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The Leadership Orientations and Effectiveness of College and University Career Services Directors

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THE LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS AND EFFECTIVENESS OF COLLEGE AND
UNIVERSITY CAREER SERVICES DIRECTORS

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
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THE GRADUATE COLLEGE

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ABSTRACT

The Leadership Orientations and Effectiveness of College and University Career Services Directors

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Career service directors lead the third most common division within student affairs departments, but the leadership of a collegiate career services office has not been represented in higher education research. Obtaining a “good job” has consistently been noted as a main reason to attend college (Pryor, Hurtado, Saenz, Santos & Korn, 2007). The rising costs of higher education have also yielded the question, “What can college do for me?” financially and with future career opportunities (Baum & Payea, 2005; Moretti, 2004; Pryor, Hurtado, Saenz, Santos & Korn, 2007; Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 2009). The functions of career services staff are at the center of addressing these expectations.

This nationwide study examined the leadership orientations and effectiveness of college and university career service directors by obtaining responses from: (1) the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) Leadership Orientations Survey, (2) a created career services effectiveness measure rooted in standards from the National Association of Colleges and Employers and the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, and (3) a background questionnaire. Human resources was widely reported as a top leadership orientation. However, regression analysis revealed that three leadership orientations (human resources, political, and symbolic) explained effectiveness, along

with experience in career services at any level and as a director, and resource adequacy to carry out the director's job.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my wife, Jen. I would not have been able to complete this process without your encouragement, support, input, and humor. It is truly unique to have a partner that understands this process after having gone through it. I am so very fortunate to benefit from your wisdom, both related to the emotional and morale side and the academic and writing side, of completing a dissertation. Thank you so very much. I have learned that completing a dissertation, although largely individual, is not completed unless support is provided.

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CHAPTER 1

LEADERSHIP AND CAREER SERVICES

Obtaining a “good job” has consistently been noted as a main reason to attend college (Pryor, Hurtado, Saenz, Santos & Korn, 2007). College seniors report the top two career path considerations are to have a stable, secure future (86.7 percent of the 24,457 participants) and the availability of jobs (79 percent), according to the annual College Senior Survey conducted by the Higher Education Research Institute (Franke, Ruiz, Sharkness, DeAngelo, and Pryor, 2010). In addition to this context, the rising costs of higher education have yielded the question, “What can college do for me?” financially and with future career opportunities (Baum & Payea, 2005; Humes, 2006; Moretti, 2004; Franke et. al, 2010; Pryor, Hurtado, Saenz, Santos & Korn, 2007; Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 2009). Within collegiate campus services, the functions of career services staff are at the center of addressing these expectations.

Career service directors lead the third most common division within student affairs departments, but the leadership of a collegiate career services office has been overlooked in higher education research. As with many leaders in higher education, career service directors must address the needs and concerns of different constituencies. For the career services director that serves the entire campus community, he or she must provide leadership for students, alumni, parents, employers, faculty, and university administrators across multiple academic and professional disciplines. In addressing the needs and concerns of each constituency, career service directors have to establish a vision that effectively serves an array of challenges depending on the institution. Given this situation, how does one effectively lead a collegiate career services office in serving these constituency groups? That is the overarching question that led to this research,

which contributes for the first time an insight into how a collegiate career service office is led.

The relevance of career services related to college students has been gaining momentum over the past 30 years (Pryor, Hurtado, Saenz, Santos & Korn, 2007). Each year since 1976, researchers at the University of California, Los Angeles Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) have created The Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) Freshman Survey, a report about a variety of topics including incoming students' expectations of college (Pryor, Hurtado, Saenz, Santos & Korn, 2007). A 30-year comparison of responses to the Freshman Survey indicates:

1. In response to attending college "To make more money," 66.5% considered this aspect very important in 2006 compared to 49.9% in 1976.
2. First-year students in both 1976 and 2006 chose to attend college to (1) learn about topics of interest and (2) to get a better job.
3. The reason to attend a college or university because "graduates get good jobs" is at its highest level ever (since this question was introduced in the American College Freshman survey) (Pryor, Hurtado, DeAngelo, Palucki Blake, & Tran, 2009).

One of the most common expectations is that career service personnel in higher education help students and alumni "get" jobs. The following quote was provided in an interview I conducted with a veteran career services professional for a separate research project.

"Career services is a place where people like to do a lot of Monday morning quarterbacking...Everybody has a sense of what they think career services *ought* to be doing. And honestly, for most people looking at it, what we *ought* to be doing is whatever it takes to have students and alumns get jobs. Um. *How* that happens is a whole other

issue and how you get to the place where people (a) know what they want and then (b) are capable of going after it, is a much bigger picture and often one that people outside of our career don't really attend to."

- Annie, who has worked in university career services for more than 30 years

(Livengood, 2012)

As the above quote indicates, there may be a disconnect related to the types of services that career staff provide and how those services are implemented. Students may expect the career services staff to "give" them a job while career staff aims to assist with the process of job and internship searching and a development of interests and fit with a future career path. In addition to work with students, the context of leading a career services office at a college or university requires the director to be proactive in addressing misconceptions about office functions with employers and parents. Employers may question the quality of student applicants while the career services director strives to maintain the university's reputation for having quality student employees or interns. Parents may not understand why specific companies do not recruit at their child's college or university while the career services director has been told by an employer that other institutions are targeted on their hiring list. All of these challenges that face career services offices raise many questions not only about the structure, functionality, and service delivery of career services, but perhaps more importantly, how they are led. What leadership orientations do career services directors use in leading their offices? Are certain leadership orientations more effective than others?

