, including development of the mission, responsibility and capability for broad-scale programs; sensitivity to issues of both faculty and staff; positive liaisons with faculty governance structure and administrative processes; and, solid connections with external resources (pp. 95-96).
8. Approaching institutional change through development of human resources (p. 97).
9. Recognizing the importance of devoting money and time to professional development to help increase the contribution faculty and staff give back to the institution (p. 97).
10. Giving greater emphasis on developing academia's human resources as one approach to solving the challenges facing higher education (p. 97).
11. Bringing the whole issue of professional and career development into focus as an institutional activity, not merely an individual concern (p. 98).
12. Bringing more contributors into the leadership circle and giving them the tools to do their current jobs better, including inspiring others in their units (p. 98).

3. Implementing the Culture of Leadership
(continued)

13. Fostering the rationale for institutional investment in leadership development for faculty and staff to bring about systemic change in the way faculty and staff view themselves in relation to their institution and the way the institution views them (p. 99).

Appendix J

Organizational Perspective—Ecological: Characteristics of Learning Organizations (Senge, 1990a)

1. Mastery of certain basic disciplines:
 - Systems thinking
 - Personal mastery
 - Mental Models
 - Building shared vision
 - Team learning (p. 5).
2. Tapping into people's commitment and capacity to learn at all levels in an organization (p. 4).
3. Continually expanding an organization's capacity to create its future (p. 4).
4. Adaptive and generative learning (p. 14).
5. Lifelong generative learning at every level throughout the organization (p. 42).
6. Systems thinking:
 - Seeing interrelationships rather than linear cause-effect chains
 - Seeing processes of change rather than events
 - Seeing where actions and changes in structure lead to significant, enduring improvements (p. 73).
7. Seeing the forest and the trees (p. 127).
8. Making key decisions based on shared understandings of interrelationships and patterns of change (p. 204).
9. Thinking in terms of systems archetypes (patterns of structure that recur again and again):
 - Balancing process with delay
 - Limits to growth
 - Shifting the burden
 - Eroding goals

- Escalation
- Success to the successful
- Tragedy of the commons
- Growth and underinvestment (pp. 378-390).

10. Through leadership, fostering a climate within an organization where it is safe for people to create visions, where inquiry and commitment to truth are the norm, and where challenging the status quo is expected (p. 172).
11. Managing and using the mental models to accelerate, rather than impede, learning (p. 178).
12. Overcoming the diseases of hierarchy (managing, organizing and controlling) through attention to vision, values, and mental models (p. 181).
13. Finding systematic ways to bring people together to develop the best possible mental models for facing any situation (p. 181).
14. Building shared vision in order to provide focus and energy for learning (p. 206).
15. Decision making by teams (p. 236).
16. Mastering team learning as a critical step in building learning organizations (p. 238).
17. New view of leadership: leaders as designers, stewards, and teachers who are responsible for building learning organizations (p. 34).
18. The diffusion of the responsibilities of leadership throughout the organization (p. 360).
19. Learning organizations as a tool for the evolution of organizations and intelligence (p. 367).

Appendix K

Leadership/Learning Disciplines and Related Competencies and Skills

(Senge, 1990a; Senge, et al., 1999)

The Five Disciplines (developmental paths
for acquiring skills and competencies)

1. Systems Thinking

“In this discipline, people learn to better understand interdependency and change, and to deal more effectively with the forces that shape the consequences of one’s actions. Systems thinking is based upon a growing body of theory about the behavior of feedback and complexity—the innate tendencies of a system that lead to growth or stability over time. Tools and techniques such as system archetypes and various types of learning labs and simulations help people see how to change systems more effectively, and how to act more in tune with the larger processes of the natural and economic world” (Senge, et. al., 1999, pp. 32-33).

The discipline of integrating the other disciplines into a coherent body of theory and practice (Senge, 1990a, p. 12); a discipline for seeing “structures” that underlie complex situations (Senge, 1990a, p.69); organizing complexities in a coherent story that illuminates the causes of problems and how they can be remedied in enduring ways (Senge, 1990a, p. 128).

