ALE Conference Proceedings

2001 - Minneapolis

Title of Presentation: Development of a Leadership Certification Program

Names and Titles of Presenters:
Dr. Leverne Barrett, Professor
Department of Agricultural Leadership,
Education and Communication
University of Nebraska-Lincoln
300 Agricultural Hall
Lincoln, NE 68583-0709
E-mail:
Phone: 402-472-9791
FAX: 402-472-5863

Dr. Susan Fritz, Associate Professor and
Department Head
Department of Agricultural Leadership,
Education and Communication
University of Nebraska-Lincoln
300 Agricultural Hall
Lincoln, NE 68583-0709
E-mail:
Phone: 402-472-9559
FAX: 402-472-5863

Main/Primary Contact Person: Susan Fritz

Goals and Objectives of the Presentation:

- Discuss the importance of moving learners from an "event" to "process" orientation for leadership development and the growing demand for leadership development training
- Explain the background information which has lead to the development of a Leadership Certificate
- Share leadership certificate "curriculum" plan and seek input from participants regarding content
- Lead discussion about strategies for the inclusion of partners and cooperators across the nation

Outline of Presentation:

- The presenters will share a brief, relevant overview of what is known about the perceptions and success of leadership development experiences.
- This discussion will be followed by background about the Leadership and Policy Issues Action Team, a group of leadership development professionals from academic departments, Cooperative Extension, and various stakeholder groups across Nebraska.
- Intentions surrounding the development of the certification will be shared. The certification is being developed to be accessible and achievable for both scholars and

practitioners interested and engaged in leadership. The intent is to make this program accessible to individuals from the Central States and beyond.

- The structure of the certification program will be discussed and input sought.
- Presenters will also lead the audience in a discussion about strategies to:

1. Include leadership experts outside of Nebraska.
2. The merits of being officially recognized or endorsed by a national leadership organization.
3. Ways to link the Leadership Certificate to organizations, business and industry groups, governmental agencies, etc.

University of Nebraska
Community Leadership Accreditation and Certification Program

Leadership and Policy Education Action Team
University of Nebraska-Lincoln Cooperative Extension

The University of Nebraska Community Leadership Accreditation and Certification Program (CLAC) was developed by an interdisciplinary, inter-agency team coordinated through Cooperative Extension at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln.

The program emerged in response to the growing need to identify community leadership standards and to guide professional development decisions for persons serving leadership roles at the community and organizational level.

Audience:
This certification is being developed to be accessible and achievable for both scholars and practitioners interested and engaged in leadership at the personal, community and/or organizational level. The intent is to make this program accessible to individuals from the Central States and beyond.

Level 1 certification is a prerequisite for Level II certification; and Level II is a prerequisite for Level III certification. Documentation of each required area may be provided through diverse methods, such as portfolios, project files, syllabi, multimedia productions, etc. Within this document, the applicant's chosen method will be referred to as, "portfolio," but may appear in the format of the participant's choice**.** Accommodations will be made for prior courses and/or workshops to serve as equivalencies for respective qualifications, as indicated.

LEVEL I

GOAL I: Identify leadership growth and competence at the personal level.

Required: Leadership portfolio that addresses the following three objectives for Level I certification. Sample portfolios are provided upon request.

OBJECTIVE 1: Document personal leadership development and skills

a) Complete one or more (from among approved) personality and leadership style inventories, and reflect on what you learned
b) Three letters of reference that attest to your leadership activity and ability
c) The checklist of competencies
d) Portfolio (include a reflection on your leadership experiences that demonstrates personal growth)
e) Develop a personal development plan that includes your credo

OBJECTIVE 2: Demonstrate Involvement by effectively leading groups, from among the list, below. A minimum of 100 points is needed to satisfy Level I, Objective 2:

Category	**1 clear example**	**3 or more examples**
	MINIMUM	**EXCEPTIONAL**
group process	10	20
agenda-building	10	20
organizing and running a meeting	10	20
open-meetings law	20	30
conflict management	20	30
motivating a small group	10	20
presentation skills	20	30
problem-solving	20	30
consensus-building	20	30
team-building	10	20

OBJECTIVE 3: Demonstrate involvement in community/organization groups

a) serve on a formal community or organizational committee or project
b) help define and prioritize public or organizational issues
c) work with media
d) participate in public or organizational policymaking procedures

LEVEL II

GOAL: Demonstrate leadership competencies at the community or organizational level

Required: Leadership portfolio that addresses the following three objectives for Level II certification. Sample portfolios are available on request.

OBJECTIVE 1: Attend Leadership Academy, or equivalent, which documents the competencies identified in the Leadership Academy

OBJECTIVE 2: Demonstrate Continuing Commitment to Personal Leadership Development

a) Refine a personal creed of beliefs in leadership
b) Develop personal long-range plan for leadership development
c) Use multiple instruments to measure leadership competencies
d) Engage a mentor and document/explain involvement with that person

OBJECTIVE 3: Document one's planful involvement in and application of the academy's core competencies at the community or organizational level

NOTE: Academy enrollment is open to anyone, regardless of accreditation level being pursued at the time of academy attendance. Documented academy attendance will remain valid for Level II accreditation for 5 years following the year attended.

Leadership Academy Topics:

*indicates Core Topics. Remaining topics will be optional and offered within three customizable, self-selected tracks: (1) policymakers, (2) educators (train the trainer) and (3) community leaders, (4) general leadership.

*historical development of leadership theory *civil society
*ethical leadership *servant leadership *motivation
*change theory *diversity *influence
*transformational/transactional leadership

delegation teamwork/teambuilding
power leading through controversy
guiding policy consensus-building
followership stewardship
spirited leadership conflict management
facilitative/collaborative/participatory leadership

LEVEL III

GOALIII: Demonstrate "master leader" competence through curriculum development, policymaking, and/or community mobilization. This level will allow applicants to present documentation of their training, study and involvement within context of their primary and self-determined area of expertise.

Required: Leadership portfolio that addresses the following two objectives for Level III certification. Sample portfolios are provided upon request.

OBJECTIVE 1: Complete minimum 15 hours of academic (or equivalent CEU) credits in Leadership Studies from accredited institution or program

OBJECTIVE 2: Choose from among the following and complete one of the following three tracks, including a practicum

TRACK A (policymaker): Demonstrate leadership in policymaking process
e.g., author new policy; chair a policy committee; serve as elected or appointed community, governmental or organizational leader

TRACK B (educator): Demonstrate leadership in instructional development relevant to community/organizational leadership
e.g., chair or provide major contribution to development and/or implementation of leadership course or curriculum; design innovative delivery method for distance or non-resident leadership development course; translate leadership development curriculum materials; lead focus groups working to address issues relevant to minority leaders

TRACK C (community/organization leader): Demonstrate leadership in mobilizing community or organization
e.g., lead a community or organizational change project; organize a community project, involving creating a vision and mobilizing the group to completion of the project

2001 Association of Leadership Educators Annual Meeting
July 19-21, 20001 Minneapolis, Minnesota

TITLE OF PRESENTATION:
Impacting Youth for Life: *Leadership Development through Community Action*

NAME AND TITLES OF PRESENTER: Kathleen Brown
Extension Educator
Community and Economic Development
University of Illinois Extension
480 Deer Road
Macomb, IL 61455
309.836.2084 (phone)
309.836.2916 (fax)

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE PRESENTATION:

By the end of this session, leadership educators will be able to:
- ✓ Define Service Learning
- ✓ Describe What Youth Can Do in Service Projects
- ✓ Understand the Relationship of Community Service and Youth Development;
- ✓ Facilitate a Service Learning Program in Their Community or School
- ✓ Devise (or Target) Projects that Effectively Pair Local Youth with Community Need

BRIEF OUTLINE OF THE PRESENTATION:

Leadership educators who attend this session will gain valuable information on the service-learning cycle, ways to strengthen community involvement and enhance the educational experiences of youth

BRIEF DESCRIPTIVE SENTENCE FOR PROGRAM BOOKLET:

Our children are tomorrow's leaders. Enhancing their sense of commitment toward their communities is a vital step in securing strong leadership for our future.

BACKGROUND ON THE PRESENTER:

Kathleen Brown is a Community and Economic Development Educator with University of Illinois Extension. Working with youth programs since 1980, she has specialized in leadership development. In partnership with the Illinois State Board of Education and the Illinois Association of Middle Schools, she has trained more than 200 middle-grade teachers in Illinois in service learning. Her work with youth and schools has led to the creation of a statewide curriculum on service learning.

TIME REQUIREMENTS: I will adjust format to fit concurrent session scheduling.

If Leadership Were a Purely Rational Act We Would be Teaching Computers

Chester J. Bowling, Ph.D.
Ohio State University Extension
bowling.43@osu.edu

In the 1968 movie *2001: A Space Odyssey* a reporter asks HAL, the 9000 series computer that controls the Jupiter bound Discovery 1 spaceship, if any 9000 series computer has ever made a mistake. HAL replies, "No 9000 series computer has ever made a mistake or distorted information. They are fool proof and incapable of error." Although this was a fictional account, the creation of a perfect thinking machine has long been a goal of technologists. This goal took a giant leap forward just five years ago when an IBM computer call Big Blue beat Gary Kasparov, the international chess champion, finally proving that computers can out-perform humans in rational thought processes. If computers don't make mistakes, don't distort information, and are faster thinkers than humans why is it unlikely that a computer will ever be elected to office or selected by a group to act as their leader? Intuitively we know this to be true – but why? Could it be because leadership is not a purely rational activity?

What is leadership? How is it defined? How is it created? Why even though it has been studied more than any other human activity does it yet deify being unified into a single theory. Not only is there no unified theory of leadership; the number of theories about leadership are multiplying. Why are there so many different theories of leadership and why do they all continue to be popular?

Answers to these difficult questions may be emerging from what at first appears to be an unlikely place, postmodernist and social constructionist thought. Postmodernism refers to a period marked by the end of what Jean-François Lyotard calls the grand "meta-narratives" which we once used to legitimize knowledge and practice – e.g. Christianity, Science, Democracy, Communism, or Progress. These narratives and the activities which were undertaken in their name no longer have unquestioned support. In postmodernism it is understood that truth and meaning are historically constructed and that there is value in exposing the mechanisms by which meaning is produced and accepted as truth. Therefore the issue is not simply about whether "truth" exists or not. The issue is: to whose truth are we listening, or in whose truth are we living?

Postmodernism moves us away from universal standards into an atmosphere of multi-dimensionality and complexity. Postmodernism replaces the sovereign autonomous individual with a collective experience. Ambiguity, collage, diversity of world-view, multiplicity of values, and plurality of belief are the foci of attention. Most importantly, we see the merging of subject and object, self and other, leader and organization.

Social constructionism suggests that much of the world we deal with on a daily basis is socially created reality. Through human meaning-making, we organize information about our world into patterns that make collaborative action possible. The collaborative acts created by this information organizing process eventually become social reality:

> …human beings produce a world of their own making, a distinctly human one, in two ways. First, they mix their labour (to use John Locke's apt phrase) with what the natural world supplies and transform it by so doing. Such transformations of the environment are typically the result of joint efforts and the behavior of each agent is influenced by that of the others. In both cases we have examples of causal generation. But, second, in setting up patterns of coordinated interaction, human beings generate a new stratum of reality – namely, social reality. In this case, however, what is generated is not the outcome of some causal process but is rather what emerges when the patterns of human interaction assume a sufficiently fixed and permanent character as to acquire independent status in the form of social framework existing over and above the concrete activities taking place within it. Taken together, this framework and the collective human action whose context it provides, constitute the social world. (Collin, 1997, p. 2)

The answers to all the really important questions are socially constructed. During the meaning making process we decide such things as

- what is beauty and therefore beautiful
- what is good and therefore who is good
- what is important and therefore worth spending time on;
- what is valuable and therefore worth dying for
- what is leadership and therefore who are the leaders.

Leadership is one of the patterns of coordinated interaction created within human social systems, and hence it is a completely emergent process. Leadership does not lie within the cause and effect spectrum, but is created through the meaning making process.

> From this point of view, leadership is not something independent of the way we think. Just the opposite: it is dependent on the way we organize what we take for granted as real and true. The presence or absence of leadership depends on the presence or absence of some knowledge principle that enables a person or a group or a community or organization to say, "That's leadership." (Drath, 2001, p. 6)

The knowledge principle that Drath is talking about is socially constructed. Together groups, organizations, communities and nations collectively create a set of taken-for-granted truths that are obvious to those who hold them. Supreme Court Justice William Brennan said that pornography was something he couldn't define, but he knew it when he saw it. This is an example of the use of a knowledge principle. Defining the "True", the "Good" and the "Beautiful" requires the use of knowledge principles. It is a knowledge principle that lets people categorize actions as leadership or something else. No matter what a leader does, if the members of the organization do not categorize her/his actions as leadership, they will see themselves as leaderless.

Former President Clinton and the Lewinski scandal is a perfect example of this postmodern social construction phenomenon. After his admission of a sexual relationship with Monica Lewinski, the country and the world were clearly divided on the subject of morality and leadership. Ambiguity abounded, and differences in values, beliefs, and world-views were exposed. Some people tried to polarize the incident, making it a clear case of right or wrong. Others refused to see it that way. Some saw a man cheating on his wife as a forgivable offense and others did not. Some saw a leader who cheated on his wife, not a president cheating on his country. But it was a presidential thing to do? What does it mean to be "presidential"? Was Clinton an immoral husband and a moral president? For some Americans morality is an integral part of leadership; for others it isn't. It was widely reported that Europeans in general thought that morals were not a part of leadership and the Lewinski scandal was much ado about nothing. During the scandal it was also reported that President Clinton had a high job satisfaction rating from a majority of citizens. What does that mean? For some Americans the country was leaderless but others were quite confident in their president. This multiplicity of views and the ambiguity about what leadership is demonstrates the variety of ways humans have of constructing "Truth."

Is there a right answer to the question of what is good leadership? Good leadership is whatever the members of the group, organization, community or nation collectively say it is. The main function of leadership is to make meaning of events, numbers, activities – that is, to make meaning of life. That is what makes it so difficult to define and to build a theory for. This does not make leadership relative; it makes leadership choiceful. Humans have the ability to choose their path. They can choose those ways of being that will forward society or not. They are free to make the choice. But can't an organization construct knowledge principles that hurt the performance of the organization or set society back? Of course; that is the difference between Hitler's leadership and Ghandi's leadership.

Today we can see examples of communities that have constructed narrow leadership knowledge principles and therefore believe they have a leadership vacuum. The problem may not be a lack of leadership, but that the style of leadership is for all practical purposes invisible. The community has created a leadership knowledge principle that doesn't recognize what some social scientists call self-organizing leadership, and therefore they sense a vacuum. The reverse may also be true. If a leader is very decisive and the community has created a principle that identifies quick decision making as good leadership, the community feels comfortable. This is true even though the quality of decisions being made is substantially less than it would be if decisions were made by a group of people or the whole community.

So how does a community know if the knowledge principles they have created are helping or hurting their community? The only way to know is to look for what is working for all people when the community is at its best. When do all people feel the most excited, inspired, or engaged in the community? Whatever is happening at that moment is leadership. Living in the questions and using dialogue to expand relationships and make meaning is the most powerful thing a community can do. When do we see good leadership in our community? What is it that creates good leadership? When do our leaders feel the most excited or inspired while working? When do we feel the most excited or inspired while working in our community? The things that create these feelings are, by the community's definition, good leadership.

But doesn't this lead to more of the same and if a group, organization, community or nation has constructed knowledge principles that are not helpful won't this perpetuate the situation? The question is: how can knowledge principles be taken to new levels. How can communities expand their leadership principle? And does this have any implications for leadership educators?

Drath describes leadership in terms of tasks: "Leadership tasks seem to center on three kinds of tasks related to direction (mission, goals, vision, purpose), commitment (alignment, motivation, spirit, teamwork), and adaptation (innovation, change, dealing with paradigm shifts)." (Drath, 2001, p. 19) These tasks must be performed inside the knowledge principles that the community constructs. If the community constructs principles that call for the involvement of every community member in important decisions, the leader needs to use a process that draws all community members into the decision making process. If she/he doesn't use such an approach, the members of the community will not see the leader's decisiveness as leadership. but as arbitrariness.

This suggests that to be most effective, leadership education should teach leaders how to make meaning in a variety of settings. If, to move forward, groups need to expand their knowledge principle about leadership to see the vast array of leadership activities within the community, then leaders should facilitate that process. To do that leaders can use a wide variety of tools to generate creative dialogue about good leadership. Appreciative Inquiry, Future Search, and Open Space are specific examples of processes that can be used. Movies, art, journals and story-telling are more general examples of ways to help communities expand their knowledge principles.