Statement of the Problem

The leadership orientations used by university career service directors have not been researched in a scholarly fashion, even though career staff provide key services for numerous constituencies both in higher education and outside of the academy.

Professional association standards, especially from the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) and the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS), have identified the roles and functions of university career service staff in order to define an effective office (Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, 2008; National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010). The efforts from NACE and CAS represent a building block to address a topic that offers a vast amount of peer-reviewed research opportunities. There is certainly a gap in the current body of research that needs to be addressed in order to assist constituency and stakeholder groups in creating a more accurate lens in which to view the leadership of collegiate career services.

Need for the Study

Although many internal and external constituents of higher education interact with the functions of collegiate career services, there is no leadership research regarding how one leads as a career services director. Leadership as an academic area of study, however, has been investigated in the disciplines of business and policy arenas (Bennis, 1985, 2009; Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008; Burns, 1978; Fiedler, 1970; Rost, 1991; Schein, 1985, 1992, 2010; Yukl, 2001) and higher education (Bensimon, 1989; Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Bergquist, 1992, 2008; Cohen & March, 1974; Fisher 1984; Kezar, 2000; Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006; Tierney, 1988, 1989), but not in the career services domain specifically.

Career service directors lead centers that range in scope, size, and tasks. The foremost authority for defining the scope of work done by career service directors is the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE). The following statistics

describe the scope, size, and tasks of the diverse nature in leading within the field of career services. A 2011 Benchmarking Survey by NACE indicated there are 1,389 member institutions in the professional association, and each institution has its own leadership structure often with a director in the formal position of authority (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2011). Career service directors average 15.9 years of director experience and have 5.23 full-time staff on average, including assistant and associate directors, career counselors, employer relations personnel, information specialists, and marketing coordinators. Eighty-six percent have a centralized career services office at their college or university with 54 percent under the title “Career Services,” 20.4 percent called “Career Centers,” 17.3 percent under “Career Development” and 8.1 percent under another title. Being a director of a collegiate career services office requires a diverse skill set as reflected in the diverse names in the “other” category of career offices found in a web search, including the Center for Leadership and Life Calling, The Center for Career and Counseling and the Center for Strengths and Vocation. In terms of reporting structure, sixty-three percent of career offices are organized under the Student Affairs division, and 24 percent are under Academic Affairs. Only six percent are housed under Enrollment Management. In terms of services provided, more than 90 percent of career offices offer career counseling by appointment, career fairs, workshops, assistance to students pursuing employer-offered internship, co-op, or externship opportunities; and the availability of career assessment tools. (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2011, p. 5). In regard to academic coordination, 84 percent of institutions offer academic internships and of that group, 76 percent have career services help with structuring and locating academic internships.

Purpose of the Study

This research explores the leadership orientations used by collegiate career service directors, examines potential differences in leadership orientations based upon demographic and profile characteristics, inquires about the possible relationship between leadership orientations and career service directors' effectiveness, and aims to explain career service directors' effectiveness as it relates to a combination of profile characteristics and leadership orientations. In addressing this purpose, the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) four-frame leadership approach was used as the conceptual framework for this study in order to assess leadership orientations from four perspectives, including structural (emphasizing goals and efficiency), human resources (matching and meeting human and worker needs), political (negotiating conflict for scarce resources), and symbolic (inspiring through meaning and underlying motivations).

Conceptual Framework

The Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) four-frame model provides the conceptual framework for this study. The framework is used to assess leadership orientations, including aspects of organizational structure (structural frame), people (human resource frame), politics and conflict (political frame), and culture and inspiration (symbolic frame). The Bolman and Deal model is based upon previous research regarding competing values (Quinn, Hildebrandt, Rogers, & Thompson, 1991; Quinn & McGrath, 1982; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) and multiple frame leadership orientations (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008; Thompson, 2000; Quinn & Cameron, 1985).

Bolman and Deal build upon the competing values framework (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991; Thompson, 2000; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Quinn & Cameron, 1985), which relates to numerous leadership theories as identified by Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin (2006), including cognitive theories where framing affects the way leaders view a problem (Eddy, 2003) and social constructivism, where leaders are influenced by the context of their organization (Bass, 2008). This framework has great applicability related to career service directors, who must provide leadership with internal and external constituents. This varying group of students, alumni, employers, and university administrators may not always agree on the definition of an effective career services office.

A key concept within the Bolman and Deal leadership model is that of reframing, which means “moving to a different kind of comprehension” of a problem and a “new view that suddenly makes sense of a contradictory situation” (Quinn, 1988, p. 20). Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) used reframing to develop their leadership theory. They define a frame as “a coherent set of ideas forming a prism or lens that enables you to see and understand more clearly what goes on from day to day” (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 43). Multiple frame orientations provide numerous benefits for leadership. Multiple framing helps shape how situations are defined and helps determine what actions to take (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008; Mabey, 2003; Quinn, 1988, Quinn & Cameron, 1985). By assessing and approaching a leadership problem from numerous perspectives, multiple frames assist with leader self-awareness and “blind” spots (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008).

Table one provides a summary of definitions and examples of the Bolman and Deal framework used for this study.