Leadership Competencies and Skills

1. Possessing an intuitive worldview (Senge, 1990a, p. 7).
2. Contemplating the whole rather than any individual part or event in the pattern (Senge, 1990a, p. 7).
3. Overcoming organizational learning disabilities through the five disciplines of the learning organization (Senge, 1990a, p. 26).
4. Learning to see “structures” rather than “events” (Senge, 1990a, p. 65).
5. Seeing interrelationships rather than linear cause-effect chains (Senge, 1990a, p. 73).
6. Thinking in terms of processes of change rather than “snapshots” (Senge, 1990a, p. 73).
7. Discerning sources of resistance (Senge, 1990a, p. 88).
8. Mastering systems archetypes (patterns of structure that recur again and again, such as limits to growth, shifting the burden, growth and underinvestment, etc.) (Senge, 1990a, pp. 94-95).

1. Systems Thinking (continued)

2. Personal Mastery

“This discipline of aspiration involves formulating a coherent picture of the results people most desire to gain as individuals (their personal vision), alongside a realistic assessment of the current state of their lives today (their current reality). Learning to cultivate the tension between vision and reality...can expand people’s capacity to make better choices, and to achieve more of the results that they have chosen” (Senge, et. al., 1999, p. 32).

The discipline of growth and learning; the learning organization’s spiritual foundation (Senge, 1990a, p. 7).

9. Seeing where actions and changes in structure can lead to significant enduring improvements (leverage) (Senge, 1990a, p. 114).

1. Clarifying and deepening one’s personal vision (Senge, 1990a, p. 7).

2. Commitment to lifelong learning (Senge, 1990a, p. 7).

3. Focusing one’s energies (Senge, 1990a, p. 7).

4. Developing patience (Senge, 1990a, p. 7).

5. Seeing reality objectively (Senge, 1990a, p. 7).

6. Spirituality (Senge, 1990a, p. 7).

7. Continually learning about how one’s actions affect the world (Senge, 1990a, p. 12).

8. Learning how to see current reality more clearly (Senge, 1990a, p. 144).

9. Living in a continual learning mode (Senge, 1990a, p. 142).

10. Taking more initiative (Senge, 1990a, p. 143).

11. Assuming a deeper sense of responsibility in one’s work (Senge, 1990a, p. 143).

12. Using the gap between vision and current reality to generate

energy for change (Senge, 1990a, p. 151).

2. Personal Mastery (continued)

13. Using failure as an opportunity for learning (Senge, 1990a, p. 154).
14. Working with constraints (Senge, 1990a, p. 155).
15. Dealing with conflict through commitment to truth (Senge, 1990a, p. 159).
16. Integrating reason and intuition (Senge, 1990a, p. 167).
17. Seeing one's connectedness to the world (Senge, 1990a, p. 169).
18. Developing more compassion and empathy (Senge, 1990a, p. 171).
19. Commitment to the whole (Senge, 1990a, p. 171).

3. Mental Models

“This discipline of reflection and inquiry skills is focused around developing awareness of the attitudes and perceptions that influence thought and interaction. By continually reflecting upon, talking about, and reconsidering these internal pictures of the world, people can gain more capability in governing their actions and decisions” (Senge, et. al., 1999, p. 32)

The discipline of managing one's internal assumptions or generalizations that influence how one understands the world and how one takes action (Senge, 1990a, p. 8).

1. Recognizing one's internal images of the world and reality (Senge, 1990a, p. 9).
2. Challenging one's ingrained assumptions and generalizations about the world and reality (Senge, 1990a, p. 9).
3. Collaborative learning (Senge, 1990a, p. 9).
4. Exposing one's thinking and making it open to the influence of others' thinking (Senge, 1990a, p. 9).

3. Mental Models (continued)

5. Surfacing, testing, and improving one's mental models (what one thinks about how the world works) (Senge, 1990a, p. 174).
6. Developing skills of reflection and skills of inquiry (Senge, 1990a, p. 191).
7. Balancing inquiry and advocacy to promote collaborative learning (Senge, 1990a, p. 198).
8. Recognizing the gap between one's espoused theories (what one says) and theories-in-use (the implied theory in what one does) so that learning can occur (Senge, 1990a, p. 202).
9. Shifting from mental models dominated by events to mental models that recognize longer-term patterns of change and the underlying structures producing those patterns (Senge, 1990a, p. 204).