During such processes, subject and object, self and other, leader and community merge. The clear line between leader and follower disappears. Relations between leader and community are no longer treated as objective aspects of the world and as a question of true or false judgment. Rather, relations become an infinity of possible meaning combinations. The good news about postmodernism and social construction is the realization that inside of all the human limitations, genetic inheritances, natural gifts, honed talents, and learned skills, the world we live in is a world of our creation. We can see examples of extraordinary ways of being and leading that demonstrate our ability to create, which push us to imagine what might be possible. The sources of leadership are dreams, the unconscious, and the imagination. And in leadership, as in dreams and in the imagination, everything is possible.

References

Collin, F. (1997). Social Reality. New York: Routledge.

Drath, W. H. (2001). The Deep Blue Sea: Rethinking the source of leadership. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

GRADUATE PROGRAMS IN ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP: A PRELIMINARY REVIEW OF PROGRAMS, FACULTY, COSTS, AND DELIVERY METHODS

C. B. Crawford, Ph.D.
Associate Professor, Institute of Leadership Studies
Fort Hays State University
600 Park Street
Hays, KS 67601
(785) 628-4303
cbcraw@bigcat.fhsu.edu

A Poster Presentation at the Association of Leadership
Educators Annual Conference, July 2001

ABSTRACT

The face of graduate level education in professional degree programs, like organizational leadership, is changing and evolving rapidly. As consumers demand non-traditional scheduling arrangements and mediated "any time, any place" learning, educational institutions have had to give pause to these considerations. This study explored the nature of graduate education in organizational leadership considering specifically the program focus, the characteristics, the faculty, costs, and delivery methods utilized. Based on the data gathered by looking at over 40 degree programs, there are clear indications that educational institutions are evolving to meet the needs of the non-traditional learner.

GRADUATE PROGRAMS IN ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP: A PRELIMINARY REVIEW OF PROGRAMS, FACULTY, COSTS, AND DELIVERY METHODS

INTRODUCTION

Graduate education for working professionals has become one of the most common phenomena in higher education. Entire universities have thrived on this select niche market. Furthermore, the non-traditional graduate student is generally better able to understand the complexities of the content they are asked to learn, and are often more dedicated to the classes they take. This is in contrast to the traditional 18-22 year old student whose interest lies more in completing the degree rather than learning and applying theory. To meet these perceived market needs more institutes of higher learning are developing programs that cater to the needs of the non-traditional student - hence, the niche market. To meet these unique needs these institutions are willing to make substantive changes in the way that education is delivered. Consider some of the changes in educational delivery that the non-traditional professional graduate is likely to be considering when looking for a graduate education:

- Non-primetime hours for learning (5 pm to 10 pm),
- Expanded use of technology in lieu of driving to campus for face-to-face classes,
- Use of "professional experience credit" arrangements,
- Less emphasis on research methods, more emphasis on practical professional skills,
- Flexible semesters and condensed semesters and classes.

Equally important are the changes that the professional graduate student will encounter when returning to the classroom. These content/substance-based changes are designed to help the non-traditional student learn more in a shorter time span. Consider some of the following changes:

- Direct application of theory to their practice,
- Class materials presented in a multi-media rich environment,
- Exams designed to provide culmination of learning, not just testing of knowledge,
- More "hands-on" learning, less "book" learning,
- Development of online communities/networks for student support.

In essence, these professional, non-traditional student focused courses adopt a radically different perspective on graduate education than does the more traditionally focused program. As the number of these alternative programs increase, there are likely to be implications to the entire graduate education and intellectual community.

Additionally, while more programs have started to focus on the study of organizational leadership, there are still many programs whose primary mission, while related to organizational leadership, is still quite remote from the educational mission of understanding organizational leadership. Many programs offer graduate education in agriculture, extension, or community based-programming, and while much of the same theories are presented, there is often more thrust on the "practical" nature of leadership, as opposed to the theoretical and historical nature. While more programs have been created to explore the realm of theoretical organizational leadership, the number of programs is still very small.

PURPOSE

Bearing in mind the direction of educational delivery focus and the different "flavors" of leadership theory, the purpose of this descriptive-analytic research is two-fold:

1. Explore graduate programs in light of the methods of delivery (traditional vs. non-traditional), and
2. Determine the "flavor" of leadership education delivered, attempting to select those programs more focused on "organizational leadership" rather than other common alternatives.

METHODOLOGY

This study was completed during the first half of 2001. Data was compiled from the use of the Internet. Specifically, the term "leadership education" was used as a search descriptor on several search engines in an effort to collect as many unique educational institutions as possible within the United States. Each site was inspected, for relevance according to the criteria of "organizational leadership program" as explained in the purpose above. As each site was inspected the elements of basic program characteristics, focus, faculty, cost, and delivery/pedagogy model were analyzed in an effort to affirm the decision to consider the program as organizational leadership, and not some other type of leadership orientation. Programs focusing on educational leadership, agribusiness, community leadership, religious leadership, and management were excluded. Limitations on accreditation were the driving rationale behind restricting the search to only those institutions in the United States.

The second step involved the collection of data by another outside party, and essentially the same application of the criteria. Websites were once again examined in an effort to determine the applicability to organizational leadership. At this point in the process, if the program was deemed to be of an organizational leadership focus, then the website was printed and retained for further analysis. The primary elements that were considered to be relevant, at this stage (and thus collected), involved depth of information on program characteristics, focus, faculty, cost, and delivery methods.

The final step of this research process was the collection and systemization of the reviewed data in an effort to create a matrix of information (seen in later pages). Standardizing calculations for cost of credit hours was performed. Program delivery methods were also standardized and categorized. The culmination of this research was to consider the differences between institutions in terms of the criteria enumerated below.

The crux of this paper is to study the existing organizational leadership graduate programs. These graduate programs have been analyzed by looking for the following elements:

- Characteristics of the offerings,
- Unique focus of the program,
- Faculty members involved,
- Cost of education and materials,
- Delivery models of the courses and degree.

RESULTS

Analyses of each program according to the above-discussed criteria were arranged in a tabular matrix in an effort to display commonalities and dissimilarities. Table 1 displays the findings.

Table 1.
Relevant Elements of Graduate Organizational Leadership Programs

Institution	***Characteristics and Focus***	***Faculty***	***Costs***	***Delivery Methods***
Augsburg College, MN	M.A., Leadership 10.5 to 11 course credits (approximately 33 to 36 credits) of theory, practical projects, and research courses, with optional thesis	Undetermined	$968.77 ($17438 yearly tuition and fees / 36 credit hours)	Traditional delivery program Night and weekend classes
Azusa Pacific University, CA	M.A., Leadership Studies 39 credit units of theory, application, and a capstone experience	3 graduate faculty	$350 per unit	Traditional delivery program
Bellevue University, NE	M.A., Leadership 36 credit hours of theory and practical projects throughout the program	4 graduate faculty	$302.64 ($10895 total tuition and fees/36 credits)	Accelerated online format, 16 months
Bethel College, MN	M.A., Organizational Leadership 36 credit hours of theory, practical, and research focused classes, plus project/thesis	Undetermined	$325 per credit hour	Traditional delivery program Night classes
Biola University, CA.	M.A., Organizational Leadership 36 credit hours of theoretical and practical leadership classes plus capstone	11 graduate faculty	$327 per credit unit	Traditional delivery program Night classes
Butler University, IN	M.B.A., Leadership Concentration 58 credit hours (unless credits are granted for prior work) of theoretical and applied leadership 30 credit hours minimum	Undetermined	$250 per credit hour (under 500 level courses) $360 per credit hour (500 and above level courses)	Traditional delivery program Night classes
Chapman University, CA.	M.A., Organizational Leadership 36 hours of theory, practical application, and capstone	5 graduate faculty	$430 per credit hour	Traditional delivery program Night classes, multiple locations

Carlow College, PA	M.S., Professional Leadership 30 hours of leadership theory and internship The program focuses on profession-specific requirements in three content areas: Health Service Education, Management for Non-profit Organizations, Training and Development	Undetermined	$470 per credit hour for tuition and fees	Traditional delivery program Weekend and night classes
Capella University,	M.S., Organization and Management, Leadership Specialization M.B.A., Leadership Specialization 48 quarter credits (52 for M.B.A.) of theoretical and applied leadership classes, with integrative project (not M.B.A.) Ph.D., Organization and Management, Leadership Specialization 120 quarter credits of theory and application of leadership, and research methods	Undetermined	$325 per credit hour (online M.S. courses) $3228 quarterly tuition (additional fees for focused seminar and extended seminar)	Online courses(M.S., M.B.A.) Online courses and focused seminars (Ph.D.).
College of St. Catherine, MN	M.A., Organizational Leadership 36-37 credit hour program with classes in leadership theory, practice, research methods, and research project	11 graduate faculty	$475 per credit hour	Traditional delivery program Weekend classes
Colorado Technical University, CO	M.S.M., Organizational Leadership Concentration 48/52 hour degree program including classes in theory, practice, limited research methods, and a capstone project.	Undetermined	$275 per credit hour	Traditional delivery program Evening and weekend classes
Defiance College, OH	M.B.O.L. 33 credit hour program with classes in theory, practice, and culminating application project.	Undetermined	$944.24 ($15580 per year for a 2 year program of study)	Traditional delivery program Weekend classes
Duquesne University, PA	M.A., Leadership and Liberal Studies 36 hour program with classes in theory and practice of leadership, with colloquium	9 graduate faculty	$479 per credit hour	Mixed, weekend classes and online classes
Fort Hays State University, KS	M.L.S., Organizational Leadership 31 credit hours in theory, methods, practice, and culminating experience or research project	6+ graduate faculty	$130 per credit hour	Online and video classes or traditional delivery

Geneva College, OH	M.S., Organizational Leadership 36 credit hours consisting of theory, practice, and limited research methods, with a integrated leadership project	22 faculty, 4 full-time graduate faculty	$385 per credit hour	Traditional delivery program Evening and weekend classes
George Fox University, OR	M.A., Organizational Leadership 36 credit hour program. Course content balances application and theory. Course specifics not listed.	Undetermined	Approx $500 to $1000 per credit hour ($18720 for tuition, books, fees, and supplies, unknown if that tuition is yearly)	Traditional delivery program Evening and weekend classes
Greenleaf University, MO	M.S., Leadership and Administration 30 credit hours consisting of theory and practice of leadership, research methods, and a major paper/project. Ph.D., Leadership and Administration Requires 96 credit hours.	14 graduate faculty	$150 per credit hour	Distance education program with residency or scholarly paper requirement
Gonzaga University, WA	M.A., Organizational Leadership 31 credit hour program consisting of theory, practice, research methods, and a leadership seminar Ph.D., Organizational Leadership, 60 credit hours required	10 graduate faculty	$425 per credit hour	Traditional delivery program Summer only residency option for Ph.D. program
Immaculata College, PA	M.A., Organizational Leadership 36 credit hours in theory and practice of leadership, as well as a portfolio	Undetermined	$375 per credit hour (500/600 level courses)	Traditional delivery program Evening classes
John F. Kennedy University, CA	M.A., Managerial Leadership 54 units program with courses in theory and practice of leadership, plus required practicum	Undetermined	$321 per unit	Traditional delivery program Weekend classes
Manhattanville College, NY	M.S., Leadership and Strategic Management 36 credit hour program consisting of theory, practice, and a final integrative project	Undetermined	$450 per credit hour	Traditional delivery program Weekend classes
Marian College, WI	M.S., Organizational Leadership and Quality 36 credit hour program consisting of theory, practical application, and an advanced prject	Undetermined	Over $270 (the undergraduate rate)	Traditional delivery program Evening classes
Marymount College, VA	M.S., Organizational Leadership 36 credit hour program of practical topics and leadership theory	10 graduate faculty	$495 per credit hour	Traditional delivery

Mercy College, NY	M.S., Organizational Leadership 36 credit hour program in 3 modules: motivation, communication, and direction	18 graduate faculty	$435 per credit hour	Traditional delivery program Night classes
Mercyhurst College, PA	M.S., Organizational Leadership 30 credit hours in theoretical and practical courses, including a thesis	Undetermined	$276 per credit hour (plus additional fees)	Traditional delivery program Evening and weekend classes
National Louis University, IL	M.S., Managerial Leadership 33 credit hour program consisting of theory and application, thesis option	Undetermined	$496 per credit hour	Traditional delivery program
North Central College, IL	M., Leadership Studies 42 credit hour program consisting of classes in theory, practice, and a culminating project	Undetermined	$377 per credit hour	Traditional delivery program
Regent University, VA	M.A., Organizational Leadership 33 credit hour program consisting of classes in theory, practice, and a culminating experience Ph.D., Organizational Leadership 60 credit hours past the M.A. level in theory, research methods, and a dissertation project	25 graduate faculty (includes distinguished professorate)	$350 per credit hour (M.A. degree) $500 per credit hour (Ph.D. degree)	Distance education delivery program 2 week Summer residency option for Ph.D. program
Regis University, CO	M.S.M., Emphasis in Organizational Leadership 36 credit hour program with courses in theory, practical application, applied research, and a capstone project	11 graduate faculty	$300 per credit hour	Traditional delivery program
Saginaw Valley State University, MI	M.A., Leadership and Public Administration 45 credit hour program emphasizing theory and practice classes with a culminating capstone project	14 graduate faculty	$175 per credit hour (in-state tuition and fees) $338 per credit hour (out-of-state tuition and fees)	Traditional delivery program
Seattle University, WA	M. Not for Profit Leadership 45 credit hour program consisting of classes in theory and practice of not-for-profits, as well as a summary project	13 graduate faculty	$430 per credit hour	Traditional delivery program
Sienna Heights University, MI	M.A., Organizational Leadership 36 credit hour program with courses in theory, practice, limited research methods, and a thesis	Undetermined	$290 per credit hour	Traditional delivery program Evening and weekend classes

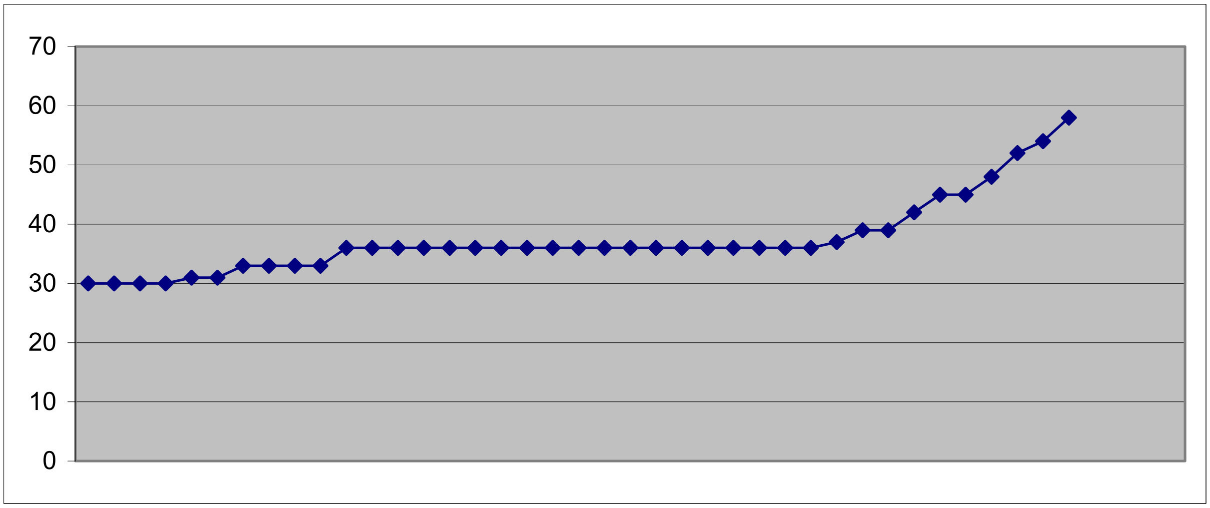
State University of New York, University at Albany, NY	Ph.D., Organizational Studies 69 credit hour (post-bachelor's) consisting of classes in theories and research methods, with doctoral dissertation	Undetermined	$213.85 per credit hour (in state tuition and fees) $351.85 per credit hour (out-of-state tuition and fees)	Traditional delivery
University of LaVerne, CA	M.S., Leadership and Management 36 credit hour program with courses in theory, practice, research methods, and a thesis option	Undetermined	$405	Traditional delivery program Evening and weekend classes
University of Oklahoma, OK	Ph.D., Organizational Leadership 90 graduate credit hours required including courses in research methods, theory, practice, and a doctoral dissertation	Undetermined	$183.62 (in-state tuition) $389.07 (out-of-state tuition) Additional fees apply	Online courses and focused seminars
University of Phoenix, worldwide	D.M., Organizational Leadership 60 credit hour doctoral program consisting of theory, practice, research methods, and doctoral project	Undetermined	$550 per credit hour	Online courses and focused seminars during summer residency
University of Richmond, VA	M., Leadership Studies 36 credit hour program built around 4 modules: meaning of leadership, leadership issues, developing competencies, and innovative/createive leadership	11 full time graduate faculty	$562 per credit hour (assuming full time for their 1 year program)	Traditional delivery program Evening and weekend classes
University of San Diego, CA	M.S., Executive Leadership 36 credit units consisting of theory, practical application, and a culminating project	26 graduate faculty	$1000 per credit hour ($36000 total program cost / 36 credit hours)	Traditional delivery program Week-long sessions and weekend classes
University of Scranton, PA	M.S., Human Resource Administration, Organizational Leadership specialization 39 credit hour program consisting of courses in theory and practice,	Undetermined	$515 per credit hour	Traditional delivery program Evening and weekend classes
University of South Florida, FL	M.S.M., Leadership and Organizational Effectiveness 30 credit hour program consisting of classes in theory and practice	7 graduate faculty	$147.77 (in-state tuition) $508 (out-of-state tuition)	Traditional delivery program Evening classes

This study identified 37 institutions of higher education in the United States that had graduate programs (38 programs total, 1 university had 2 Masters degrees in organizational leadership) at the Masters level in organizational leadership. Programs in other areas were excluded based on a focus in agricultural leadership, educational leadership, religious leadership, and other non-organizational forms. In addition, 6 doctoral programs were identified in this research. Given the focus and scope of this research and the relatively small number of doctoral programs, the primary focus of these results centers on the Masters level programs.