Table 1

Overview of Bolman and Deal (2008) Four-frame Model

	Structural	Human Resources	Political	Symbolic
Metaphor	Factory or machine	Family	Jungle	Carnival, theater
Central concepts	Rules, roles, goals, policies, technology, environment	Needs, skills, relationships	Power, conflict, competition, org. politics	Culture, meaning, metaphor, ritual, ceremony, stories, heroes
Image of leadership	Social architecture	Empowerment	Advocacy and political savvy	Inspiration
Basic Leadership Challenge	Attune structure to task, technology, environment	Align organizational human needs	Develop agenda and power base	Create faith, beauty, meaning
Proposed Related theories	Cognitive, Contingency	Trait, behavioral, social change	Power and influence	Cultural/Symbolic

Note. First four rows from Bolman and Deal (2008) p. 18

Research Questions

Given that university career directors provide an array of services with multiple constituents and services relate to the mission of an institution, it is intriguing to examine how directors in career offices approach leadership. With the goal of assessing leadership from multiple perspectives, Bolman and Deal's Multiple Frame Leadership Model (1984, 1991, 2008) addresses many aspects of leadership and provides a well-rounded approach to examine university career service director effectiveness with diverse tasks and constituents. It is within this context that the following questions drive the study:

RQ1: What Leadership Orientations Do Career Services Directors' Exhibit?

RQ2: Do Demographic and Profile Characteristics (e.g. sex, race/ethnicity, years in position) Explain Career Services Directors' Leadership Orientations?

RQ3: How Do Identified Top Leadership Orientations Relate to Career Services Directors' Effectiveness?

RQ4: What Combination of Demographic and Profile Characteristics and Leadership Orientation Explain Career Services Directors' Effectiveness?

Three instruments were used to address these research questions: The Bolman and Deal Leadership Orientations Instrument, a career services effectiveness survey that was generated by looking at the contributions from the National Association of Colleges and Employers Professional Standards (2010) and the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (2008), and a background questionnaire. The Leadership Orientations Instrument addresses the four leadership frames from Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008). These include structural, human resources, political, and symbolic orientations (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008).

Significance of the Study

This research is the first of its kind and provides career service directors, student affairs personnel, and university administrators with an understanding of the leadership orientations of career service leaders and how those orientations relate to providing effective services with students, employers, and university administrators. This research goes beyond addressing leadership orientations. By looking at leadership orientations and its relationship to effectiveness in job tasks, a better understanding of the career service director's role is provided. Although identifying leadership orientations will benefit career service directors and other constituency groups in identifying strategies for

leadership in this overlooked area of research, an additional step is to inquire about the possible relationship between leadership orientations and career service directors' effectiveness and explain how these leadership orientations relate.

Assumptions

The assumptions outlined below were inherent in this research.

1. Leadership is a dynamic process that can be assessed from many perspectives, and a self-rating evaluation can be a primary way of gaining insight into leadership orientations.
2. This research assumed that career service directors have some level of authority to be both leaders and managers.
3. This research assumed that career service directors' top leadership orientation was impactful in carrying out job functions.
4. Career services directors can accurately assess their own effectiveness.
5. Career services staff serve multiple constituents (or stakeholders) and use a variety of approaches to serve these constituents (Heppner & Davidson, 2002, National Association of Colleges & Employers, 2011, Rayman, 1993).
6. The administrative division in which career service offices are housed may play a role in the leadership of the office (Kuk & Banning, 2009).
7. It is assumed that an overall effectiveness score can be attained by averaging each of the item results within the effectiveness measure.
8. Career service directors were assumed to be the primary formal leader of the career services unit. However, a "director" title was not always present for a career services unit. It was assumed that if a "director" title was not present,

then the person with the next highest title was included for participation in the study. For example, if a “director” was not present on a staff list, then an associate director was contacted. If no associate director was present, then an assistant director or the person with the next highest job title was contacted to participate in the study.

9. Career service directors at masters level and research institutions were assumed to have similar tasks and roles and serve similar constituencies.

Limitations

This research is limited by the following factors.

1. This research was limited to the perspective of general or central collegiate career service directors in the United States (as defined by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009).
2. Leadership can be assessed from numerous perspectives. However, this research was limited to the perspective of the most direct leadership role at university career service offices.
3. Participation was limited to career service directors who work at non-profit public and private institutions in: (1) baccalaureate colleges, (2) masters-level, and (3) doctorate-granting (research) institutions as defined by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (2009). This excluded for-profit colleges and universities as well as community colleges. For-profit colleges and community colleges were not included in order to limit the scope and control of this research. The specific needs of for-profit institutions and community colleges go beyond the scope of this

research. Specialized career service offices for business, law, and other specific disciplines were also excluded from this research because the discipline-specific mission and focus of those centers presented a different leadership context as compared to general collegiate career service offices.

4. The leadership construct was limited to the four frames of the Leadership Orientations Survey as presented by Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008).
5. Career service director effectiveness was limited to the serving of overall constituency groups and the main tasks associated with each group as indicated in the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) Professional Standards for College and University Career Services (2011) and the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (2008). These thorough documents cover many more specific areas of collegiate career service functions, but only the main functions were evaluated for effectiveness in this research.

Definitions

The following terms have been operationalized in the following way.

1. **Baccalaureate Colleges (liberal arts and sciences and baccalaureate colleges in diverse field).** Includes institutions where baccalaureate degrees represent at least 10 percent of all undergraduate degrees and where fewer than 50 master's degrees or 20 doctoral degrees were awarded during the update year. (Some institutions above the master's degree threshold are also included; see Methodology.) Excludes special focus institutions and tribal colleges. This includes all sizes of institutions that

are of public and private non-profit status (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009, p. 1).