4. Shared Vision

“This collective discipline establishes a focus on mutual purpose. People learn to nourish a sense of commitment in a group or organization by developing shared images of the future they seek to create, and the principles and guiding practices by which they hope to get there” (Senge, et. al., 1999, p. 32)

The discipline of translating individual vision into shared vision (Senge, 1990a, p. 9).

1. Discovering shared “pictures of the future” that foster genuine commitment and enrollment rather than compliance (Senge, 1990a, p. 9).
2. Taking risks and experimenting (Senge, 1990a, p. 209).
3. Fostering commitment to the long-term through building shared vision (Senge, 1990a, p. 210).
4. Building shared visions from personal visions—the art of visionary leadership (Senge,

1990a, p. 211).

4. Shared Vision (continued)

5. Creating a climate that encourages personal vision (Senge, 1990a, p. 212).
6. Through leadership, communicating a sense of vision in such a way that others are encouraged to share their visions (Senge, 1990a, p. 212).
7. Mastering the discipline of building shared vision by giving up traditional notions of top-down visions or visions that are the result of an organization's institutionalized planning process (Senge, 1990a, p. 213).
8. Designing and nurturing the "governing ideas" of an enterprise (vision, purpose and core values) (Senge, 1990a, p. 214).
9. Willingness to share personal visions and ask for followership (Senge, 1990a, p. 215).
10. Being a visionary leader by solving day-to-day problems with one's vision in mind (Senge, 1990a, p. 217).
11. Allowing multiple visions to exist and listening for the right course of action that transcends and unifies all individual visions (Senge, 1990a, p. 218).

5. Team Learning

“This is a discipline of group interaction. Through techniques like dialogue and skillful discussion, teams transform their collective thinking, learning to mobilize their energies and actions to achieve common goals, and drawing forth and intelligence and ability greater than the sum of individual member’s talents” (Senge, et. al., 1999, p. 32).

The discipline of dialogue involving the capacity of team members to suspend assumptions and enter into genuine “thinking together.: The discipline of learning how to recognize how to recognize patterns of interaction (i.e., defensiveness) in teams that undermine learning (Senge, 1990a, p. 10).

1. Aligning and developing the capacity of a team for collaborative learning (Senge, 1990a, p. 236).
2. Developing the capacity of teams to dialogues and discuss (Senge, 1990a, p. 240).
3. Facilitating dialogue by collectively suspending assumptions, and seeing each other as colleagues (Senge, 1990a, pp. 143-146).
4. Mastering how to balance dialogue and discussion (Senge, 1990a, p. 247).
5. Increasing the reliability of dialogue through reflection and inquiry skills (Senge, 1990a, p. 249).
6. Dealing productively with conflict in team learning and defusing defensive routines (Senge, 1990a, p. 249).
7. Developing collective learning skills through practice and experimentation (Senge, 1990a, p. 255).
8. Learning and using the language of systems thinking (Senge, 1990a, p. 269).

Appendix L

Conceptions of Leadership and Related Skill Sets

(Senge, 1990a)

Leadership Conceptions

1. Leader As Designer

Leadership Skills

1. The ability to inspire the vision of learning organizations (p. 340).
2. The ability to design an organization's governing ideas—purpose, vision, core values, policies, strategies, and “systems” (pp. 342-344).
3. The ability to understand “interdependencies” (p. 343).
4. The ability to integrate sequencing and interactions into design work (p. 343).
5. The ability to integrate vision, values, purpose, systems thinking, mental models, and all of the other learning disciplines (p. 343).
6. The ability to assess constituents and needs in each situation and craft strategies suitable to the time and setting (p. 344).
7. The ability to design learning processes whereby people throughout the organization can deal productively with the critical issues they face and develop their mastery of the learning disciplines (p. 345).
8. The ability to abandon the traditional paradigm of management in order to master the new art of leadership as design work (p. 345).

2. Leader As Steward

1. The ability to see an organization as a vehicle for bringing learning and change into society (p. 343).
2. The ability to relate a sense of purpose or destiny for an organization (p. 343).
3. The ability to address the higher order needs of people within an organization, i.e., self-respect and self-actualization (p. 343).
4. The ability to build a shared vision within an organization (p. 344).
5. The ability to lead by example (p. 348).
6. The ability to accept, embrace and seek change (p. 348).
7. The ability to experiment and take risks (p. 348).
8. The ability to find a new balance between the desire for continuity and the desire to be creative (p. 349).
9. The ability to create a new paradigm, a new model of how organizations work—organizations that operate in a continual learning mode, creating change (p. 349).
10. The ability to tap the intellectual capacity of people at all levels, both as individuals and groups (p. 350).
11. The ability to develop tools and processes for conceptualizing the big picture and testing ideas in practice (p. 351).