Of the Masters level programs, analysis was performed looking at the number of credits required to successfully complete the degree. The range of required credit hours is from a low of 30 credit hours to a maximum of 58 credit hours. The average number of credit hours required in order to complete a Masters degree in organizational leadership was 37 credit hours. The median point for credit hours required to complete a degree in this study was 36 credit hours. Table 2 details the frequency of credit hours required in order to successfully complete Masters degrees.

Table 2.

Frequency Distribution of Credit Hours Required for Masters Degrees in Organizational Leadership Programs



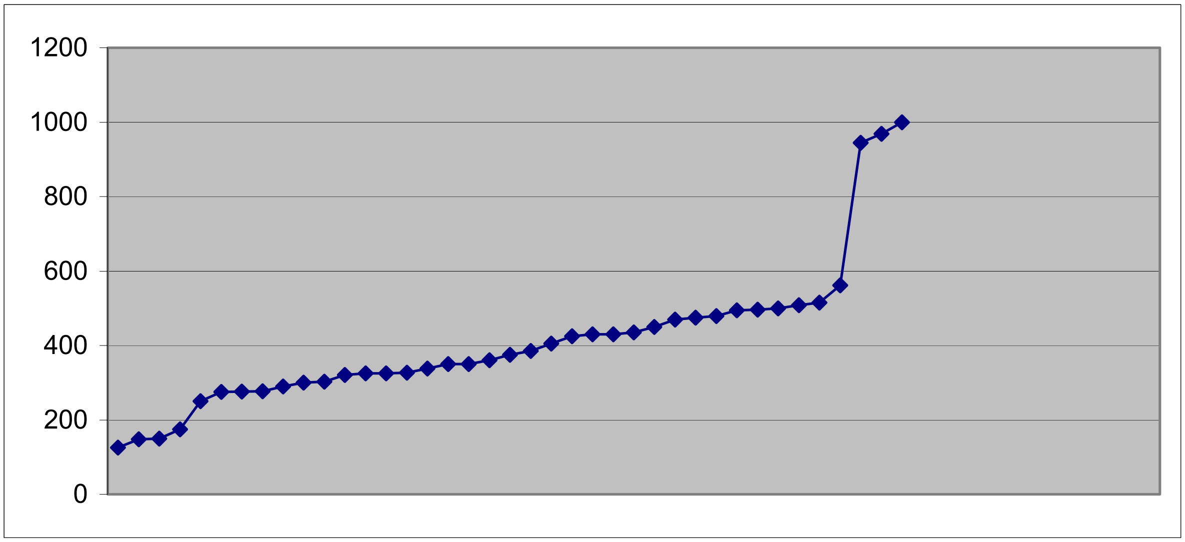
Eleven of the 38 degrees required at least a limited research component, and nearly every program required at least some culminating project or research project for program completion.

As an area of interest for this research, the number of faculty utilized in such graduate programs was reviewed. Unfortunately, given the methods involved in this research, and the assumed flexibly and mobility of faculty members, there was not sufficient information given on many websites as to the number of graduate faculty that were involved in teaching the masters courses on a full-time basis. From the data collected, the number of graduate faculty ranged from a low of 3 graduate faculty, to a high of 26 graduate faculty. Given the large number of institutions that did not list the faculty affiliations or any information at all about graduate faculty teaching organizational leadership courses, further data analysis was not considered.

In addition to studying the program characteristics and faculty characteristics, the program costs, as measured through price per hour of credit, was explored. In an effort to give equitability to programs charging tiered rates (in-state vs. out-of-state) both alternatives were thrown into the calculations. The lowest tuition rate found for Masters credit in organizational leadership programs was a rate of $125.33 per credit hour. The highest rate of tuition found was a nice plump figure of $1000 per credit hour. The average cost per credit hour of tuition was calculated to be $418.58. The median cost per credit hour in this study was found to be $360. Table 3 details the listed tuition a fee rates collected in this research.

Table 3.

Tuition and Fees Per Credit Hour for Graduate Programs in Organizational Leadership



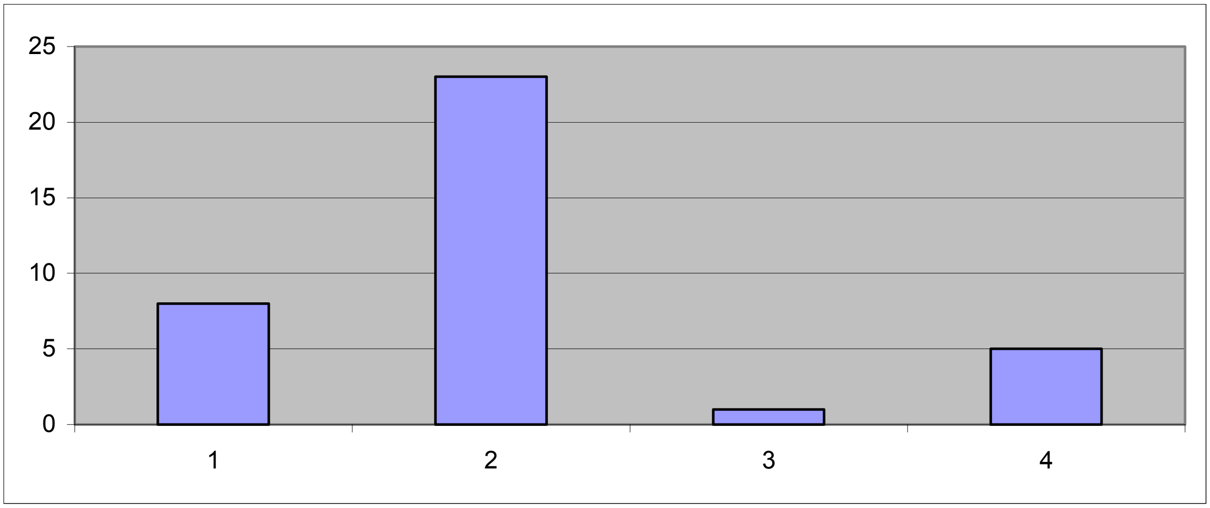
The final focus of this research consisted of the primary delivery model adopted by the program. A cursory categorical analysis of the delivery method reveals four different types of programs:

1. No mediation, traditional scheduling
2. No mediation, non-traditional scheduling
3. Partial mediation, non-traditional scheduling
4. Total mediation

Analysis of the programs reveals that dramatically more programs have adopted a non-mediated approach with non-traditional scheduling. Some have referred to these programs as Executive MBA format. Table 4 details the specific findings in terms of the number of programs utilizing particular delivery models.

Table 4.

Delivery Models of Masters Programs in Organizational Leadership



DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

From the data collected, a profile of the typical graduate program in organizational leadership can be deduced. First, the program is grounded in both theory and practice and generally consists of 36 (more or less) credit hours for degree completion. In many cases, the degree is housed in the College of Business, or alternatively in Arts and Science colleges or Education colleges. There are limited instances where institutions have actually created Colleges of Leadership. Additionally, it appears that classes in theory as well as practical application of that theory always punctuate the Masters level coursework. In almost every circumstance there is a culminating experience, but the requirement of a thesis is more the exception than the rule. Research methods are required in more traditional programs, along with the thesis, but the requirement for multiple classes in research methods and statistics are generally replaced by applied methods, if required at all.

Furthermore, the typical graduate program in organizational leadership is delivered in the "Executive MBA" style with face-to-face instruction in hours that are more convenient to the non-traditional learner. This approach is obviously market driven. Though some programs are, notably, totally mediated, they are still relatively rare and serve a niche market. Those programs that involve both mediated approaches and the "Executive MBA" approach are rare. Assumably, institutions try to maximize the economies of scale when they go to the drawing board for their organizational leadership program, as it relates to delivery methods. Having more than one method of delivery may require more resources than is really necessary. One could easily speculate that as online providers start to encroach on existing traditional markets that were once safe, more institutions will reconsider their direction as it relates to distance education strategies in organizational leadership.

SUMMARY

Graduate programs in organizational leadership are in the genesis stages of development. As more universities enter the area, there is likely to be major changes that will influence the degree program requirements, faculty, cost, and delivery model used. The overall goal of this research is to provide a snapshot in time of the early stages of graduate education in organizational leadership for future reference and benchmarking. It is anticipated that future research in the area would expand as the number of programs multiplies and as other relevant characteristics are identified.

Concurrent Session Proposal

Association of Leadership Educators
Annual Conference 2001

Presentation Title Diversity, Inclusion and Communities: Creating a Leadership Program Prototype

Goals and Objectives of the Presentation Participants in this session will learn about designing a leadership program (that includes teaching diversity and inclusion) that fosters working together in teams to build stronger communities

Brief Outline

Diversity and inclusion. Most communities of any size are composed of diverse populations, and American communities are becoming even more diverse in the 21st century. Among other things, diversity exists in ethnicity, philosophical perspectives, gender, age, and extent of leadership experience (the go/no-go community leaders and the emerging leaders with limited experience and leadership skills). It is essential to realize that building community requires a team approach to identifying community assets and needs, as well as strategies and policy directions for future progress.

Prototype program. A leadership development program prototype that includes the following will be presented:

> **Phase I – Diversity and inclusion training with core teams:** a core team of 3-5 persons from a community participating with other community teams in a session on diversity and inclusion, developing contracts with themselves to work on awareness of others different from themselves
> **Phase 2 – Expanded teams**: core teams recruiting additional team members (resulting in expanded teams of 10-12 persons reflecting the demographics of their communities), with all participating in a follow-up session on diversity and inclusion
> **Phase 3 – Further training**: an educational session for all team members on a variety of areas, such as leadership skills, communication skills, asset mapping, public deliberation forums, issue identification, and team building
> **Phase 4 – Experiential learning**: learning by doing – each community leadership team learning leadership by developing, implementing and evaluating a action plan for a project addressing an issue of concern in the team's community or area
> **Evaluation**

Time Requirements Flexible – 20-30 minutes

Affiliated Costs None anticipated other than rental of AV equipment

Primary Contact Person Renée Daugherty

Presenters and Contact Information

Renée A. Daugherty, Ph.D.
Educational Methods Specialist
Oklahoma Cooperative Extension Service
Assistant Professor, Department of
Family Relations & Child Development

College of Human Environmental Sciences
Oklahoma State University
137 H.E.S. Building
Stillwater, OK 74078
Phone: 405.744.5776
Fax: 405.744.5506
radaugh@okstate.edu

Sue E. Williams, Ph.D.
Family Policy Specialist
Oklahoma Cooperative Extension Service
Associate Professor, Department of
Family Relations & Child Development

College of Human Environmental Sciences
Oklahoma State University
337 H.E.S. Building
Stillwater, OK 74078
Phone: 405.744.6825
Fax: 405.744.5506
sarahk@okstate.edu

Title of Presentation: **"LeaderVisioning"**

Name and Titles of Presenters: Robb Frank, Coordinator of Student Activities/Professor
College of DuPage, Glen Ellyn, IL

Maryanne Kyle-DiPietropaolo, Principal
LeaderVision Associates, LLP

Address: 1405 Georgetown Drive, Carol Stream, IL 60188
E-Mail: leadervision@visto.com
Toll Free Phone: 1-877-205-2890

Goals and Objectives of the Presentation:
Objective: Understanding the different characteristics of a leader, and how to focus on and develop those characteristics.

Goals: The workshop goal for participants is to lay the groundwork and structure for developing leaders to utilize in becoming leaders of tomorrow.

Outline of Presentation:

1. Interactive icebreaker game

2. Participants share who their favorite leader is and why.

3. Large group breaks into small groups (2-4 people) and brainstorms words related to their favorite leaders. Then shares the words within the entire group.

4. Entire group selects the top 10 words relating to leadership.

5. In different small groups share steps in developing, growing and utilizing the words within their current leadership style.

6. Open discussion of what was shared in the small groups with a connection back to how their favorite leaders might have developed the same traits.

7. Review and Process

Time: 90 minutes

Affiliated costs: None

Title of Presentation: **Educating Future Leaders - Getting the message out**

Name and Titles of Presenters: Robb Frank, Coordinator, Student Activities/Professor
College of DuPage, Glen Ellyn, IL

Maryanne Kyle-DiPietropaolo, Principal
LeaderVision Associates, LLP

Address: 1405 Georgetown Drive, Carol Stream, IL 60188
E-Mail: leadervision@visto.com
Toll Free Phone: 1-877-205-2890

Goals and Objectives of the Presentation:
Objective: To examine different ways leadership education has historically been accomplished, compare with current formats of leadership education and vision on future leadership education opportunities.

Goals: The workshop goal is to have participates leave filled with innovative ideas and inspiring techniques to be used for developing challenging and productive programs for future leaders.

Outline of Presentation:

1. Interactive icebreaker game

2. Participants share different workshops that people have attended and/or conducted in the past what they liked and what they did not like. What seemed to work and what did not and why.

3. Look at current innovative ideas for educating our future leaders, including, physical challenge courses, books, role playing, movies, puzzles and games.

4. Vision new ways to educate our future leaders utilizing the Internet, computer based interactive training and testing, video, and more.

5. Review and Process

Time: 90 minutes

Affiliated costs: None

UNDERSTANDING OTHER CULTURES: THE VALUE ORIENTATIONS METHOD

Tom Gallagher
Associate Professor and Leadership Development Specialist
Oregon State University Extension Service
307 Ballard Extension Hall
Corvallis, OR 97331
tom.gallagher@orst.edu

Presented at the Association of Leadership Educators Conference, Minneapolis, MN, July 2001

Introduction

The 2000 census has documented the common knowledge that the United States is becoming an ever more multicultural nation. This fundamental shift in demographics challenges organizations to make their programs relevant and accessible to people from outside the dominant culture. But for organizations to change, people that make up the organization need to change and that requires no perceptions and understandings. How can those in the dominant Western culture understand better the assumptions of people from another culture -- so that they have the understanding necessary to adapt their organizations to serve more effectively across cultures?

This paper presents a tool -- the Value Orientations Method (VOM) -- that provides insight into the core assumptions, called value orientations, of other cultures. The VOM helps to articulate how other cultures are different from the dominant Western culture. For those who are familiar with the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and how it describes types of individuals, the VOM provides a similar method for describing types of cultures.

In this paper I review the history and conceptual foundation for the VOM; provide an overview of applications in higher education, health care, and management; briefly introduce the assessment instruments now available; and, discuss linkages of the VOM with the MBTI and with organizational culture. The paper concludes with a proposal to "find the middle ground" in making organizations more accessible to people from outside the dominant culture.

History and Concept

In the 1940s, anthropologists Florence and Clyde Kluckhohn and Frederick Strodtbeck, with the Harvard Values Project, began an exploration of the fundamental values held by different cultures. They hypothesized that

"*...there are a limited number of common human problems for which all societies at all times must find some solution...How a group is predisposed to understand, give meaning to, and solve these common problems is an outward manifestation of its innermost values, its window on the world: its value orientation."* The five common human problems, posed as questions, that provided the most useful "value orientations" in creating a cultural typology were:

- What is the temporal focus of life? (**Time** orientation)
- What is the modality of human activity? (**Activity** orientation)
- What is the modality of a person's relationship to others in the group? (**Relations** orientation)
- What is the relationship of people to nature? (**Person-nature** orientation)
- What is the character of innate human nature? (**Human nature** orientation)

Their "Rimrock Study" in the American Southwest compared a Mexican American village, a Navaho Indian band, a Zuni pueblo, a Mormon community, and a Texan community. From their research they deduced that societies would respond in one of three ways to each of the five questions or orientations (figure 1). (A complete review of this research was published by Vogt and Albert in 1996.)