2. **Career Services Director** – the primary and direct leader of a general collegiate career services office at a baccalaureate, masters level, or doctorate-granting college or university. Career service offices are of different structures with some having a staff of one person and others having many specialized staff. Therefore, the career services leader may be named “coordinator,” “associate director,” or another title depending on the institution. Career service directors most commonly report to the leaders of student affairs, academic affairs, and enrollment management units (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010b, 2011). Discipline-specific career service office directors were excluded from this study due to the specialized nature of tasks they provide.
3. **Career Development** – the lifelong process of self-assessment that people go through to find a meaningful career (Sharf, 2006). For this present research, this includes a university student’s personality, interests, skills, and values (Sharf, 2006) and tools associated with that process, including formalized assessment instruments and activities and experiential learning (jobs, internships, and volunteerism) (Sharf, 2006).
4. **Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching institutional lookup** – This online tool allows users to “Generate a list of institutions that combines classifications and/or classification categories. With this tool, users can aggregate categories within a given classification (or logic

within classifications), identify institutions that are similarly classified on two or more classifications (and logic between classifications), or do both to create a custom listing of institutions” (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009, p. 1).

5. **Doctorate-granting (research) Universities:** Includes institutions that awarded at least 20 research doctoral degrees during the update year (excluding doctoral-level degrees that qualify recipients for entry into professional practice, such as the JD, MD, PharmD, DPT, etc.). Excludes special focus institutions and tribal colleges (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009, p. 1). All levels of public and private non-profit doctorate-granting universities were included in the population for this research.
6. **Effectiveness** – Career service director effectiveness is limited to the serving of overall constituency groups and the main tasks associated with each group as indicated primarily in the National Association of Colleges and Employers Professional Standards for College and University Career Services (2011) and confirmed by reviewing the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (2008). This thorough document covers many more specific areas of collegiate career service functions, but only the main functions were evaluated for effectiveness in this research.
7. **Frame** – Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) use the term “leadership orientation” and “frame” synonymously. Given that usage, Bolman and

Deal define a frame (or orientation) as “A coherent set of ideas forming a prism or lens that enables you to see and understand more clearly what goes on from day to day” (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 43).”

8. **Human Resource Frame** – One of the four frames presented by the Bolman & Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) model to understand leadership orientations. This frame has central concepts that focus on the needs, skills, and relationships of employees, has an image of empowerment for leadership, and aims to align organizational and human needs (Bolman & Deal, 1991, 2008).
9. **Institutional Size** – Enrollment ranging from very small to large from the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (2009): “Full-time equivalent (FTE) enrollment is based on IPEDS Fall 2009 enrollment data, with FTE calculated as full-time plus one-third part-time” (p. 1). According to the Carnegie Foundation (2009), very small institutions have less than 1,000 FTE students, small institutions have 1,000 – 2,999 FTE, medium-sized institutions have 3,000 – 9,999 FTE, and large institutions have more than 10,000 students.
10. **Leadership** - “Leadership is thus a subtle process of mutual influence fusing thought, feeling, and action. It produces cooperative effort in the service of purposes embraced by both leader and led” (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 345).
11. **Leadership Orientation** - Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) use the term “leadership orientation” and “frame” synonymously. Given that

usage, Bolman and Deal define a frame (or orientation) as “A coherent set of ideas forming a prism or lens that enables you to see and understand more clearly what goes on from day to day” (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 43).”

12. **Master's Colleges and Universities.** Generally includes institutions that awarded at least 50 master's degrees and fewer than 20 doctoral degrees during the update year (with occasional exceptions – see Methodology). Excludes special focus institutions and tribal colleges (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009, p. 1). All levels of public and private non-profit Master’s Colleges and Universities were included in the population for this research.
13. **Multiple-frame Thinking** – the diagnosis, approach, and strategies used to address a leadership problem. This approach assumes that leaders must use multiple-frame thinking to approach leadership problems. This also assumes that leaders naturally use and prefer sets of strategies more than others (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008).
14. **Political Frame** – One of the four frames presented by the Bolman & Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) model to understand leadership orientations. This frame has central concepts of power, conflict, competition, and organizational politics, has an image of advocacy and political savvy for leadership, and political leaders aims to develop an agenda and powerbase (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008).

15. **Reframing** – “a coherent set of ideas forming a prism or lens that enables you to see and understand more clearly what goes on from day to day” as a leader (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 43). Reframing helps shape how situations are defined and helps determine what actions to take. (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008).
16. **Structural Frame** - One of the four frames presented by the Bolman & Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) model to understand leadership orientations. This frame has central concepts of rules, roles, goals, policies, technology, and the work environment (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008). The image of leadership is social architecture, and leaders using this frame aim to attune structure to task, technology, and environment (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008).
17. **Student Affairs or Student Affairs Division** – The unit or division within a university that is charged to create programs and services to supplement the student experience. The majority of student affairs divisions include the following subunits: counseling centers, residence life, career services, health centers, student activities, student centers, campus recreation, judicial affairs, academic advising and support services, disability services, multicultural student services, the dean of students office, and enrollment management (Kuk & Banning, 2009). Each university has its own definition of the subunits that are housed within student affairs (Kuk & Banning, 2009).

18. **Symbolic Frame** - One of the four frames presented by the Bolman & Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) model to understand leadership orientations. This frame has central concepts of culture, meaning, metaphor, ritual, ceremony, stories, and heroes. The image of leadership for this frame is inspiration. Symbolic leaders aim to create faith, beauty, and meaning (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008).
19. **Collegiate Career Services Office** – The unit that is charged with the responsibility of multiple job functions for diverse constituents in a college or university, including career counseling/advising and assessment, job search skills (such as resume writing, cover letters, and interviewing), online job posting websites, networking functions with employers, and internships (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010).