2. Leader As Steward (continued)

12. The ability to master the cycle of thinking, doing, evaluating, and reflecting in order to have valid learning (p. 351).
13. The ability to craft the larger story about an organization (p. 351).
14. The ability to see how one's vision is part of a larger vision by listening to other people's visions (p. 352).
15. The ability to accept a deeper sense of responsibility for building and advancing a shared vision (p. 352).

3. Leader As Teacher

1. Being able to help people achieve more accurate, more insightful, and more empowering views of reality (p. 353).
2. Being able to help people see the big picture, i.e., how different parts of an organization interact, how local actions have longer-term and broader impacts than people realize, why certain policies are needed, etc. (p. 353).
3. Being able to recognize, work with, and overcome systemic forces contrary to vision (p. 355).
4. Being able to help people come to share a larger sense of purpose within an organization—a greater understanding of what the organization should become (p. 355).
5. The ability to impart a generative, rather than a responsive orientation to change (p. 355).

3. Leader As Teacher (continued)

6. Being able to help people understand the systemic forces that shape change (p. 356).
7. Being able to conceptualize one's strategic insights so that they become public knowledge, open to change and further improvement (p. 356).
8. The ability to foster learning for everyone in order to help people throughout the organization develop systemic understandings (p. 356).
9. The ability to be a true learner (p. 357).

1-3. Leader As Designer, Steward, and Teacher

1. The ability to generate and master creative tension within an organization in order to energize an organization and see reality more clearly (p. 357).
2. The ability to establish the direction and target of an organization through sense of purpose, values, and vision (p. 357).
3. Being committed to the truth and to inquiry into the forces underlying current reality (p. 357).
4. The ability to highlight the gaps between reality and vision (p. 357).
5. The ability to influence various aspects of current reality through creative tension (p. 357).
6. The ability to help people see that collectively they can influence aspects of reality (p. 357).

Appendix M

Conceptions of Leadership and Leadership Communities and Related Skill Sets

(Senge et al., 1999, pp. 16-19,28).

Leadership Conceptions

1. Local Line Leaders

Leadership Skills

1. Being accountable for results (p. 16)
2. Using one's authority to undertake changes in the way that work is organized and conducted at a local level (p. 16)
3. Using one's authority to undertake meaningful organizational experiments to test the practical impact of new ideas and approaches (p. 16)

2. Internal Networkers/"Network Leaders"/ Community Leaders

1. Able to diffuse innovative learning practices throughout an organization (p. 17)
2. Able to move about the larger organization (p. 17)
3. Able to participate in and nurture broad networks of alliances with other like-minded individuals (p. 17)
4. Able to help local leaders, by assisting directly and by putting them in contact with others who share their passions and from whom they can learn (p. 17).

3. Executive Leaders

1. Being accountable for organizational performance (p. 18)
2. Able to create an organizational environment for continual inno-

3. Executive Leaders (continued)

vation and knowledge generation (p. 18)

3. Investing in new infrastructure for learning through support and inquiry (p. 18)
4. Leading by example (p. 18)
5. Establishing new norms and behaviors within teams (p. 18)
6. Becoming mentors, coaches, and stewards (p. 18)
7. Focusing more on design rather than on making key decisions (p. 18)
8. Working to push decisions down to more local levels, unless they are the only one who can make those decisions (p. 18)
9. Fostering a more learning-oriented culture by giving up the feeling that they have all the answers (p. 18)
10. Becoming more comfortable with and capable of asking questions that do not have easy answers (pp. 18-19)
11. Realizing the importance of partners (p. 19)

4. Leadership Communities (comprised of the above three categorizations of different types of leaders)

1. Moving away from isolated hero-leaders toward a view of different people leading in different ways, who need each other to sustain change (p. 19)
2. Being genuinely committed to deep changes in individuals and organizations (p. 19)