Figure 1

ORIENTATIONS	POSSIBLE DIMENSIONS		
Time	Past	Present	Future
Activity	Doing	Becoming	Being
Relations	Individual	Collateral	Lineal
Person-Nature	Humans dominant	Harmony with	Nature Dominant
Human Nature	Good	Mixed	Evil

The "value orientations" chosen by the team recognized that the responses were not values per se, but the foundation assumptions or orientations upon which a culture builds it value system. For example, a society that has a preferred "past" time orientation might express a high value for traditional ways, drawing on the past for its present values, and quite probably valuing elders who carry that knowledge. Conversely, a society with a preferred "future" orientation would more likely draw its values from what will serve to shape the future and would more likely value planning future options.

In 1961, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck published their theory and findings in their book, *Variations in Value Orientations,* in which they proposed that the rank-order of preference -- from most to least -- gave the society its cultural character. The different patterns of rankings allowed one culture to be distinguished from other cultures. It was this rank-order of preferences, they argued, that was the foundation for the more-visible cultural values, beliefs, norms, and actions -- and even heroes, rituals, songs, etc. -- of the society. They also proposed that, although a society may have a general preference that is dominant, there is a great deal of diversity within cultures and all cultures will express all possible dimensions at some time or through some individuals. Carter (1990) added to these propositions with his finding that cultures could share the same rank order of dimensions, but differ substantially if there was relative difference of preference for each of the dimensions.

Recent Research and Applications

Following Florence Kluckhohn's death in 1986, her colleagues founded the Kluckhohn Center for the Study of Values in Bellingham, WA. The Center gathered a group of about a dozen scholars from various disciplines to continue research on the VOM, including expanding the theory, perfecting the assessment instruments, and documenting new applications. Over the past decade a number of researchers have applied the method to various situations; presented here are higher education, health care, and management.

Higher Education

In education, Ortuno (1991) demonstrated how the VOM provides college students, in her case students in language courses, with the necessary insight into cultural differences to interpret literary works from different cultures. She writes about how she used the VOM to help in the classroom: *"The typical language student, exposed haphazardly to ... different cultural values, be it through culture capsules in an elementary grammar text or through an anthology of literature, does not usually have a systematic way of interpreting this information. The Kluckhohn (VOM) taxonomy of value orientations provides just such a means of evaluating and understanding the significance of cultural differences within a wider, global context."* Ortuno's research, including a paper published in 2000 (Ortuno 2000), provides highly useful description of Anglo/Hispanic cultural differences that would apply outside of higher education.

Carter explored the "cultural value differences between African Americans and White Americans" in a paper with that title (Carter 1990a). His research demonstrated that both groups rank-order the preferences for each of the five value orientations in the same way, but that there are distinct differences in the relative preferences for each orientation. These differences, he proposed, can lead to a number of subtle problems in higher education for African American students interacting with a primarily Anglo/Western institution. He writes that his findings *"...suggest that African-American college students may experience the environments in higher educational institutions as hostile and unfamiliar...When differences in cultural values exist, interpersonal or intergroup relationships might be subject to more anxiety and frustration.* Carter's work, although limited to students, is useful in understanding African American and White American cultural differences in general.

In another study related to education, Chapman (1993) identified three general benefits of using the VOM as a foundation for graduate education. First, she found that students who grew up in a mono-cultural environment often had an "ah-ah" experience (author's words) when they discovered their own world-view, and that others did not share it. Second, she found that students exposed to the VOM could use the insights to increase their ability to reduce conflict. And, third she found that those students with a preference for science and facts could incorporate different world-views into their thinking by using the VOM.

In student counseling, Remer and Remer (1982) used the VOM to categorize counseling theories so that counselors might use the best counseling method with clients from different cultures.

Health Care

The VOM has also been the subject of applied research in several aspects of health care. Ponce (1985), a professor of psychiatry, demonstrated the value of the VOM as a *"... conceptual method of understanding culture that is relatively simple and useful -- a method that is complementary to, and can be easily integrated with, other clinical constructs and approaches."* Working in the multi-cultural environment of Hawaii, Ponce more recently (2000) has demonstrated the use of the VOM in individual psychotherapy, marital and family therapy, group therapy, and mediation.

Brink, an academic nurse, has used the VOM to understand cultural values and reduce conflict in clinical settings. In particular, she has used the VOM to improve relations between Canada's indigenous, First Nations, people and modern medical institutions (Brink 1984). She also applied the VOM to medical treatment among the Annang of Nigeria (Brink 2000). Her research has provided the foundation for more sensitive cross-cultural medical treatment. For example, medical professionals trained using the VOM have been better able to respond to the medical needs of indigenous people by being aware of such norms as having family member present during decision making about treatment, or even about having a "shaman" present during a treatment.

A final health example is provided by Papajohn (1971) who has described how culture is a variable that can cause personal stress. Working with Greek-Americans in Boston, Papajohn explains: "*Among Greek-American males who have achieved middle-class status, those who are the most "Americanized" evidence a precarious psychological balance. The drive to achieve and to maintain a high level of work performance appears to be a continuing source of strain. They obviously possess greater psychological resources, but these are being sorely tested by the stresses they experience by the culture change incumbent on "making it" in American society."* This "stress during enculturation" is thought to impact people of all cultures who must give up their past ways to join another culture (Kohls 1996). In response to this culture-induced stress Papajohn and Spielgel (2000) developed an Ethnicity Training Program with a National Institute of Mental Health grant that is used in the Harvard Medical School.

Management

The VOM is increasingly referenced as a valuable element in cross-cultural management training (Harris and Moran1991, Kohls 1996). The Kluckhohn Center for the Study of Values as applied the model to several management situations involving serious cross-cultural conflict. Zubalik and Russo (1988) used the VOM in the introductory workshop for resolution of a long-standing conflict between the Lummi Tribe and the Washington State Department of Natural Resources. The conflict, about management of Native lands with spiritual values, was resolved and has produced a long-standing working relationship between the two groups (Russo 2000b).

In a previous paper, Gallagher (2000a), I describe how the VOM functions in conflict resolution to clarify often hidden differences. In conflict resolution, the VOM helps both parties to understand their own values, and those of the "other". For example, a person from a "doing" culture may find a person from a "being" culture difficult or lazy. Conversely, a person from a culture that prefers "being" may find a person from a "doing" culture excessively anxious and demanding. Training with the VOM helps people on both sides of a conflict understand the foundation assumptions they make "about how the world should work" and how they expect others to follow their norms.. With knowledge of themselves and of the "other" participants in a conflict can refrain from misattribution of meaning and intent and better address the real conflict (Gallagher 1992).

In the world of business, Maznevski, Nason and DiStefano (1993) offered the VOM as a *"... new instrument for understanding cultural differences... The disappearance of political boundaries for the purpose of trade marks a new era in international business: the promise of operating in large regions as if they were single markets is enticing. As managers are discovering, though, there are a few catches. In particular, ethnic cultural differences cannot be negotiated away in the same manner as political borders.* They note that "...*Canadian and American managers in Mexico, Korean managers in Malaysia, and German and French managers in Spain have all discovered that cultural differences are more prevalent and more difficult to manage than anticipated."* They conclude that a) the theory helps to diagnose cultural differences in their organizations and to increase awareness of cultural diversity, and b) once cultural understandings are developed managers will be able to use diverse perspectives productively in their organizations.

Instruments

The original assessment instrument, called the Value Orientations Survey, consists of 23 oral questions. The "questions" begin with a situation or story that provides the basis for questions that elicit respondent's preferences. The modern oral instrument, which has incrementally been updated and adapted, and discussion of issues of analysis of data, are found in Russo (2000a). (A users manual and computer-based scoring program are available from the Kluckhohn Center [www.frkvalues.org]). Figure 2 presents one question from the instrument that concerns the "time" orientation. Note that this instrument is administered orally so the question is read to the respondent, even if they could read it easily.

Figure 2

Some people were talking about the way that children should be brought up. Here are three different ideas:

1. Some people say that children should always be taught the traditions of the past. They believe the olds ways are best, and it is when children do not follow them that things go wrong. (A)
2. Some people say that children should be taught some of the old traditions, but it is wrong to insist that they stick to these ways. These people believe that it is necessary for children to always learn about and take on whatever of the new ways will best help them get along in the world of today. (B)
3. Some people do not believe children should be taught much about the past traditions at all, except as an interesting story of what has gone before. These people believe that the world goes along best when

children are taught the things that will make them want to find out for themselves new ways of doing things to replace the old. (C)

Which of these people has the best idea about how children should be taught? [Your answer: ________]

Which of these people has the next best idea? [Your answer: ________]

Which of the three ways would most other people in ____________ (your family, group, or community) say is best? [Your answer:___________]

Which of the three ways would most ___________ (people in another group, community, or cultural group) say is best? [Your answer: _______]

(Orientations: A = past, B = present, C = future)

The first two questions identify the respondent's three preferences in rank order. The third question provides information about whether the respondent is similar to a larger group. The fourth question is useful in conflict resolution where each side projects what they think the "other" would answer. Group comparison of responses to these questions, in particular too the fourth question, is often an effective first step in conflict resolution.

Several written instruments have been developed recently. Carter and Helms (1990) developed their Inter-cultural Values Inventory (ICV) using 150 short statements such as "Hard work never hurt anyone". Respondents answer "yes" or "no" to the question. Maznevski, DiStefano and Nason (1995) developed a second written instrument that uses 79 statements, such as "Anyone's basic nature can change", to which respondents agree or disagree on a 7-point Likert scale. Both instruments are available from the authors.

None of the instruments is easy to use and interpret without training. Rather, like the more-formal MBTI instruments, correct and effective use requires training (which is provided by the Kluckhohn Center). However, experience shows that simply reviewing the logic of the VOM with people, and reviewing the instruments, often provides the desired insight to cultural differences.

Linkages

Linking the VOM and the MBTI: The theory that underlies the MBTI posits that the dimensions of individual differences -- the perceiving and judging functions -- are universal and cross-cultural. It does not follow, however, that all cultures will express the same proportion of type preferences. For instance, some cultures may emphasize the judging function, perhaps because of norms carried by their religious belief system. Thus, a higher percentage of the members of that society may grow up with an expressed, if not innate, preference for judging over perceiving. In providing this larger context, the VOM serves as a way to understand the "box" that the MBTI operates within for any given culture.

A quick comparison of the two theories -- VOM and MBTI -- suggests that there should be a correlation between several VOM preferences and MBTI types. For example, the "SJ" individual in the MBTI typology, who Keirsey (1998) refers to as the "Guardian", is conservative about change and prefers to bring forward the traditions and values of the past to make today's decisions. Theory suggests that individuals with strong Guardian values might also have a strong "past" orientation as described in the VOM typology. Further, cultures dominated by SJs would likely build institutions that express their values. This is not to say that one causes the other, but rather that one can expect scores for individuals on the VOM to correlate with scores on the MBTI.

Linking the VOM and the organization: In addition to helping to understand the cultural context in which the individual lives, the VOM can help to understand organizations, which are build by people -- individually and in groups -- to serve their purposes. About this service, Carter (2000) writes: "*Each organization in our society is embedded in the dominant cultural patterns of our societal culture...Whites have been the dominant racial and cultural group in North American society. White Anglo-Saxon Protestant culture has been at the core of American cultural patterns...some of the dimensions that characterize white American culture are rugged individualism, an action orientation measured by external accomplishments, a majority-rule decision-making system when whites are in power -- otherwise, a hierarchical structure is used, a communication system that relies on written and "standard" English forms, a view of time as a commodity and future oriented, a religious system primarily based on Christian ideals, social customs (e.g. holidays) founded on and celebrations of the Christian religion, white Euro-American history and male leaders, a patriarchal family system center on the nuclear family structure as the idea social unit, and aesthetic qualities that emphasize the value of music and art based on European cultures."*

We can see in our organizations a variety of expressions of the dominant Western culture. For example, the Western orientation to time -- Time is money! Get to work on time! -- is expressed in the norms of our public and private organizations. There are few American organizations that do not establish times to be opened and closed; times for workers to arrive, take a break, have lunch, and depart; and times for such rituals as evaluations, birthday lunches and annual picnics. Hence, when people of a culture with a different sense of time -- e.g. a past orientation where the clock is of little value -- interact with a Western organization there can be conflict. When a cultural group doesn't share the core values embedded in the organization the effect is that they cannot effectively interact with the organization -- and the value of the organization, as a job or service provider, may be lost. Conversely, Western people are not very effective when they interact with traditional organizations, such as a tribal council.

The value orientations of our organizations will be expressed in such systemic organizational functions as leadership, decision making, communication, motivation and control. Looking at the function of leadership and the time orientation, for example, a future-oriented leader (typical in Western culture) tends to focus on establishing a vision and on strategic planning. This leader probably talks about breaking "out of the box" and has established objectives and due dates. The past-oriented leader (more typical of a traditional cultures) tends to focus on drawing values and affective strategies for action in the future from the past. This leader tends to avoid formal planning, preferring "to respond to the world as it unfolds" (a phrase heard among Alaska's Native people). Similarly, the management functions of decision making, communication, motivation and controls vary across organizations, depending on the cultures. Details of these linkages are necessarily saved for a later paper.

Conclusion

If we understand each other better, across cultures, we can better avoid conflict and work through our differences. This is not to say that conflict resolution is easy (even with full understanding) but that ignorance of, or misattribution of another's values and motives, cannot possibly aid conflict resolution. To better understand each other, however, we need useful insights -- the VOM provides this insight. It helps us to understand ourselves at a new, deeper level, and it helps us to understand others.

And perhaps as important, the VOM can help us understand our organizations and provide us with some guidance on how to make them more accessible to people from other cultures. This is not to say that we should change our organizations outright to fit others, but that we should explore "a third way" to do business. The challenge, as Russo (2000), the Director of the Kluckohn Center states, is to "find the middle ground". The middle ground is not necessarily half Western and half "other" (particularly as there are many "others") but rather a new way of interacting that provides greater opportunity for clear communication and identifying and resolving conflicts. (For an example beyond the scope of this paper see Gallagher 1999.)

In sum, the VOM, although developed before the 1960s, has taken on a new value in the multicultural world we live in today. Just as the MBTI has helped us understand individual differences, so the VOM offers the potential to understand cultural differences.

CONTACT

Tom Gallagher is an Associate Professor in the College of Forestry and the Leadership Development Specialist for the Oregon State University Extension Service. Previously he was professor of public administration and natural resource policy with the University of Alaska. He is a Kellogg National Leadership Fellow (Group 10), a founding Kluckhohn Center scholar and trainer, and a qualified MBTI trainer. He can be contacted at: Tom.Gallagher@orst.edu.

REFERENCES CITED

Brink, Pamela J. 1984. Value orientations as an assessment tool in cultural diversity. Nursing Research, 33(4):198-203.

Brink, Pamela J. 2000. Values and conflict in clinical settings, IN: Kurt W. Russo (Ed.). *Finding the Middle Ground: Insight and Applications of the Value Orientations Method.* pp. 109-118. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Carter, Robert T. 1990. Cultural value differences between African Americans and White Americans. Journal of College Student Development 31:71-79.

Carter, Robert T. and Janet E. Helms. 1990. The Intercultural Values Inventory (ICV). *Tests in Microfiche Test Collection*, Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Carter, Robert. T. 2000. Perspectives on addressing cultural issues in organizations. In: Robert T. Carter (Ed.). *Addressing cultural issues in organizations: Beyond the corporate context,* pp. 3-18. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Chapman, Ann D. 1993. Educational applications of Kluckhohn's Value Orientation Theory: Focus on two graduate education classes. Proceedings of the Kluckhohn Values Symposium, Seattle, WA. pp. 43-51.

Gallagher, Thomas J. 1992. Language, Native people, and land management in Alaska. Arctic, 45(2):146-149.

Gallagher, Thomas J. 1999. Designing an effective approach to the public: Alaska's experience. National Academy of Sciences: Transportation Research Record, 1685:113-119.

Gallagher, Thomas J. 2000a. Value orientations and conflict resolution: Using the Kluckhohn Value Orientations Model. In: Kurt W. Russo (Ed.). *Finding the Middle Ground: Insight and Applications of the Value Orientations Method.* pp. 185-194. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Gallagher, Thomas J. 2000b. Building institutional capacity to address cultural differences. In: Robert T. Carter (Ed.). *Addressing cultural issues in organizations: Beyond the corporate context,* pp. 229-240. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Harris, Phillip R. and Robert T. Moran. 1991, *Managing Cultural Differences.* Houston: Gulf Publishing Co.