Summary

This initial chapter provides an overview and introduction to the rationale for researching leadership with collegiate career service offices. Chapter 2 provides an in-depth review of literature related to leadership in general, student affairs leadership, and career service office functions.

A detailed report of the research design to address these questions is provided in Chapter 3. This includes extensive details about the use of the Bolman and Deal Leadership Orientations Survey, background questionnaire and effectiveness survey. These details include sampling methods for the survey, data collection procedures, and data analysis methods. Chapter 4 will later provide results of data collection and study

findings for the Leadership Orientations Survey. Chapter 5 will then summarize study findings and provides a discussion of implications related to the research questions.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter provides the foundation for this research and underscores the need to examine the leadership role of university career service directors. The literature review begins with an overview of university career service roles and functions, including an historical background and current office functions and challenges. Next, an overview of the historical context of leadership orientations and definitions is provided, along with the connection between leadership and management and trends in leadership research. A review of the Quinn & Rohrbaugh (1983) Competing Values Framework is explored along with its connection to the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) Multiple Frame Leadership Model. This leadership model was the conceptual framework for this research and a review of the Competing Values Framework is provided as a foundational theory. The Bolman and Deal and Competing Values frameworks were chosen as the conceptual framework for this study because they provide a well-rounded perspective for assessing leadership orientations from multiple perspectives. The higher education leadership literature is then reviewed in order to provide a background within the academy, including the context of higher education during the time of this research, the role and challenges of middle managers and directors, and an overview of student affairs leadership. Career services directors work within the higher education environment, so such a review situates the context in which the current study takes place. Thus, the intersection between leadership and career services is made explicit.

Overview of University Career Service Office Roles and Functions

Career service offices play a diverse set of key roles within today's collegiate environment. They provide guidance with student and alumni career decision making, assist with the transition to a workplace following graduation, link students and alumni with employers through networking, and assist with job search skills (Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, 2008; National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2009; National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010b; Rayman, 1993; Sharf, 2006). The interplay of services at career offices in the United States has presented a division of tasks related to students, parents, employers, university administration, and faculty. Through this diverse group of constituents, university career offices balance a variety of services, including individual counseling/advising/coaching, educational groups, career assessment inventories, job fairs, on-campus recruitment, networking events, and online job posting systems (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2007, 2009, 2010b). Because career office personnel interact with a diverse group of constituents, they can provide a unique representation of the entire university system and its connection to community needs. Serving such a variety of clientele cannot always be done in harmony given the vast array of needs that each group represents. In order to understand the perspective of a career service director, the next section will describe common characteristics of this group along with the most common departmental organization of career offices, common tasks, and challenges in defining best practices.

Directors of Collegiate Career Offices

Describing the characteristics of a "typical" career services director is a challenge given the broad range of institutions and types of centers present in higher education.

Research from the 2011 NACE Benchmarks report shows career service directors average 15.9 years of director experience and have 5.23 full-time staff, including assistant and associate directors, career counselors, employer relations personnel, information specialists, and marketing coordinators. Ninety-six percent of career service directors are employed full-time and work with an average budget of \$74,711.

Career service directors lead centers that range in scope, size, and departmental organization. The foremost authority for defining the scope of work done by career service directors is the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE). A 2011 Benchmarking Survey by NACE indicated there are 1,389 member institutions in the professional association, and each institution has its own leadership structure often with a director in the formal position of authority (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2011). Eighty-six percent have a centralized career services office at their college or university with 54 percent under the title “Career Services,” 20.4 percent called “Career Centers,” 17.3 percent under “Career Development” and 8.1 percent under another title. Directors of career service offices require a diverse skill set as reflected in the diverse names in the “other” category of career offices found in a web search, including the Center for Leadership and Life Calling, The Center for Career and Counseling and the Center for Strengths and Vocation. Sixty-three percent of career offices are organized under the Student Affairs division and 24 percent are under Academic Affairs, and six percent are housed under Enrollment Management.

The nature of tasks that career service director oversee are as diverse as the type of centers present in higher education. More than 90 percent of career offices offer career counseling by appointment, career fairs, workshops, assistance to students pursuing

employer-offered internship, co-op, or externship opportunities; and the availability of career assessment tools. (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2011, p. 5).

In regard to academic coordination, 84 percent of institutions offer academic internships and of that group, 76 percent have career services help with structuring and locating academic internships. In terms of finances and budgeting, career service directors receive funding predominantly from the institution (whether it is student fees or other funding). More than half of all career service offices receive 100 percent of funding from the institution. Career service directors also may seek funds from employers, and 20 percent of respondents to the NACE Benchmarks report have a sponsorship program with employers to help address center costs. Other funds are also generated through student and alumni use services, including inventory assessments and results. This budgetary situation requires career service directors to keep aware of customer service issues that may arise both within the institution and beyond the academy.

Part of the leadership challenge for career directors is the need to be mindful of specific rules and regulations that guide best practices in serving students, alumni, and employers. In addition to being aware of legislation that regulates all higher education practice – such as the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) – career service directors face the challenge of negotiating employer needs and establishing an open and fair recruitment process to students (Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, 2008; National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2011b).

The tension between these two needs are illustrated in a case that often arises when the career services director encounters employers who want a specific referral list of the institution’s “best qualified students.” In turn, this scenario presents the challenge of an

open and fair process for all students to apply for posted positions and on-campus interview opportunities. Balancing the needs of the employer and the student can be tricky in providing a fair and ethical service.