4. Leadership Communities (continued)

3. Influencing others through credibility, capability, and commitment (p. 19)

4. Understanding the challenges/ forces that oppose profound change, such as the challenges of initiating change (not enough time, no help, not relevant, walking the walk), the challenges of sustaining change (fear and assessment and measurement, true and non-believers), and the challenges of redesigning and rethinking (governance, diffusion, strategy and purpose) (p. 28)

Appendix N

Value Creation Survey (VCS)

This survey is designed to assess the value of **Leadership Development Programs** (referred to as **LDPs**) offered through **Continuing Education Units** for **Administrators**, current or future, at four-year institutions. Programs may be credit programs, non-credit programs, or a blend of the two. The survey seeks to elicit your perspective about the value of these programs.

As used in this study, the term **intangible** refers to an aspect of leadership understood to be an asset, that is, a resource that is not corporeal (without physical embodiment). Intangible also is used to describe the distinctive skills and competencies of leadership.

It is anticipated that this survey will require about 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

- * **Part I** asks for your **Beliefs** about the **value** of Leadership Development Programs (**LDPs**) provided by **Continuing Education Units** for administrators. Section D focuses on your beliefs about the **success** of LDPs, the **priority** given to LDPs, and the **competitive advantages** provided by LDPs.
- * **Part II** focuses on your **Beliefs** about the **effectiveness** of current continuing education LDPs at **multiple levels**.
- * **Part III** deals with participant **Demographics**.

This survey is going to ACHE members designated as their institution's "**Institutional ACHE Representative**."

All responses will be kept as confidential as possible by law; the tracking number included on your survey is only used to help avoid multiple mailings to those who have already completed this survey. **Important:** Your responses will be kept confidential.

I wish to thank ACHE for making this research opportunity possible. I also wish to thank you for investing your time in completing this survey. Your participation is very much appreciated. Should you wish to see survey results, please do not hesitate to let me know (gstone@ccs.ua.edu).

INSTRUCTIONS. Please answer all items (both sides). Many thanks for your participation.

Part I. Your Beliefs about Leadership Development Programs
(Sections A, B, C and D)

A. Use the following 5-point scales [“Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree”] to indicate your **Belief** about the extent to which Leadership Development Programs (**LDPs**) are of value **to individuals** who participate in them by enhancing the following competencies. **Darken** only **one** answer per item.

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1. Develop listening skills.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. Develop questioning skills.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. Develop dialog skills	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. Develop writing skills	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. Develop research skills	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. Develop self awareness.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. Develop multi-frame thinking skills.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. Develop emotional intelligence.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. Develop cultural awareness.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. Develop ethical leadership skills.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. Develop servant leadership skills.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. Develop an interpersonal approach to leadership.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. Develop leadership skills in virtual environments.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. Develop mentoring skills.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15. Develop problem solving skills.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16. Develop administrative professionalism.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17. Develop technology skills.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
18. Develop team skills.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

19. Develop collaborative leadership skills.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20. Develop an understanding of leadership theories.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
21. Develop idealized influence skills.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
22. Develop inspirational motivation skills	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
23. Develop intellectual stimulation skills.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
24. Develop individualized consideration skills.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

B. Use the following 5-point scales [“Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree”] to indicate your **Belief** about the extent to which Leadership Development Programs (**LDPs**) are of value to **institutions** by enhancing the following competencies of those **institutions**. **Darken** in only **one** answer per item.

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1. Improve organizational development.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. Improve institutional commitment.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. Improve institutional competitiveness.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. Improve institutional reputation.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. Improve institutional ethics.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. Improve institutional performance.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. Improve institutional creativity and innovation.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. Improve institutional adaptability.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. Improve institutional networks.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. Improve “institutional leadership” culture.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. improve the talent pool of capable leaders.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. Improve within institutions the perception of the value of LDPs.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

C. Use the following 5-point scales [“Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree”] to indicate your **Belief** about the extent to which Leadership Development Programs (**LDPs**) are of value to the **Higher Education Enterprise**. **Darken** in only **one** answer per item.