Keirsey, David. 1998. *Please Understand Me II: Temperament, Character, Intelligence,* Del Mar, CA: Prometheus Nemesis Book Co.

Kohls, L. Robert. 1981. *Developing Intercultural Awareness.* Washington, D.C.: Sietar Press.

Kohls, L. Robert. 1996. *Survival Kit for Overseas Living, 3rd edition.* Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Kluckhohn Center. 1995. User's Manual for the Value Orientation Method. Kluckhohn Center for the Study of Values, Bellingham, WA 55pp. (http://hometown.aol.com/frkvalues).

Kluckhohn, Florence R., and Fred L. Strodtbeck. 1961. *Variations in Value Orientations*, Evanston, IL: Row, Peterson.

Maznevski, Martha L., Stephen Nason and Joseph J. DiStefano. 1993. Fourteen faces of culture: A new instrument for understanding cultural differences. Presented at the Academy of Internal Business Annual Meeting, Hawaii.

Maznevski, Martha L., Joseph J. DiStefano and Stephen Nason. 1995. *Cultural Perspectives Questionnaire*. (Available from: Martha L. Maznevski, McIntire School of Commerce, (c) The University of Virginia, Charlottesville)

Ortuno, Marian M. 1991. Cross-cultural awareness in the foreign language class: The Kluckhohn Model. The Modern Language Journal 75:449-459.

Ortuno, Marian M. 2000. Values and education in the emerging multicultural society: awareness and fairness. IN: In: Kurt W. Russo (Ed.). *Finding the Middle Ground: Insight and Applications of the Value Orientations Method.* pp. 1125-136. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Papajohn, John. and John Spiegel. 1971. The relationship of culture value orientation change and Rorschach indices of psychological development. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology. 2(3):257-272.

Ponce, Danilo E. 1985. Value orientation: Clinical applications in a multi-cultural residential treatment center for children and youth. (Journal of) Residential Group Care and Treatment 2(4):71-83.

Ponce, Danilo E. 2000. Clinical applications of value orientations. In: Kurt W. Russo (Ed.). *Finding the Middle Ground: Insight and Applications of the Value Orientations Method.* pp. 101-108. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Remer, Rory and Pamela A. Remer. 1982. A study of the discrepancies among the value orderings of 12 counseling theories: The value quantification of value differences.

Russo, Kurt W. (Ed.). 2000a. *Finding the middle ground: Insights and applications of the Value Orientations Method.* Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Russo, Kurt W. 2000b. A sharing of subjectivities: the Values Project Northwest, In: In: Kurt W. Russo (Ed.). *Finding the Middle Ground: Insight and Applications of the Value Orientations Method.* pp. 165-177. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Vogt, Evon and Ethel Albert. 1966. *People of Rimrock: A study of values of five cultures.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

LEADERSHIP AND INNOVATION:
CHAMPIONS AND TECHIES AS AGENTS OF INFLUENCE

C. B. Crawford, Ph.D.
Institute of Leadership Studies
Fort Hays State University
Hays KS 67601
ccrawfor@fhsu.edu
(785) 628-4303

A Paper Presented to the Association of Leadership Educators
2001 Conference Review Committee

ABSTRACT

The effects of innovation on leadership abilities have not been widely investigated. Although diffusion of innovation theory has existed for some time, there is a need for other perspectives. In two (N=238, N=294) related studies it was found that innovation, leadership, and influence were related, though specific relationship indicated tendencies toward certain styles of influence. Innovation was significantly related to transformational leadership abilities. Implications emerging from the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation are discussed, including the distinction between the champion and "techie" styles of innovation and their basis in leadership activity

INTRODUCTION

Computerization has changed the way people do their jobs and, even the way people look at work (Kling & Dunlop, 1993). Technological changes have had a major effect on how business is done and on the managerial utilization of communication. Today's organization is different in structure and function due to the integration of new technology. This study explores the process of innovation as an act of leadership, and the subsequent influence required.

Diffusion of Innovation

Communication interfaces have grown faster to meet the needs of communication systems and the growing number of people interested in networking. New technology is different because of the integration of programmable machinery (Sproull & Goodman, 1990). The challenge is the useful harnessing of technology by individuals within a social context for beneficial outcomes (Biocca, 1993). Giacquinta, Bauer, and Levin (1993) indicated that whatever technology is used for, "the attitudes and activities that people need to adopt " (p. 134) are critical elements for innovation to occur. The social component shapes how technology is used; people use new technology in ways that mirror existing purposes. Innovation is planned, executed, and evaluated by people. It is also social, since people rarely adopt without others adopting. Research about innovation assumes that technological innovation occurs within a social context. Innovation is also a natural process; those not adopting technology are in the minority. Technological innovation is studied with a positive bias; progress is positive and reluctance to innovate stops progress. Innovation is universally good (Van de Ven, 1986). The "technological fix" implies technology can solve all social problems. The drive for technology is the fulfillment of a need (Van de Ven, 1986).

Rogers (1983) suggests that innovation is a communication process about something newer or better. Innovation, like communication, is not a one-way linear event. Innovation is relational and dynamic. He defined a range of personal behaviors toward innovation based on a bell-shaped curve. Behavioral categories range from an innovator (at the highly innovative end) to a laggard (at the low innovation end). Rogers (1986) explained that diffusion is the process that communicates an innovation over time among members of a social system. Thus, diffusion of innovation is both a social and individual activity. He theorized that a small number of people innovate very quickly. Next, a substantial number of individuals are early adopters. Early adopters precede the early majority who adopts a little before others in their social network. The next group, on the other side of the mean, is late adopters. Late adopters are still ahead of the final classification, the laggard. Laggards are not interested in integrating new technology. Rogers' theory helps define the range of personal behaviors in relation to innovation. His model is an appropriate foundation for empirical study and gives further basis for the quantification of personal innovativeness.

Innovation and the Modern Organization

Morton (1991) suggested that the marketplace of the 1990s is a turbulent business environment impacted by information technology integration. Information technology is changing the way that work is done, integrating business functions at all levels within and between organizations, causing shifts in the competitive climate in many industries. Cushman and King (1993) stated that the integration of new manufacturing, marketing, and management information technologies contributed to the emergence of the global organization. The high-speed management wave, which began in the high-tech sector, has spread outward.

Hiemstra (1983) suggested that information technology was the central issue for all organizations. Carroll and Prein (1994) noted that computer integration has both positive and negative consequences. Information technology allowed organizations to reassess their missions and operations, change management and organizational structure, and challenge leadership to transform organizations for the future (Morton, 1991). Markus, Bikson, El-Shinnawy, and Soe (1992) indicated that media usage differs by workgroup, people want integration of communication technologies and integration may not lead to seamless collaborative work. Schein (1994a) claimed that information technology impacts the organization's culture and leadership. Furthermore, the culture impacts the structure and processes of the organization, which influence innovation. Innovation is partially mediated by the external constraints on technology. Allen and Hauptman (1994) posited that functional organization is replaced with project organization (teaming). If technology is manageable, people work together for a short time and if there is high interdependence, then project teaming is preferable to functional organizing. Communication and innovation play interdependent roles and communicative coordination should take place in functional or project organizations. Flexible hierarchies will allow organizations to react and adapt. Loveman (1994) suggested that overall productivity has not climbed due to expenditures on information technologies, but the future should yield more efficient use of information technology and a boost in productivity.

Social changes occur when technology is introduced. Employees that were more successful at integrating new technology interacted more frequently, were more communicatively competent, and had better listening abilities (Papa & Tracy, 1988). People who champion innovation tend to be risk takers, use more influence, use a greater variety of influence methods, and they have higher levels of transformational leadership behaviors (Howell & Higgins (1990a). Crowston and Malone (1994) examined personal effects from the introduction of new technology. Increased information technology effects the content and quantity of communication patterns. Individuals using electronic communication channels have lower status differentials than people not using electronic media; using electronic communication media helps remove the occupational role identity and helps people communicate as equals. Recent research on innovation and influence indicated that innovators used no more team or charismatic influence methods than moderate or laggard adopters (Crawford & Strohkirch, 1996; 1997). Innovators did have a higher preference for the use of reward/punishment/ manipulation influence methods.

Historically, innovation research focused more on the process of adoption as the phenomenon of interest. More recent research has been centered on the social implications of innovation. Research from authors like Walther (1994), Howell and Higgins (1990a, 1990b, 1990c), and Rice (1987) suggests that the act of innovating has definite social implications in the personal, organizational, and global context. Given the current social influence direction of modern leadership, it seems reasonable that innovation may be related to transformational leadership qualities.

Transformational Leadership

The original formulation of transformational leadership theory comes from Burns (1978). At the core of transformational leadership is the concept of transformation, or change of the organization. Tichy and Devanna (1986a) noted that companies were being asked to make fundamental changes. Transformational leadership best reflects this change (Bass, 1985).

Burns (1978) defined transformational leadership as a process in which "leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation" (p. 20). A chief element of transformation is the ability to cultivate the needs of the follower in a follower centered (person-centered) manner. According to Burns, focusing on needs makes leaders accountable to the follower. First, Burns contended that followers are driven by a moral need, the need to champion a cause, or the need to take a higher moral stance on an issue. People like to feel that a higher organizational spiritual mission guides their motives. The second need is a paradoxical drive for consistency and conflict. Transforming leaders must help followers make sense out of inconsistency. Conflict is necessary to create alternatives and to make change possible. The process of transformation is empathy, understanding, insight, and consideration; not manipulation, power wielding, or coercion.

Tichy and Devanna (1986a) defined transformation best, "Transformational leadership is about change, innovation, and entrepreneurship" (p. viii). Transformational leadership is a process of micro-level and macro-level influence (Yukl, 1989). At the macro-level, transformational leaders must take charge of the social systems and reform the organization by creating an appropriate power situation. At the micro-level, transformational leaders must attend to the personalities in the organization to facilitate change at an interpersonal level. Tichy and Devanna assumed that transformational leaders begin with a social fabric, disrupt that environment, then recreate the social fabric to better reflect the overall business climate.

According to Bass and Avolio (1994), organizational managers should move toward more transformational leadership behaviors to facilitate a culture that is purposeful, interdependent, and beyond self-interest. Leadership style plays a major role in creating and maintaining the culture. Transforming leadership is based on interaction and influence, not directive power acts (Barker, 1984). Leadership is a social process (not linear), ethically constrained, and emerges from crisis. Leaders are interested in collective results not maximum benefit for individual gain; collective action for collective relief. Leadership must forgo emphasizing productivity and performance and embrace a theory of change centered on human potential, common good, and interaction.

Ray, Ugbah, Brammer, and DeWine (1996) discussed the attributes of maverick leaders: the crucial characteristic was the ability to make change occur. Maverick leaders fight the status quo to test the limits of the environment; helping establish a culture that expects change. Ray et al. (1996) contended that mavericks make innovation occur through several means: total destruction of the old organization, introduce new technology, change the physical structure, restructure departments, or conduct training interventions. Ray et al. (1996) concluded that loose-coupled organizations tended to be more tolerant of innovation and maverick leaders. Since they create a culture of change, maverick leaders often groom other "maverick apprentices" to take their role as surrogate mavericks when the time comes.

Relationship Between Innovation, Transformational Leadership, and Influence

Although much is written about organizational innovation, relatively little addresses the influence of leadership on the design and implementation of information technology (Klenke, 1994). Few researchers address the link between innovation and leadership, and even fewer have explored the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation. Tichy and Devanna (1986b) refer to transformational leaders as change oriented, but they give little attention to the relationship between new technology and transformational leadership. Contractor and Eisenberg (1990) argued that people knowledgeable about the communication network rise faster, but make no mention of the role of innovation and its impact on leadership.

Schein (1994a, 1994b) indicated that cultures could be assessed on their degree of innovativeness. Some cultures are built around information technology. Schein (1994a) hypothesized that organizations innovate to the extent people are proactive, problem oriented, and desire improvement. These characteristics are similar to the attributes of transformational leaders (Tichy & Devanna, 1986b). Schein (1994a) suggested that innovative leaders implement faster under conditions of groupism, collegial or participation, or even authoritarian methods of decision making. Participative leaders use the innovation more appropriately and sensitively. Schein (1994b) concluded that managers who viewed innovation as a method of transformation, and were positively focused on information technology, had more successful transitions.

According to Klenke (1994), information technology and the actions of leaders create new organizational forms. Leadership is at the center of the interaction between task demands, people, technology, and organization structure. The relationship between innovation and leadership is difficult to articulate given the variety of functional leadership behaviors and the range of information technologies. Technology and leadership have reciprocal effects on each other; a change in one leads to a change in the other.

Brown (1994) speculated that transformational leadership is needed in an evolving technological society. We are moving from controlled change to accelerated change nearly beyond control. Both attitude and behavior must be the target of transformational leaders. The primary reason for technological change failure was fear and the role of transformational leaders was to reform fear into motivation. He adopted a framework similar to Schein's (1994a). Transformational leaders must meet market demands faster and better than before, given the increasingly interdependent economy.

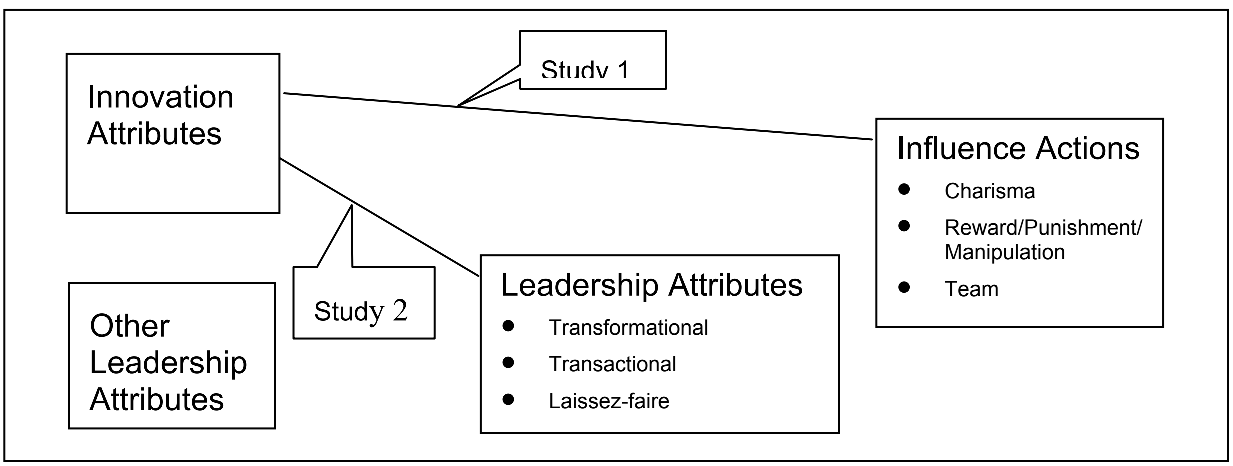
Limited research addressed the relationship between innovation and transformational leadership. Howell and Higgins (1990a, 1990b, 1990c) contended that champions of innovation were significantly more transformational than non-champions. Champions operate in three ways: a rational method that promotes sound decision making based on organizational rules and procedures; a participative process, enlisting others' help to gain approval and implementation of the innovation; go outside the formal channels of bureaucratic rules and engage in the renegade process. Howell and Higgins (1990c) compiled a list of attributes of champions: high self-confidence, persistence, energy, risk taking, credible, and winning. They concluded that champions are found in all organizations and without champions "organizations may have lots of ideas but few tangible innovations" (p. 36). Their research was deficient in the methods used in identifying champion status.

Research Focus

In attempting to understand the fuller relationship between innovation, influence, and leadership one might reason that the leaders' general level of innovation would impact their overall leadership demeanor. The innovation would impact the act of influence through the leader. Thus, innovation is seen as the cognitive aspect of the leadership action, and the resulting manifest behavior would be the overt act of influence. The central focus of the research is the relationship between innovation and influence, and the extent to which leadership impacts that relationship.

Figure 1.

Model of Innovation, Leadership, and Influence



METHODS

Study 1

Subjects. The subject pool came from a university setting consisting of traditional as well as non-traditional students. Of the sample (N=238), 19% were less than 20 years, 70% were between 20 and 29, 6% were 30 to 39 years of age, and the remainder were above 39 years of age. Demographics regarding the work history, the ownership (or use) of a computer, and the connectedness to an internet service provider (ISP) were deemed important to the research. Most respondents (n = 100) indicated that they spend "some, but less than half" of their workday using information technology. Almost 39% said they used information technology more than half of their workday. Most respondents said they had access to a computer at home (n = 162) and most also reported that they had access to a computer at work (n = 124).

Procedure. Subjects were instructed on the nature of the survey battery as well as directions for the timely completion of the surveys. Following administration of the instrument the subjects were debriefed about the nature of the assessment and the outcomes of the assessment. Data analysis ensued.