The leadership challenge is also present for career service directors in navigating the various standards that can be present in establishing best practices. There are two main best practice standards for collegiate career offices: The NACE Standards (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010c) and those established by the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (2008), also known as the CAS Standards for Career Services. Both standards appear to measure similar aspects of best practices, including services with students, employers, and also collaboration with additional internal and external constituencies. Both standards are quite extensive. The CAS Standards for Career Services Assessment Guide is 35 pages long with 13 parts addressing aspects of career office functions from its mission to organization and management, leadership, technology, and assessment (Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, 2008). The NACE Standards Evaluation Workbook is 44 pages long and covers similar areas to the CAS Standards. Even though commonalities exist, navigating either or both of these professional standards requires a broad skill set in order to effectively lead the career services office. The NACE Standards were used as the primary definition of the effectiveness of career service directors while the CAS Standards were consulted in order to confirm similar areas of effectiveness for career service directors. Appendix F highlights aspects of the NACE and CAS Standards used to define effectiveness for this research.

Contextual Factors in University Career Service Office Functions

An understanding of contextual events, career development theory, and societal expectations combine to provide an understanding of how university career service offices have evolved. The nature of transition for college students and career choice has changed depending on many variables, including economic conditions and current events of the time. This section explores the history of university career offices, foundations for services provided today, and how these roles have progressed over time.

In assessing the role of career development, Pope (1997) identified six stages and time periods of career development in the United States: beginnings of placement and vocational guidance (1890-1919), vocational guidance in education (1920-1939), career counseling in colleges and universities (1940-1959), beginnings of organizational career development (1960-1979), private practices and outplacement counseling (1980-1989), internalization of career counseling and multicultural career counseling (1990-present).

The commencement of university career functions varies for each institution. Some career service offices were started by counseling psychology faculty while others may have began from university-wide or community employer efforts. University career offices usually started small, with one or two staff and have grown to large multi-service operations that employ numerous staff, including a director, career counselors, peer educators, and employer relations personnel. Today, career centers average just over five full-time employees per center (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010b).

In serving students and alumni, university career service staff have traditionally balanced both the job search – or “placement” – and career development, which is focused on exploring and deciding upon a career path (National Association of Colleges

and Employers, 2010b). University career service offices have various roles. These functions serve both internal and external constituents of the university (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010b). Career service staff also assist students with career development from a number of theoretical frames, including those related to cognitions, trait and factor theories, and constructivist orientations (Brown & Lent, 2005; Sharf, 2006). A diversity of roles is also reflected in common job titles within career centers. These include directors, associate directors, assistant directors, career counselors or advisors, employer relations personnel, and internship coordinators (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2009, 2010b).

Career offices today are still addressing issues of identity as they juggle multiple roles. “One might argue that the field of career development is going through the same cultural identity development status that we teach in many of our classes” (Heppner & Davidson, 2002, p. 879). Questions that arise for career centers include the relationship and level of integration or separateness with counseling centers (Heppner & Davidson, 2002), the level of involvement with technology (Stevens & Lundberg, 1998) and the balance of employer-related activities, job search development, and career development. In evaluating the importance of these varied roles, perspectives are often determined according to the institutional perspectives from these many constituents (Bechtel, 1993).

Even though career service leaders are still struggling with center identity, a consistent group of tasks can be observed. In a survey of more than 500 colleges and universities, the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) explored the makeup of university career center tasks. Career counseling, career fairs, on-campus interviewing/recruiting, assistance for employers, internships or externships and

workshops were the most common services (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010b). It is expected and understood that a university career office will offer a website, an online job posting system, and collect data about the outcome of student employment following graduation (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010b; 2011). To provide these and other services, career offices today receive funds from two primary sources: the institution (usually from student fees) and from fees generated by the career center, including job fair and event registration (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2007). Most career service offices (63.1 percent) are located under the division of student affairs, and 21.5 percent fall under academic affairs. (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010b). In addition, 67 percent of career service offices report they plan to conduct an internal or external review or assessment in the next five years (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010b).

The assumption that university career service offices “place” students is still apparent within the expectations from various stakeholders. However, this assumption was not always accurate and depends upon the institution and its structure. It is a “rare occurrence today (in 1979) for a placement officer to actually place a student. While assisting students to locate appropriate career positions remains a primary goal, it is equally important to assist students in defining career goals” (Sovilla, 1979, p. 64). However, the notion that all career service offices in higher education still “place” students is still a deeply rooted and somewhat misguided belief.

The changing role of career services has not been examined in recent literature but was examined in a 1993 special issue of *New Directions for Student Services*.

Rayman (1993) examined 10 imperatives for career service offices, including (1) the acknowledgement of the lifelong nature of career development and encouraging students to take responsibility for their own destiny, (2) accepting and embracing technology, (3) refining and strengthening the professional identity of career service offices and within the academy, (4) enhancing the centrality of individual career counseling at the core of the profession, (5) developing cooperative relationships with faculty, advising professionals, other student affairs professionals, and student groups to take advantage of the “multiplier effect” that these relationships can have in furthering student career development, (6) meeting the needs of an increasingly diverse student body, (7) accepting the position of continuing the obvious link between corporate American and the academy, while maintaining a focus on career development, (8) addressing the changing nature of on-campus recruiting and the need to develop alternative ways of facilitating transition from college to work, (9) resolving the ambiguities that exist about career service roles in delivering alumni career services, and (10) advocating more effectively for resources and becoming more efficient in using existing resources (Rayman, 1993, p. 1-6).