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1. Improve higher education’s leadership.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. Improve higher education’s global competitiveness.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. Improve higher education’s reputation.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. Improve higher education’s system effectiveness.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. Improve higher education’s innovation	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. Improve higher education’s adaptability.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. Improve networking in higher education.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. Improve higher education’s leadership culture.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. Improve higher education’s pool of capable leaders.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. Improve higher education’s perception of the value of LDPs.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. Improve higher education’s commitment to the system of higher education.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

D. Use the following 5-point scales [“Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree”] to indicate your **Belief** about each item: the **success** of Leadership Development Programs (**LDPs**); the **priority** given to **LDPs**; and the **competitive advantages** provided by **LDPs**.

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
Such Programs are Successful at Helping:					
1. individuals develop their leadership competencies.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. academic institutions meet their needs for developing the leadership competencies of their administrators.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

3. the **higher education enterprise** meet its needs for developing the leadership competencies of its administrators. (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

Such Programs Should be Considered a Priority at the:

4. **individual** level. (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
 5. **institutional** level. (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
 6. **higher education enterprise** level. (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

Such Programs Provide a Competitive Advantage at the:

7. **individual** level. (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
 8. **institutional** level. (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
 9. **higher education enterprise** level. (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

Such Programs are Sufficient to meet the existing leadership development needs at the:

10. **individual** level. (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
 11. **institutional** level. (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
 12. **higher education enterprise** level. (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

Part II: Your Assessment About Current Program Offerings:

For the following questions, rank order the items within each:

1. Which types of programs or designs are **most effective** for enhancing leadership of **individuals**? (Rank order the following from 1 to 3, 1 indicating most effective, and 3 the least effective.)

- Non-credit programs
- Credit programs
- Blended credit and non-credit programs.

2. Which types of programs or designs are **most effective** for enhancing leadership for **institutions**? (Rank order the following from 1 to 3, 1 indicating most effective, and 3 the least effective.)

- Non-credit programs
- Credit programs
- Blended credit and non-credit programs

3. Which of the following types are **most effective** for enhancing leadership for the **higher education enterprise**? (Rank order the following program types from 1 to 3 with 1 being most effective)

- Credit Programs
- Non-Credit Programs
- Blended Credit and Non-Credit Programs

Part III. Demographics

1. Choose one item that best describes your **primary** role at your institution:

- Dean
- Associate/Assistant Dean
- Director: Credit Programs Division/Unit
- Director: Non-Credit Programs Division/Unit
- Program Manager/Coordinator: Credit Programs Division/Unit
- Program Manager/Coordinator: Non-Credit Programs Division/Unit
- Other (please specify): _____

2. With respect to the question 1, how long have you been in that position?

- 0-2 years
- 3-5 years
- 6-10 years
- 11-20 years
- Over 20 years

3. With respect to the question 1, did you have administrative duties prior to that position?

- Yes
- No

4. Do you also have an academic appointment?

- Yes
- No
- Other appointment (please specify): _____

5. If you answered Yes to question 4, do you also have teaching duties?

- Yes, one or more courses each semester
- Yes, but not necessarily course(s) each semester
- Other (please specify): _____

6. How long have you been employed in higher education?

- 0-2 years
- 3-5 years
- 6-10 years
- 11-20 years
- Over 20 years

7. Indicate whether you are male or female:

- Male
- Female

8. Which of the following best describes you:

- White, not Hispanic
- Black, not Hispanic
- Hispanic
- Asian/Pacific Islander
- Alaskan Native or Native American, not Hispanic
- Other

9. Please identify your ACHE Region:

- New England** (The Atlantic Provinces, Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont,)
- Northeast** (New York, Eastern Ontario, and Quebec)
- Northeast Metropolitan** (New Jersey, New York metropolitan area, Europe, Africa, Middle East)
- Mid-Atlantic** (Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, North Carolina, Virginia, Washington, D.C., West Virginia)
- Great Lakes** (Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin, Central Ontario)
- South** (Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas - Caribbean, Puerto Rico, Jamaica)
- Great Plains** (Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, N. Dakota, Oklahoma, S. Dakota, Manitoba, western Ontario, Saskatchewan)
- West** (Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Hawaii, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington, Wyoming, Alberta, Asia, British Columbia, Mexico)

10. Choose **all** program types (with percentages) that describe the **Leadership Development Programs (LDPs)** provided by your institution's **Continuing Education Unit** for

Administrators (they may be faculty members with teaching responsibilities, or may not):