Instruments. The Acceptance of Technological Innovation survey was developed based on the taxonomy of innovativeness developed by Rogers (1983). Specifically, three questions were asked about each of the levels of innovativeness from innovator to laggard. Three additional questions were included asking subjects about their rejection of innovation for personal or moral/ethical reasons (Gracquinta, et al., 1993). The results of a pilot study (N = 101) indicated weakness in the wording of a few questions. Those revisions were integrated into the final form of the instrument. Since the instrument was designed to measure up to six different categories of innovation, reliability of the overall measure was found to be insufficient ($\alpha = .59$). However, three distinct condensed prederived subscales were assessed for reliability. The innovation subscale was found to be sufficiently reliable ($\alpha = .83$) as well as the laggard subscale ($\alpha = .71$). However, the early and late majority subscale was not highly reliable ($\alpha = .60$). Subjects were then categorized according to the highest mean score on each of the three subscales.

The Assessment of Influence Behaviors was revised to assess attitudes of various forms of organizational influence. Various methods have been employed to assess the use of influence, but this method involved subjects responding to 20 specific influence behaviors. DuBrin (1991) used the "Survey of Influence Tactics" to assess the sex and gender differences among working adults. The DuBrin survey was significantly modified by changing the structure of some of the items and by adding four more items. Following the administration of the revised device (N = 235) the alpha reliability on the overall assessment was satisfactory ($\alpha = .77$). Three specific subscales were examined for alpha reliability: team influence behaviors ($\alpha = .71$), charismatic influence behaviors ($\alpha = .63$), and reward/punishment/manipulation influence behaviors ($\alpha = .70$). Given the early nature of the research the subscale reliabilities were seen as acceptable given the improvement over the pilot and the acceptable overall reliability of the instrument.

Study 2

Subjects. Subjects (N = 294) came from five organizational sources. The organizations have differing primary missions: an educational organization, medical organization, manufacturing organization, automobile sales and service organization, and utility organization. The utility, manufacturing, and medical facility received a full census sampling of all departments and personnel. The educational organization had a full sampling of staff members and several classes were polled as well. The automobile sales organization was based on a sample of approximately 50% of the total staff as determined by the researchers and the automobile liaison.

The median age range was 30 to 39. The sample consisted of 167 females (61.9%) and 103 male respondents (38.1%). Nearly 50% of the sample had some college education. Respondents were asked if they had a computer at work and home, the number of hours spent using their home and work computer, and if they had a recent technological innovation in the workplace. In terms of recent innovation, 161 subjects (60.1%) claimed they recently encountered an innovation (within the last six months) while 107 subjects (39.6%) did not. Sixty eight percent have workplace computers, and 61% have them at home.

Procedure. Organizations with diverse missions were contacted and approval was received before procedural steps involving subjects were taken. Once contacted, organizational liaisons were informed about the instrument, confidentiality, and results of the instrument and were given a copy of the instruments. Following the meeting, the liaison contacted the researcher with a timetable for convenient implementation.

Once the subjects were selected (in those organizations not doing a full sampling) the survey battery was administered either personally or in small group sessions. Upon completion, those subjects that desired were debriefed about the study and their contribution to the study. Following administration of the instrument battery data analysis occurred.

Instruments. Two assessment instruments and limited demographic questions were administered. The first part of the survey battery was the Acceptance of Technological Innovation (Appendix A) instrument reported in the Crawford and Strohkirch (1996, 1997) studies. This instrument consists of 30 items dealing with the adoption of innovative technologies as rated on a five point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Several items were also reverse coded. Prior research found the measure to be reliable and validity emerged from significant correlation to actual media use (Crawford & Strohkirch, 1996, 1997). A pilot test of the actual 30 item report was conducted (N=100) on an unrelated sample finding a strong level of reliability as well (α = .93). For the final project (n = 276) the alpha coefficient of the overall instrument showed it highly reliable (α = .92). The instrument included two six item subscales: one for technological orientation and one considering the ability to influence others about technology. The subscales were also analyzed for reliability with both the technology subscale (α = .77) and the influence subscale (α = .75) showing modest reliability. A factor analysis of the twelve items was performed to check the stability of the factor structure but the results did not confirm the expected factor structure. One item from each of the subscales was dropped based on alpha reliability analysis. The reliability of the revised technology subscale was an improved $\alpha = .82$, and for the revised influence subscale $\alpha = .83$.

The second instrument, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Version 5-S) created by Bass (1985), is a 70 item survey consisting of four subscales of transformational leadership acts (charisma, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspiration), two subscales of transactional leadership acts (contingent reward and management by exception), and one scale measuring laissez-faire leadership. Subject's self-reported specific leadership attributes using five point Likert scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The MLQ has been found to be very reliable (Howell & Higgins, 1990a) as both a self-report measure or as a measure of a superior's performance. In the present application the MLQ was used as a self-report of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership attributes and had an $\alpha = .89$ reliability score which was consistent with prior research. Subscale reliabilities ranged from a of $\alpha = .89$ to $\alpha = .60$.

RESULTS

Study 1

Subjects were classified as innovator, majority adopter, or laggard according to highest score on the three subscales. There were 80 innovators, 148 majority adoptors, and 3 laggards identified in this process.

In terms of the internal reliability of the innovation measure, certain demographics seemed to indicate that the innovation measure was consistent with specific behaviors indicative of innovation. Subjects reporting that they used information technology were more likely to be innovators than those reporting they used very little information technology ($F = 5.601$; $df = 3, 225$; $p = .001$). Subjects indicating that they had unrestricted access to a home personal computer were more likely to be innovators too ($F = 10.313$; $df = 1, 224$; $p = .002$). Respondents reporting the use of electronic mail or internet service provider ($F = 3.85$, $df = 1, 225$; $p = .05$) were more innovative.

The relationship between innovativeness and influence methods was mixed. The level of innovativeness had no effect on the subjects level of charisma ($F = .253$; $df = 2, 224$; ns) and on team level of influence ($F = .037$; $df = 2, 226$; ns). However, for the reward/punishment/manipulation variable there were significant differences ($F = 3.962$; $df = 2, 224$; $p = .02$) dependent on innovativeness. Innovators had the highest mean score for the variable, majority adopters had the next highest level, and laggards had the lowest mean score for the use of reward/punishment/ manipulation influence behaviors.

Study 2

Table 1 displays the correlations for the scales and subscales of innovation and leadership ability.

Table 1

Correlations between Innovation and Leadership Abilities

Leadership Variable	Innovation Scale	Influence Subscale	Technology Subscale
Transformational Scale	* r = 48, p = .001	* r = .55, p = .001	* r = .43, p = .001
Charisma Subscale	* r = .34, p = .001	* r = .44, p = .001	* r = .35, p = .001
Individual Consideration Subscale	* r = .34, p = .001	* r = .42, p = .001	* r = .29, p = .001
Intellectual Stimulation Subscale	* r = .43, p = .001	* r = .46, p = .001	* r = .37, p = .001
Inspiration Subscale	* r = .36, p = .001	* r = .41, p = .001	* r = .36, p = .001
Transactional Scale	r = .11, p = .150	r = .14, p = .055	* r = .16, p = .025
Contingent Reward Subscale	* r = .30, p = .001	* r = .32, p = .001	* r = .28, p = .001
Management by Exception Subscale	* r = -.15, p = .026	* r = -.14, p = .04	r = -.05, p = .479
Laissez-faire Scale	*r = -.25, p = .001	* r = -.22, p = .001	* r = -.18, p = .005

* indicates significance at standard criterion level for two-tailed test

The correlation matrix displayed in Table 1 suggests that there is a strong relationship between transformational leadership (and subscales) and innovation generally, the technical aspect of innovation, as well as the influence aspect of innovation. The correlation between the overall transformational leadership scale and innovation is a highly significant r = .48, for the technology subscale the correlation is a strong r = .43, and for the technology subscale the correlation is highly significant with an r = .55 value. All of the correlations were positive providing support for H_1, H_{1a}, and H_{1d}. Furthermore, the relationship between the transactional leadership scale and innovation can be understood in light of the correlations listed in Table 4. Transactional leadership was not related to the overall measure of innovation or the influence subscale, but was unexpectedly related to the technology subscale. This finding is further complicated by the fact that the contingent reward factor was correlated, fairly significantly, to all three innovation variables. Management by exception was correlated to both the innovation scale as well as the influence subscale. These findings provided little support for retaining H_{1b} and H_{1e}. Finally, the relationship between the laissez-faire leadership scale and innovation was significantly negative as evidenced by the negative correlations ranging from r = -.25 (p = .001) to r = -.18 (p = .005).

Regression analyses were performed to determine levels of shared variance between innovation and leadership. The influence and technology subscales were entered into a regression model to measure their effects on transformational leadership.

The innovation and technology factors of innovation accounted for a highly significant 30.8% of the variance of transformational leadership (F = 43.75, df = 2, 196; p = .0001). The overall innovation measure was also entered into a regression model finding 23% of the variance of transformational leadership explained (F = 55.50, df = 1, 188, p = .0001). In terms of the shared variance with transactional leadership, neither the overall innovation measure (F = 2.09, ns) or the influence and technology subscales (F = 2.69, ns) were predictive. For laissez-faire leadership, the overall innovation measure was significantly predictive (F = 14.45; df = 1, 220; p = .0002) accounting for 6% of the variance of laissez-faire leadership. The influence and technology subscales were also significantly predictive of laissez-faire leadership (F = 6.31; df = 2, 231; p = .002) accounting for over 5.2% of the variance of laissez-faire leadership. The negative correlations indicate that as innovation goes up, the level of laissez-faire leadership diminishes providing support for H_1 (innovation is positively related to transformational leadership abilities. Overall, these results demonstrate a link between innovation and transformational leadership abilities.

DISCUSSION

Our most notable finding regarding innovation centers on the relationship between innovation and transformational leadership. These results demonstrate a strong relationship between transformational leadership and innovation. In addition, the technology and influence subscales were strongly related to transformational leadership suggesting that transformation has both elements as well as the gestalt of innovation. Furthermore, transactional leadership was not significantly related to innovation, though the contingent reward element was significant across both innovation subscales as well as the overall measure. Finally, the laissez-faire subscale had a significant negative relationship to innovation. Among the most striking of the results is that 30% of the variance of transformational leadership was accounted for by the technology and influence subscale; 23% was accounted for by the overall innovation measure. For the laissez-faire measure, 6% of the variance was accounted for by overall measure, and 4% by the technology and influence subscales. These findings are significant and provide basis for further theorization on the relationship between leadership and innovation.

Prior research has established the link between transformation and champions of innovation (Howell & Higgins, 1990a, 1990b, 1990c), but little research focused on either the non-champion technocrat or the innovator without a upper-level organizational title. There is good reason for the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation. Innovation shares one major characteristic with transformational leadership - change. The basic concept that underlies transformational leadership is the ability to change the current - transcend the present - to achieve a higher plane of leadership. The concept of transformation is very similar to innovation, although change is largely assumed in the innovation and technology literature. Innovation is the process of adaptation to the changing technical environment. This also requires change. Thus the relationship between these elements is not accidental or contrived. Innovators at all levels are interested in change.

The negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership and innovation is also parsimonious. Laissez-faire leaders, as the opposite of transformational leaders in Bass' (1985) definition, are stuck in the status quo. Laissez-faire means literally "leave it be", and these leaders resist change as a threat to status quo homeostasis. Given that innovation seeks to change the current state it makes sense that there would be either no relationship or a negative relationship with laissez-faire leadership. This study found that laissez-faire leadership is negatively associated with innovation. If managers are laissez-faire, then they are not interested in bringing innovation into the organizational context.

Transactional leadership, which was not significantly associated with innovation or the two subscales, is the quest for mediocrity through management. A key element of transactional leadership is the "quid pro quo" mentality (i.e., if the workers produce then they will be rewarded, if they do not then rewards will be less). Transaction produces a less enlightened organization, members worry about how others can benefit them rather than how they can benefit the organization and achieve better results. Bass (1985) and Burns (1978) argued that the transactional state of leadership is immature and should be pushed aside; other methods (transformational leadership) produce more effective results. In this study there was no link between innovation and transactional leadership as expected, but there was a correlation with contingent reward, one aspect of transactional leadership. Contingent reward is strikingly similar to the reward/ punishment/manipulation influence method isolated by Crawford and Strohkirch (1997). Innovators use this less than mature form of leadership to elicit action on the part of others. The longer the innovation takes the further behind the organization will be. Perhaps the perception is that a more direct method (like contingent reward or reward/punishment /manipulation influence) will produce results faster. A second alternative is that direct methods are fallback positions, perhaps innovators feel pressure to use methods that are proven though less effective. Whatever the motive, innovators have a "dark side" when it comes to influencing others. This non-person centered, non-transformational side should be more thoroughly investigated.

Given the strength of correlation between innovation and transformational leadership, there is ample evidence to suggest that innovation and transformation share common features. Though not the same, transformational individuals are likely to also be highly innovative. This finding has serious implications for modern organizations as innovation and transformation are elements they might want to encourage. In the computer age, many organizations probably want to lead the innovation curve, or at least, not be lagging on the innovation cycle. Transformational leadership should be the path utilized for innovative results. If organizations want to be on the slower end of the innovation curve, then leaders that are highly transformational may not fit the culture since they may force innovation. A similar implication results from the interrelationship between transactional and laissez-faire leadership and innovation. Given that laissez-faire leadership and innovation are moderately negatively correlated, then innovative organizational cultures should avoid laissez-faire leadership. Furthermore, since transactional leadership was not related to innovation then innovation effects stemming from transactional leadership have not been sufficiently documented. Contingent reward behaviors and innovation, however, were moderately correlated. One may expect innovators to use transformational leadership behaviors as well as contingent reward behaviors to achieve results.

Application of Current Findings to Innovation Research

First, this research extended the work of innovation researchers like Rogers (1983, 1986) and Giacquinta et al. (1993), producing needed empirical evidence that diffusion of innovation is a real phenomenon. Furthermore, this research contextualized innovation within organizations. Little empirical organizational research delineates the process of innovation in organizations, let alone the personal differences that make innovation possible or unlikely. This research also supports the research of Rice (1987), Fulk (1993), and Markus et al. (1992) who suggested that innovation is a function of the social network, technology is simply interjected but the change comes from the adaption to technology. It is important to consider that innovators use different leadership methods, which implies using different methods to influence others (Crawford & Strohkirch; 1996, 1997).

A few cautions seem necessary. First, those "with" advanced leadership skills innovate; those "without" are relegated to a subsidiary status in the acquisition and use of technology. Some are limited by their ability to purchase and use technology. People who do not see the application of technology (for whatever reason) or those who are not able to acquire and hone their leadership skills suffer. As a social condition, there must be more discussion over the process of innovation and how or why people are left out of the innovation process.

Furthermore, Beniger (1990) and Weick (1990) reasoned that technology and technical systems differ. Technology is the machinery and tools, but technical systems are human creations for purposes. These technical systems are created to reflect the worldview of their creator. Again, the issue of adopters and laggards emerges, but this time it occurs in the organization. Other authors (Schein, 1994a) posit that innovators and leaders have great control over the culture. When the conditions created by the technical system are imposed on the culture, there could be conditions of excessive control occurring.

Profiles of Innovators: Champions and "Techies"

The two innovation subscales were included to determine if people higher in technological focus or more able to influence others about innovation were different. When significant findings for the main innovation measure occurred, they also did for the subscales. The results can potentially support that these are discrete innovator profile types, and some conclusions regarding each type of innovator can be advanced.

The "champion" of innovation, as described by Howell and Higgins (1990a, 1990b, 1990c) is transformational in nature and seeks to innovate through the infusion of new technology. The champion uses direct means of influence, but is transformative, not manipulative or transactional. Behaviors of the champion make this person very similar to the Ray et al. (1996) maverick leader. The maverick leader seeks to tear down the old structure and rebuild with innovation; the defining part of mavericks is the ability to innovate and to change the organization. Our research supports the findings of Howell and Higgins as well as Ray et al. in suggesting that champions or mavericks exist. The influence subscale captures the essence of what makes champions and mavericks successful - influence. These types succeed only because of the change they promote in an organization. This change, or transformation, occurs because the influence innovator has the ability to make people understand that they can overcome the inertia of the status quo.

The "techie" innovator, as measured through a subscale of the innovation measure, was envisioned as a person that understands more about technology than the average person. Although contemporary wisdom suggests that this personality type exists, we were not able to detect much difference between the "techie" and the innovator. There is a part of the innovator that uses the reward/punishment/ manipulation influence strategies. It should be expected that the "techie" would use less person-centered means to influence change. The use of direct means is not uncommon and has been found before. Whether this direct and impersonal influence method is an absolute indicator and predictor of being a "techie", unfortunately, is beyond the scope of this research.