Rayman also wrote a follow-up piece to these imperatives in a thought piece for the *Career Development Quarterly* in 1999. This article reinforced that the 1993 imperatives were still meaningful:

The emergence of a global economy that values skills over loyalty, collaboration over competition, and change over security suggests that the realities of the world of work have finally caught up with the theoretical paradigm of career development as a

lifelong process. To succeed in the new millennium, we as career services professionals would do well to heed these imperatives (Rayman, 1999, p. 183).

Even with a similar set of tasks across most collegiate career service offices, there is a need for local and institutional context (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2011). “Lack of unanimity and the multifaceted orientation of practitioners have resulted in each college and university organizing career services and programs according to local and institutionally specific traditions and exigencies” (Bechtel, 1993, p. 23). The structure of career offices depends on a number of factors: historical and traditional roles of the career office and its separate identity at each institution, identity of career practitioners, importance of professional schools and academic units with connections to employment areas, size and character of the host institution, and the institution’s view of career services purpose and its closeness to the organization’s central mission (Bechtel, 1993).

As documented in the above review, career service directors may face a number of leadership challenges in working with multiple constituents. As such, I will examine leadership within career service offices. First, however, it is important to review the rich history of the leadership literature so that the topic of this study (leadership in career service offices) may be situated appropriately.

Historical Context of Leadership Orientations

Definitions of Leadership

Debated for more than 2,000 years, humans have wondered how one effectively leads. Going back to “nearly as far as the emergence of civilization,” this elusive and fluid concept has been debated from numerous perspectives (Bass, 2008, p. 4). One can

observe the vast amount of research about this topic by noting the following statistics: Stodgill (1948) reviewed 124 articles and books regarding leadership research more than a half century ago. Over 1.7 million links are provided in a Google Scholar search for “leadership” as of June 2010 and 2.04 million links only one year later. Because of this context, this section does not aim to provide an exhaustive review. However, the goal of this section is to demonstrate how leadership is a dynamic process and can be observed from many perspectives.

Various theorists have attempted to define leadership. However, it is important to acknowledge that definitions are like “a sack of flour compressed into a thimble” (Bass, 2008, p. 3). There is also not one “correct” definition of leadership, but the choice of definition should depend upon how useful the definition is in further understanding leadership (Yukl, 1981, 2001). In addition, Yukl (1989) reports, “Researchers usually defined leadership according to their individual perspective and the aspect of the phenomenon of most interest to them” (p. 2). Related to this premise, researchers have defined leadership in a variety of ways.

Bass (2008) summarizes the array of leadership themes and options for defining leadership:

There are many possible ways to define leadership. However the definition of leadership should depend on the purposes to be served. Leadership has been conceived as the focus of group processes, as a personality attribute, as the art of inducing compliance, as an exercise of influence, as a particular kind of activity, as a form of persuasion, as a power relation, as an instrument in the attainment of goals, as an effect of interaction, as a differentiated role, and as the initiation of structure (Bass, 2008, pp. 25 - 26).

This research uses the following definition of leadership because it encompasses multiple perspectives of the leader and constituents: “Leadership is thus a subtle process of mutual influence fusing thought, feeling, and action. It produces cooperative effort in the service of purposes embraced by both leader and led” (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 345). Furthermore, in developing the four frames of leadership orientations, Bolman and Deal note the importance of using multiple orientations depending on the context of the situation: “Each frame highlights significant possibilities for leadership, but each by itself is incomplete... Wise leaders understand their own strengths, work to expand them, and build diverse teams that can offer an organization leadership in all four modes: structural, political, human resource, and symbolic” (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 372).

This definition has roots in the definition of leadership presented by Burns (1978):

Inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations – the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations – *of both leaders and followers*. And the genius of leadership lies in the manner in which leaders see and act on their own and their followers’ values and motivations (p. 19).

Rost (1991) defines leadership as a collaborative and multidirectional process that is not coercive. According to Rost leadership is “an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes” (p. 102). Followers are active and the definition of a “leader” goes beyond only a dyadic relationship. “Real change” in this regard refers to the intention to make future changes in “people’s lives, attitudes, behaviors, and basic assumptions, as well as in groups, organizations, societies, and civilizations they are trying to lead” (p. 115).

Yukl (1989), drawing upon the work of Janda (1960) and Stodgill (1974), presents both broad and more restrictive conceptions of leaders, as shown in the following table:

Table 2

Conceptions of a Leader: Broad versus More Restrictive

Broader Conception	More Restrictive Conception
A person who influences group members (“distributed leadership”).	A person who exerts the most influence on other group members (“focused leadership”).
A person who influences group members in any manner.	A person who systematically influences member behavior toward attainment of group goals.
A person who influences group members to comply with his or her requests willingly or unwillingly.	A person who obtains the enthusiastic commitment of group members in carrying out his or her requests.

Note. Source from Yukl, 1989, p. 4

This presentation of leadership by Yukl is consistent with definitions presented by Rost (1991) in that a leader has to have followers through influence and inspiration. Through varying definitions, leadership research has evolved to examine context, including aspects of change (Kotter, 1996, 2002), multiple frames or perspectives (Bolman & Deal, 1991, 1994, 2008), and repeated patterns and chaos theory (Cutright, 2001).

In addition to these definitions, researchers and theorists have addressed the relationship between leadership and management, including their similarities and differences.