Type Offered 100%)	% age (should add to
<input type="checkbox"/> Non-credit	_____
<input type="checkbox"/> Credit	_____
<input type="checkbox"/> Blended (non-credit and credit participants in same class)	_____
<input type="checkbox"/> No provision	_____

11. If your institution offered at least 1 program, about how many are offered annually in the following categories?

	1-2 Programs	3-4 Programs	5-6 Programs	More than 6
Non-Credit	<input type="checkbox"/> []			
Credit	<input type="checkbox"/> []			
Blended (Non-credit and credit participants in the same class)	<input type="checkbox"/> []			

12. If your unit does not offer such programs, why do you believe that this is the case?
Check all that apply.

- Little or no value to the individual.
- Little or no value to the academic institution.
- Little or no value to the higher education enterprise.
- Lack of management expertise for such programs.
- Lack of enough of a participant pool.
- Little, if any, interest on the part of potential participants.
- Not enough resources to support.
- Other (please explain) _____.

13. Any additional comments you wish to make please write below.

Note: Your mailing address is requested to ensure that duplicate responses are not received. Addresses will be discarded **before** the results are analyzed. All responses will be kept confidential.

Respondent mailing address:

Thank you once again for you time and participation. Your responses will have an important impact on better understanding the value of LDPs for academic administrators. If you have any questions please contact me: Geri Stone, The University of Alabama, College of Continuing Studies, Box 870388, Tuscaloosa, AL 35487-0388, (phone) 205-348-6225, (email) gstone@ccs.ua.edu

Appendix O

Survey Cover Letter

College of Continuing Studies
Professional Development
and Conference Services

September 30, 2009

THE UNIVERSITY OF
ALABAMA
CONTINUING STUDIES

Dear ACHE Institutional Representative,

My special thanks to ACHE for awarding me the Wayne L. Whelan Scholarship to be used for my dissertation research. It was a tremendous thrill to learn of this honor.

Enclosed, please find my questionnaire. The issues asked about in the questionnaire have to do with leadership and the intangible value of university-based leadership development programs for higher education administrators. Dissertation results will be shared at an upcoming ACHE annual meeting. I very much look forward to that experience.

Being at the dissertation questionnaire stage is filled with such hope, especially with respect to response rates. As you can see, I am now at that stage and wish to thank you ahead of time for your help. I also want to thank Dr. Osborn for his email to you asking for your participation in my study.

My feeling is that about a 15 minute experience will do it for filling out the questionnaire and placing it in the return envelope. I hope I am right about this as I know how busy everyone is. Institutional Research Board protocol calls for me to note that your participation in this study is entirely voluntary, and you retain the right to withdraw at any time.

Responses will be kept confidential. Neither your name nor your institution's are asked for on the survey. This survey instrument will be numerically coded for the purposes of data entry.

Should you have any questions or concerns, please contact me by email at gstone@ccs.ua.edu or by telephone (205) 348-6225. I will be happy to help in any way that I can.

Thank you so much for your participation in this study.

Sincerely,



Geri Stone

2nd Floor Martha Parham West
Box 870388
Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487-0388
(205) 348-6222
FAX (205) 348-9276

Appendix P

IRB Approved Application

May 27, 2009

Office for Research
Institutional Review Board for the
Protection of Human Subjects

THE UNIVERSITY OF
ALABAMA
R E S E A R C H

Geri L. Stone
ELPTS
College of Education
The University of Alabama

Re: IRB # 09-OR-162 "The Value of University-Based Continuing Education Leadership Development Programs for Administrators: An Intangibles Model of Value-Creation"

Dear Ms. Stone:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for your proposed research

Your application has been given expedited approval according to 45 CFR part 46. Approval has been given under expedited review category 7 as outlined below:

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Your application will expire on May 27, 2010. If your research will continue beyond this date, complete the relevant portions of Continuing Review and Closure Form. If you wish to modify the application, complete the Modification of an Approved Protocol Form. When the study closes, complete the appropriate portions of FORM: Continuing Review and Closure.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal, please include the above application number.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,



152 Rose Administration Building
Box 870117
Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487-0117
(205) 348-5152
fax (205) 348-8882

Carpentato T. Myles, MSM, CIM
Director & Research Compliance Officer
Office for Research Compliance
The University of Alabama