Concluding Remarks

Cushman and King (1993) and Morton (1991) saw the importance of information technology in the global business environment. Innovation is, and will be, central to doing business. Kling and Dunlop (1993) note the impact to the changing business environment - computers change our jobs and how we look at business, perhaps even the way we look at out personal and social lives. As the business environment seeks more efficiency from innovation (Loveman, 1994), the effects of innovation will be more obvious. Rogers (1983) asserted that innovation goes on all the time in organizations, but only effective organizations use the process of innovation and the resulting effects. A fuller understanding of innovation process is needed. This research has attempted to highlight the importance of an examination of innovation in terms of transformational leadership ability.

REFERENCES

Allen, T. J., & Hauptman, O. (1994). The influence of communication technologies on organizational structure: A conceptual model for future research. In T. J. Allen & M. S. S. Morton (Eds.). Information technologies and the corporation of the 1990s: Research studies. New York: Oxford University Press.

Barker, R. A. (1994). The rethinking of leadership. Journal of Leadership Studies, 1(2), 46-54.

Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership and performance beyond expectations. New York: Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. Organizational Dynamics, 18, 19-31.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). Transformational leadership and organizational culture. International Journal of Public Administration, 17(3), 541-554.

Beniger, J. R. (1990). Conceptualizing information technology as organizational, and vice versa. In J. Fulk & C. Steinfield (Eds.) Organizations and communication technology. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Biocca, F. (1993). Communication research in the design of communication interfaces and systems. Journal of Communication, 43(4), 59-69.

Brown, A. D. (1994). Transformational leadership in tackling technical change. Journal of General Management, 19(4), 1-12.

Burns, J. M. (1978). Leadership. New York: Harper and Row.

Carroll, J. S., & Perin, C. (1994). How expectations about microcomputers influence their organizational consequences. In T. J. Allen & M. S. S. Morton (Eds.). Information technologies and the corporation of the 1990s: Research studies. New York: Oxford University Press

Contractor, N. S. & Eisenberg, E. M. (1990). Communication networks and new media in organizations. In J. Fulk and C. Steinfield (Eds.), Organizations and communication technology. Newbury Park: CA: Sage.

Crawford, C. B., & Strohkirch, C. S. (1996). Cognitive differentiation and influence tactics of technological innovators: Preliminary findings. A Paper Presented to the Speech Communication Association - Puerto Rico Annual Convention, San Juan, PR.

Crawford, C. B.,& Strohkirch, C. S. (1997). Influence tactics and technological innovation: Technocrats and champions. Journal of Leadership Studies, 4 (2), 43-54.

Crowston, K., & Malone, T. W. (1994). Information technology and work organization. In T.J. Allen and M.S.S. Morton (Eds.) Information technologies and the corporation of the 1990s: Research studies. New York: Oxford University Press.

Cushman, D. P., & King, S. S. (1993). High-speed management; A revolution in organizational communication in the 1990s. Communication Yearbook, 16, 209-236.

DuBrin, A. J. (1995). Leadership: Research findings, practice, and skills. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Fulk, J. (1993). Social construction of communication technology. Academy of Management Journal, 36 (5), 921-950.

Giacquinta, J. B., Bauer, J., & Lewin, J. E. (1993). Beyond technology's promise: An examination of children's educational computing at home. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Goodman, P. S., Griffith, T. L., & Fenner, D. B. (1990). Understanding technology and the individual in an organizational context. In P. S. Goodman, L. S. Sproull, and Associates (Eds.), Technology and organizations. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Howell, J. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1995). Charismatic leadership: Submission or liberation? Business Quarterly, 60 (1), 62-70.

Howell, J. M., & Higgins, C. A. (1990a). Champions of technological innovation. Administrative Science Quarterly, 35, 317-341.

Howell, J. M., & Higgins, C. A. (1990b). Champions of change: Identifying, understanding, and supporting champions of technological innovation. Organizational Dynamics, 19, 40 - 55.

Howell, J. M. & Higgins, C. A. (1990c). Champions of change. Business Quarterly, 54 (4), 31-36.

Klenke, K. (1994). Information technologies as drivers of emergent organizational forms: A leadership perspective. In R. Baskerville, S. Smithson, O. Ngwenyama, and J.I. DeGross (Eds.) Transforming organizations with information technology. North Holland: Elsevier Science B. V.

Kling, R., & Dunlop, C. (1993). Controversies about computerization and the character of white collar worklife. The Information Society, 9, 1-29.

Loveman, G. W. (1994). An assessment of the productivity impact of information technologies. In T. J. Allen & M. S. S. Morton (Eds.) Information technologies and the corporation of the 1990s: Research studies. New York: Oxford University Press.

Marcus, M. L., Bikson, T. K., El-Shinnawy, M., Soe, L. L. (1992). Fragments of your communication: Email, vmail, and fax. The Information Society, 8, 207-226.

Morton, M. S. Scott (1991). Introduction. In M. S. Scott Morton (Ed.), The corporation of the 1990s. New York: Oxford University Press.

Papa, M. J., & Tracy, K. (1988). Communicative indices of employee performance with new technology. Communication Research, 15 (5), 524-544.

Ray, R. G., Ugbah, S. D., Brammer, C., & DeWine, S. (1996). Communication behaviors, innovation, and the maverick leader. Journal of Leadership Studies, 3 (3), 20-30.

Rice, R. E. (1987). Computer-mediated communication and organizational innovation. Journal of Communication, 37 (4), 65-94.

Rogers, E. M. (1983). Diffusion of innovations. New York: Free Press.

Rogers, E. M. (1986). Communication technology: The new media in society. New York: Free Press.

Schein, E. H. (1994a). Innovative cultures and organizations. In T. J. Allen & M.

S .S. Morton (Eds.) Information technologies and the corporation of the 1990s: Research studies. New York: Oxford University Press.

Schein, E. H. (1994b). The role of the CEO in the management of change: The case of information technology. In T. J. Allen & M. S. S. Morton (Eds.) Information technologies and the corporation of the 1990s: Research studies. New York: Oxford University Press.

Sproull, L. S., & Goodman, P. S. (1990). Technology and organizations: Integration and opportunities. In P. S. Goodman, L. S. Sproull, and Associates (Eds.), Technology and organizations. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Tichy, N. M., & Devanna, M. A. (1986a). The transformational leader. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Tichy, N. M., & Devanna, M. A. (1986b). The transformational leader. Training and Development Journal, 40 (7), 27-32.

Van de Ven, A. (1986). Central problems in the management of innovation. Management Science, 32 (5), 590-607.

Walther, J. B. (1994). Anticipated ongoing interaction versus channel effects on relational communication in computer-mediated communication. Human Communication Research, 20 (4), 473-501.

Weick, K. E. (1990). Technology as equivoque: Sensemaking in new technologies. In P. S. Goodman, L. S. Sproull, and Associates (Eds.). Technology and organizations. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Yukl, G. A. (1989). Leadership in organizations. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

The Perception of Leadership from Students in Three Curricular Areas

Micol R. C. Maughan Ph.D.
Assistant Professor of Business Administration and Leadership Studies

Address: Micol R. C. Maughan, Ph.D.
Dept. of Business Administration
Fort Hays State University
600 Park Street
Hays, KS 67601

E-mail address:mmaughan@fhsu.edu

Phone Number: (785) 628-4102

Primary contact person: Micol Maughan

Goals of the presentation: To report the findings of a study that was conducted to examine any differences in the perception of students who were finishing a course of study in leadership and those of students from two other curricular areas, business and liberal studies.

Outline: Three experimental groups were created by selecting students from three curricular areas, 1) students finishing a course of study in our Leadership Studies Program, 2) students majoring in business but not taking course work in Leadership Studies and 3) students majoring in traditional liberal studies i.e. history, english, or philosophy**.** Each participant completed an instrument with a target word at the top and related words listed below. For each of the words there was a ten point scale for the subject to indicate the degree that they felt the word related to the target word at the top of the page. A sample of the related words is power, control, collaboration, organized, teams, etc. The results will be summarized with descriptive statistics.

Time requirements: 20 -30 minutes

Affiliated costs: none

Title of Presentation – FISH

***Robin A. Orr
520 Bevier Hall, 905 S. Goodwin
Urbana, IL 61801
217/244-2855
217/244-2861 fax
r-orr@uiuc.edu

Karen L. Zotz
311 Morrill Hall, P.O. Box 5437
Fargo, ND 58105-5437
701/231-9688
701/231-8378
hdfndir@ndsu.nokak.edu

Goals and Objectives of the Presentation

1. To introduce audience to FISH
2. To provide a setting for how to best use the material
3. To have fun, make their day, be there and choose your attitude

Brief Outline of Presentation, including how the presentation will relate to the conference theme
FISH – Catch the Energy, Release the potential.
In the next five years, leadership will change more than it ever has at anytime in the past. With a shrinking workforce, it is crucial to all workplaces that they hire and retain the best people. Making the worksite a stimulating place to work is crucial to this effort. The FISH video illustrates one way to achieve that end. In addition, FISH STICKS focuses on committing to, being and coaching to a common vision. The energy that results takes the audience on an odyssey from which they will not go back.

Time Requirements – Depending on what the committee wants we can do an intro to this whole process in 30-45 minutes or we can do the actual process in 90 minutes.

Affiliated Cost(s) – we will need something that plays and shows a videotape. If we do the 90-minute program, the cost is $5.00 per person for play books.

PROPOSAL FOR 2001 ANNUAL MEETING
THE ASSOCIATION OF LEADERSHIP EDUCATORS
Conference Theme: *A Leadership Odyssey!*
July 19-21, 2001
Crowne Plaza Northstar Hotel, Minneapolis, Minnesota

TITLE

"Linking Leadership Theory and Practice: The Class Project"

AUTHOR AND AFFILIATION
Gerri Perreault, Ph.D.
Director of Leadership Studies, University of Northern Iowa

ADDRESS

Address: Home: 3102 Hiawatha Road, Cedar Falls, IA 50613

Phones: Office 319-273-6898
Home: 319-268-0936
Fax: 319-273-5832
E-mail: Geraldine.Perreault@UNI.edu

FORMAT PREFERENCE
Paper--alone or on panel is fine.

ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PROPOSED SESSION
"Linking Leadership Theory and Practice: The Class Project"

INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE

The purpose of this session is to provide theoretical and practical information on implementing an all-class project in a for-credit leadership course.

CONTEXT OF PROJECT

The class project is used in a 3-credit leadership course composed of 20 students from first year through senior year and from a wide range of majors and, often, ages. The course counts as one of the requirements for the minor in leadership studies.

The class project was initiated because of the difficulty of teaching leadership to students who have very limited leadership experiences. Most have had no experience beyond family and formal education.

DESCRIPTION

The class project involves students as a group in a project that integrates academic content about leadership with practical experience. The project has the following goals:

(1) to enhance student ability to learn academic content and

(2) to build experiences toward a leadership internship for students enrolled in the minor in leadership studies.

Students have control of the project from beginning to end. They select the project topic (for example, parking on campus), research the issue, determine who needed to be contacted, etc.

The session at the conference will provide theoretical and pedagogical information on the project. Specifically it will include the following elements:

- The instructor goals for the project
- The two conceptual frameworks used
  (one for leadership content and one for pedagogy; the latter was an expanded version of Kolb's experiential learning cycle)
- Reflective learning strategies, including weekly "Project Reflection Reports"
- Strategies for handling diverse views, styles, personalities, etc.
- Examples of how project activities and classroom content were integrated
- Pitfalls to avoid and recommendations for educators who might want to do similar projects

The class project has been an immense success. It has brought to life the material students were reading, provided information about themselves as leaders, and gave them experience in "doing" leadership. In addition, the project built an esprit-de-corps among class members.

Interest in experiential learning is making a resurgence, yet many faculty are skeptical that the quality of academic learning can be maintained. The experience with this project demonstrated that standards of academic quality can be not only maintained but <u>enhanced</u>. The goals of helping students learn the academic content and build their experience base were achieved <u>beyond expectations</u>, as reflected in students' written work and in their participation in class. In addition, on student evaluations, all students rated the class project highly and said it should be continued in future classes.

<u>RELEVANCE FOR CONFERENCE PARTICIPANTS</u>

Will assist participants who wish to use experiential learning in a leadership class with a diverse group of students.

PROPOSAL FOR 2001 ANNUAL MEETING
THE ASSOCIATION OF LEADERSHIP EDUCATORS
Conference Theme: *A Leadership Odyssey!*
July 19-21, 2001
Crowne Plaza Northstar Hotel, Minneapolis, Minnesota

TITLE

"LEADERSHIP AND SELF-KNOWLEDGE"

AUTHOR AND AFFILIATION
Gerri Perreault, Ph.D.
Director of Leadership Studies, University of Northern Iowa

ADDRESS

Address: Home: 3102 Hiawatha Road, Cedar Falls, IA 50613

Phones: Office 319-273-6898 Home: 319-268-0936
Fax: 319-273-5832
E-mail: Geraldine.Perreault@UNI.edu

FORMAT PREFERENCE
Paper--alone or on panel is fine.

ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PROPOSED SESSION
Leadership and Self-Knowledge

Self-knowledge is critically important for leaders (and for followers). That leaders need self knowledge is viewed as a given by both scholars and practitioners. In fact, a standard piece of advice given to aspiring leaders by both scholars and practitioners of leadership is "know yourself."

Knowing oneself is a life-long process that is never finished. Leaders need to know a number of things about themselves, including the following:

- their assumptions
- their passions
- their limitations
- their skills
- their values (what they stand for)
- their vision of how things ought to be
- their shadow side
- what they don't know

In educating students for leadership, instructors need to be able to raise students' self-knowledge. This presentation has the following goals:

1. Raise awareness of the importance of self-knowledge, including knowledge of one's shadow side.

2. Describe the Johari Window as a helpful tool in helping students recognize they need to work on self-knowledge. The Johari Window has four quadrants composed of known to self, not known to self, known to others, and not known to others.

3. Describe and discuss seven ways to obtain self-knowledge. This will include discussion of the qualities needed to do so (e.g., humility).

4. Discuss the relevance of self-knowledge for issues of diversity (in the broadest sense of the term).

RELEVANCE FOR CONFERENCE PARTICIPANTS

Participants will obtain theoretical and practical strategies for working with students on self-knowledge. Relevance to the conference theme of diversity includes the importance of identifying one's perspectives and values regarding diversity (unfortunately, many students believe they have no biases regarding issues of race and sex!!!!) as well as the experience of diverse views and cultures as a means to self-knowledge for oneself.

<u>Different Paths for Leadership</u>

Robin Pritts, CPA – Able Pathways Consulting
311 Primrose Ct.
Aurora, IL 60504
PH: (630)-499-1268
Rpritts@aol.com

Main Contact: Robin Pritts

Goals and Objectives:

<u>Objectives:</u>
- Give the participants a better understanding of attitudes and how to shape them in hard times.
- Help participants to realize barriers and obstacles that may exist and how they relate to leadership.
- Discuss and understand different disabilities and other minority stereotyping.

<u>Goals:</u>
- To gain a better understanding of diversity and how this effects leadership
- Start the processes of reframing negative attitudes to improve leadership.
- Understand and define barriers and obstacles and find different avenues to achieving individual goals.

Brief Outline of Presentation, including how the presentation will relate to the conference theme

I share about my life growing up with a disability. Focusing on key points including, attempts to hold me back from junior high to my graduation from a top university. I share the experience of being let go from my first career position. The presentation centers on how each person can grow from my experiences and how they can apply it to their lives, to the development of their leadership skills and, to the education of future leaders.

The presentation is focused on the conference theme of diversity and it's effects on leadership.

Time Requirements: 1 Hour

Affiliated Cost(s): None

Leadership Education and Outreach in a Digital Environment: Lessons Learned, New Tools, Next Steps

Name and Titles of Presenters:

Anne Heinze Silvis*
222 Bevier Hall
905 S. Goodwin Ave.
Urbana, IL 61801
a-silvis@uiuc.edu
217.333.5126
217.244.7877 *fax*
*contact person

Ben Mueller
535 Bevier Hall
905 S. Goodwin Ave.
Urbana, IL 61801
bmueller@uiuc.edu
217.244.2463
217.244.2881 *fax*

Dale Montanelli
274 Bevier Hall
905 S. Goodwin Ave.
Urbana, IL 61801
montanel@uiuc.edu
217.333.6366
217.244.7877 *fax*

Goals and Objectives of the Presentation:
This presentation is designed to help participants understand a development process used to transform traditional leadership educational tools and experiences into resources for the digital age. The project relegated technology to a service role; that is, technology was used only when it served the goals of the educational process. Participants will learn about how digital tools might be designed and formatted, and how to identify and target appropriate audiences. Participants will have a chance to see and use on-line tools that might supplement their own leadership programs.

The Presentation:
1. **Introduction:** The presentation is based upon work conducted at the University of Illinois, funded by that institution and by the W.K. Kellogg Foundation. In this final year of funding, the project team will share insights, strategies and tactics that have been useful in developing digital tools based upon traditional educational experiences. They will discuss ways that technology did and did not work well in enhancing learning; and showcase materials that are available to educators.
2. **Three types of audiences for digital tools:** We will describe three types of audiences that have shown interest in using digital tools to enhance their leadership learning. Each audience has its own strengths and weaknesses, its own preferences for learning. We will discuss each and describe how the educational program can be tailored to the audience needs.
3. **Strategies for self learning:** Because more and more people are interested in learning on their own, probably on-line, we must create learning opportunities for them where they are, when they are ready to learn. Creating digital tools is one way to provide educational opportunities in a changing environment. Our audiences are becoming broader and more diverse; we may interact with learners from any age group, from anywhere around the globe. How will our educational programs address these vast differences in audience? How will we enable people to learn on their own terms, but interact with their fellow learners? Technology can serve some of these objectives.
4. **Demonstrations of tools**: Participants will use interactive, computer-based programs as they work through several educational programs such as managing conflict and conducting community needs and resource assessments. These tools will be available to them via the web when they return home. Participants will provide feedback about the usefulness of the tools and contribute to the evaluation.

5. **Next Steps**: When digital tools are used, evaluation becomes complicated. The content must be evaluated separately from the format. We will discuss strategies to conduct meaningful evaluations when new formats are used.

Descriptive Sentence for Program Book:
This presentation is designed to help participants understand a development process used to transform traditional leadership educational tools and experiences into resources for the digital age.

Time Required:
This program is a workshop that will require approximately 90 minutes.

Affiliated Costs:
Presenters will provide materials for the presentation.

ALE Paper

Title: Terra Incognita: An Exploration of Leadership Skills, Public Issues, and Program Evaluation

This paper explores the similarities and differences in evaluation of leadership/public issues education programs in contrast to and programs that provide specific subject matter information. Use of the Program Logic Model for effective evaluation of leadership education programs targeted to addressing community issues is discussed. An illustration of participative evaluation planning through the use of a futures wheels diagram is presented. This paper is the basis for group discussion and planning, rather than describing a completed study. The questions and process are derived as part of a larger program of the Kansas State Research and Extension Developing Effective Leadership (DEL) team.

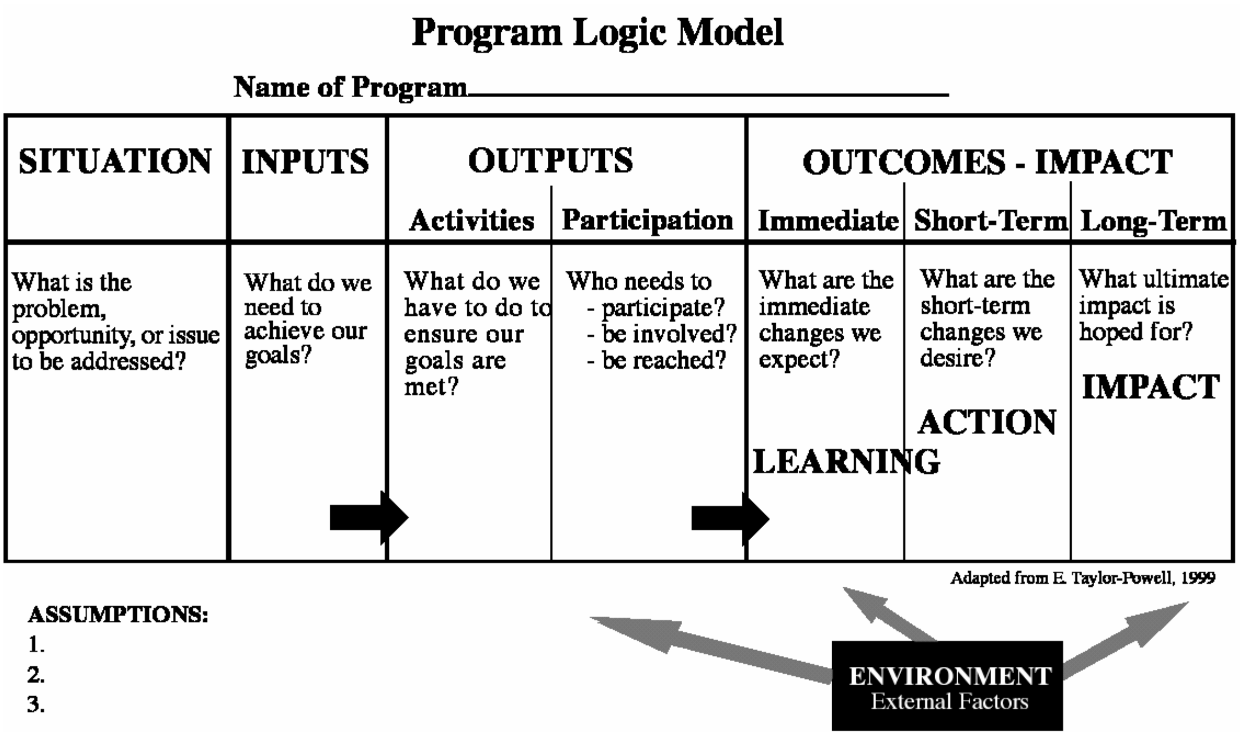
The Evaluation "Journey"

The journey begins with the distinguishing between the total program planning process and the evaluation planning, which is one part of the overall process. The focus here is on evaluation. Evaluation is becoming an increasingly critical component in program development. Documentation of program accomplishments is essential to meeting accountability requirements as well as program management needs. The planning process represents a journey that considers questions such as:

- What are the goals of the program?
- What are the expected outcomes of the program?
- How can they be measured?
- Who is likely to need information from or about the activity, and what do they need to know?
- Why do they need to know? (i.e., how will they use the information if they have it?)
- When do they need it?
- How accurate must it be?
- When and how should data be collected and analyzed?
- Who is responsible for what?
- What resources are available?

Evaluability Assessment

Evaluability assessment is a preliminary process to program evaluation—asking simply if there is a true program that can and should be evaluated? (M. F. Smith, 1989) At this point, the educator must determine which parts of the total program fit an evaluability criterion. In the leadership development arena, there are often many fragments and parts of programs, as well as the invisible work of coaching, mentoring, and supporting, to be considered in addition to more focused endeavors.



The Program Logic Model, like similar program development models, involves consideration of the situation and the goals. In simple terms, what is the problem, opportunity, or issue to be addressed.
An audience is identified—who has the problem or will be involved in the solution? The goal of the education program is not to specify a pre-selected resolution of the problem or issues. Rather, the goals might include an increase in knowledge or skills that result in more informed decisions.

A key feature of the Logic Model is linking of program design and evaluation. A sequential and logical connection between inputs and outputs or outcomes must be developed. This process is complicated when dealing with leadership and public issues education programming which do not have one single “best” answer or recommended behavior change. Group or public choices involve consequences (advantages and disadvantages) which are not the same for different individuals or groups of people.

The initial planning focus is often on goals: What are the immediate changes we expect? What are the short term changes we wish to occur? What ultimate impact is desired? These goals should be drawn from an initial assessment of the situation—problems and opportunities. Clientele or stakeholder participation is vital at this early stage.

The next questions asked involves resources. What is needed (inputs) to accomplish the goals? How will we know when they have been met? Resources must be made available for both the implementation of the program and evaluating and sharing the results.

Inputs include:

- the resources (staff, volunteers, time, money, materials, equipment, collaborators, technology) that are needed to conduct the program;
- details of activities and time lines; and
- the characteristics and numbers of the targeted participants.

Outcomes are identified as:

- learning (awareness, attitudes, skills, aspirations),
- action (behavior, practice, decisions, policies, social action), and
- impact (the economic, environmental, and/or social difference that the program makes in people's lives). (Susan J. Barkman, 1999)

Data Collection and Measurement

Indicators are specified to determine if the outcomes have been achieved. Outcome indicators must be observable, reliable, valid, and measurable. (National Public Policy Education Pre-conference Workshop, 1998) In the case of many leadership and public issues programs, there are process outcomes and product or result outcomes. Doing nothing (maintaining the status quo) is a feasible outcome if this choice is based on informed decision making.

Data may be collected from a variety of sources in addition to participant responses. Observation, program case studies, employer/sponsor reactions, are possibilities. Dollar values and some other types of quantitative measures may be difficult or invalid. More is not always better. Assumptions about linkages or conditions can be specified "Best practices" as a way of specifying and strengthening these linkages is currently being explored. (North Central Extension Leadership Development Work Group, 2001)

External factors that may influence the situation and environment can also be identified. This is often a critical factor for programs dealing with controversial issues, where there is no clear or right solution implied. More informed decision making, rather than a particular policy choice, is a typical goal/outcome. The role of external factors is closely related to the rather unique features of leadership public issues programming.

Unique Features

Leadership/Public Issues programs have some unique features:
- Public issues are not individual practices subject to prescriptions;
- There are multiple perceptions of what is good or bad, of what is a cost and what is a benefit—thus we stress consequences;
- Time frames are unpredictable;
- Dealing with shifting partners and players;
- Difficult to specify outcomes ahead of time;
- Controversy involves the issues, actions and outcomes;
- Often difficult to attribute impact to one person or action;
- What facilitator/educators do is often not widely understood; and
- Facilitators help the group through a process, not by advocating a particular outcome.

These unique features include both process and product. Ethical decision-making is also an important feature of the educational program.

Process outcomes may be categorized as fact based information, provision of tools and skills, facilitation, conflict resolution, expanding the set of alternatives, analysis of the consequences of alternatives, conflict management and resolution, and influencing public decisions.

Products or outcomes include appreciation of values, increasingly shared perceptions, participatory cooperation, a more informed decision process, and enhanced probability of successful policy implementation.

The logic model also provides for specification of key assumptions. In the Kansas DEL program, leadership as the process of people working together to achieve mutual goals is an essential point. In applying leadership skills to public issues, we follow the Jeffersonian democracy principle, that citizens make the best decisions when they have the knowledge and skills needed to make informed decisions. This paradigm is very different from viewing leadership in the expert, hierarchical mode. As leadership educators, our challenge is to help members of our communities to meet the opportunities and issues of our changing world, rather than advocating particular solutions.

Examples

Some examples of evaluation methodology from the Kansas DEL program and findings from several public issues education programs were shared as the basis for group discussion.

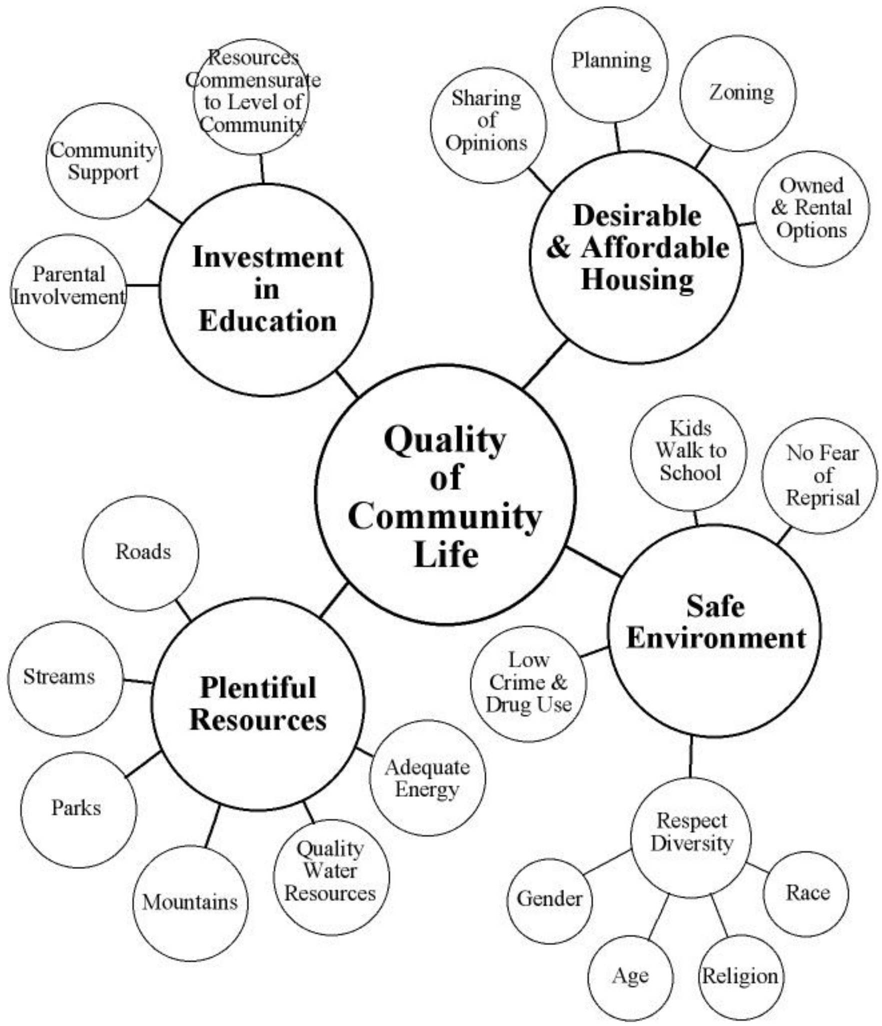
The DEL program is based on a sequential, developmental curriculum that provides the flexibility to select topics and learning experiences which can readily be tailored to audience interests and experience levels. A teaching guide, using the experiential learning model, is the foundation. Opportunities are provided for participants to learn from one another as well as from the trainers. Learning activities and evaluation tools accompany each module of the curriculum, with a strong emphasis on discussion, processing, generalization, and facilitation skills. Topics include introduction and philosophy, teaching methods, personal leadership skills, interpersonal leadership skills, group/organizational leadership skills, community/public policy leadership skills, designing leadership programs, evaluation tools, and resources. A key to success has been the use of role plays, simulations, and case studies to make the learning applicable to real life situations.

For example, one of the quantitative goals for DEL is “500 in 5”, meaning that 500 Kansans will participate in new leadership programs during the 5-year project plan. The number and quality of leadership programs, as well as the number of local participants, has increased. More than 200 individuals have taken part in training sessions; all report gains in knowledge and skill. Fourteen new leadership programs, many in small rural areas, have been developed and 350 local citizens have enrolled in current or recent programs.

A variety of data collection and evaluation tools are now being used on a pilot testing basis. Gains in knowledge and skills are measured through participant questionnaires and by observation. A small survey of employers who have funded participants in a county program has indicated very positive reactions from this stakeholder group.

We also encourage program activities to enhance the leadership skills of their participants, in addition to promoting networking, providing information about the community infrastructure and economic development opportunities. An examination of agendas—speakers and materials—provides this information on both an input and output/outcome levels.

Participatory Evaluation Planning : small group discussion



Throughout the evaluation planning process, we ask these critical questions.

- What are we assessing?
- Why are we assessing it?
- For whom are we assessing?

- How will we assess?
- When will we assess?
- What questions will we try to answer?

Good evaluations should provide more effective:
- program management,
- strategy development and revision,
- accountability to program intent,
- efficient resource allocation,
- program information for the public, and
- enhanced knowledge of professionals and the public.

Summary

Clientele working to resolve local issues learn more about themselves, focus/clarify their own efforts, gain skills, and build capacity when given the opportunity to consider evaluation techniques and design their expected outcomes. While the educator may have some outcomes in mind, local citizens may wish to add their own.

Participative evaluation, including determination of goals and outcomes/impacts is especially useful in programs which do not have clear cut results. The educator cannot say that the appropriate outcome is that participants in a leadership program should take on one or more new community leadership positions in six months. Perhaps a preferred outcome would be for participants to drop some positions or responsibilities if they are feeling overwhelmed and focus on fewer different activities.

The role of the public issues educator is not to determine the policy choice to resolve a controversial issue, but rather to encourage citizens to make informed decisions. Promoting shared or participative leadership, rather than the expert model, is often time consuming. A high tolerance for ambiguity is essential, since there are no clear right or wrong answers.

REFERENCES

Barkman, Susan J. *Evaluating and Reporting Impact of County CES Programs.* In: County Extension Director Training, December 5 & 6, 2000. Purdue University, Indianapolis, 1999.

K-State Research and Extension. Program Evaluation Training Sessions, Spring 2001.

North Central Extension Leadership Development Work Group. Informal discussions. April and July 2001.

National Public Policy Education Pre-conference Workshop. Informal discussions, September 1998.

Smith, M. F. Evaluability Assessment: A Practical Approach. Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1989.

Taylor-Powell, E. Logic Model. University of Wisconsin, 1999.

Katey Walker, Ph.D.
Extension Specialist, Family Resources and Public Policy
Kansas State University
School of Family Studies & Human Services
343 Justin Hall
Manhattan, KS 66506
kwalker@oznet.ksu.edu