The Relationship Between Leadership and Management

The relationship between leadership and management has been well documented (Bass, 2008; Bennis, 2009; Green, 1988; Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin Carducci, 2006; Rost, 1991). This section highlights similarities and differences. Some authors propose that leadership and management are similar but have different definitions. Throughout the literature it appears that good managers do not necessarily make quality leaders and vice versa (Bass, 2008; Bennis, 2009; Bolman & Deal, 1994; Selznick, 1957; Rost, 1991). Leaders can – and should – be present at all levels of the organization in order to effectively negotiate change (Kotter, 1996).

Bennis (2009) describes the differences between leaders and managers as “enormous and crucial” as identified by the following characteristics:

Table 3

Differences Between Management and Leadership

Management	Leadership
The manager administers.	The leader innovates.
The manager is a copy.	The leader is original.
The manager maintains.	The leader develops.
The manager focuses on systems and structure.	The leader focuses on people.
The manager relies on control.	The leader inspires trust.
The manager has short-range view.	The leader has a long-range
The manager asks how and when.	The leader asks what and why.
The manager always has an eye on the bottom	The leader's eye is on the horizon.
The manager imitates.	The leader originates.
The manager accepts the status quo.	The leader challenges it.
The manager is the classic good soldier.	The leader is his or her own person.
The manager does things right.	The leader does the right thing.

Note. Source from Bennis, 2009, p. 209, 210

Rost (1991) defines management as “an authority relationship between at least one manager and one subordinate who coordinate their activities to produce and sell

particular goods and/or services” (p. 145). Rost also highlights the distinguishing features between leadership and management, as shown in the following table (p. 149).

Table 4

Distinguishing Characteristics Between Leadership and Management

Leadership	Management
Influence relationship	Authority relationship
Leaders and followers	Managers and subordinates
Intend real changes	Produce and sell goods and/or services
Intended changes reflect mutual purposes	Goods/services result from coordinated activities

Note. Source from Rost, 1991, p. 149.

The differentiation above provides main themes between leadership and management. Leadership is a more joint process and does not use coercion. It is a more visionary and collaborative concept that attempts to address the root of the problem rather than the negotiation of daily tasks and production of services or goods. Administration and management require the completion of daily tasks and functions (Bolman & Deal, 1994; Rost, 1991) while leadership is a dynamic force with vision to the future and empowerment of others (Bass, 2008; Burns, 1979).

The head or manager who is not a leader will plan but will not envisage an attractive future for the department. The head or manager who is not a leader will organize and structure the department, but won’t enable its members to improve their performance. The head or manager will control what happens in the department but won’t empower employees to make decisions. (Bass, 2008, p. 23).

Interestingly, Rost (1991) reports that activities more associated with management (such as coordinating services) are sometimes tasks that “leaders” must counteract:

The leadership relationship allows for a great many activities that would not be classified as coordinated activities in the ordinary sense of the term: revolution, reform, demonstrations, rallies, breaking unjust laws, charismatic behaviors, intuitive decisions, behaving according to new governing assumptions, ad hoc committees, disrupting coordinated activities, unplanned actions, and so on. These kinds of activities may be clues that leadership is happening and that management is not. (Rost, 1991, p. 152)

Bolman and Deal (1994) discuss the synergy of the two concepts noting that leadership is smothered by the day-to-day tasks of being a manager. Much of the training in leadership is about management, which may not provide an ideal set of tools to lead. An additional challenge of leadership is that it calls primarily for intangible qualities such as a person's heart, self-awareness, and courage (Bolman & Deal, 1994).

The use of “leadership” and “management” synonymously has been sharply criticized. “My knowledge of organizational behavior has led me to the conclusion that effective organizations can be managed and supervised and *not* led, while some ineffective organizations can be led into their difficulties without the benefit of management and supervision” (Dubin, 1979, p. 225). Buckingham (2005) is another author who has criticized this apparent difference, because combining these two terms makes management seem like a second tier entity while leadership is a lofty ideal. Buckingham (2005) distinguishes between leadership and management by claiming a different process is present for each, even though a successful organization is a common goal. Great managers celebrate unique qualities of employees and incorporate diverse abilities into improved performance. On the other hand, great leaders “discover what is universal and capitalize on it” and “cut through differences” (p. 72). In fact, early articles

about management state that it is the manager that needs people skills, not the executive. The executive/leader needs strategic skills (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Rost, 1991; Zaleznik, 1977).

Even though the two concepts are debated in terms of definition, it is important to note that “management” is not necessarily an inferior concept to leadership. “Leadership” may sound like a more glamorous term compared to “management,” as shown in this oft-cited quote from Bennis and Nanus (1985): “Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing” (p. 21). Similarly, Zaleznik (1977) proposed managers are more focused on tasks or getting things done while leaders focus on the meanings attributed to experiences. Effective management helps with the day-to-day functions of an organization and assists with its smooth operations. Rost (1991) framed this humorously by saying:

If you want to find out how much people love management, try these simple strategies: Deliver the payroll checks late, decrease the supplies people need to do their jobs, stop any utility service people need to live or work...Our civilization is so complex, it has to be managed. (Rost, 1991, p. 141, 142)

Trends in Leadership Research:

Movement From Individual to Collective Views of Leadership

Throughout the progression of leadership theories, there has been a shift from an individual and leader-centered focus that emphasizes global leadership characteristics (traits and behaviors) to theories that emphasize a group collaboration and process-centered context with numerous perspectives and empowerment of teams (Bass, 2008; Kezar et. al, 2006; Rost, 1991). No longer are leadership theories only focused on global

attributes of leaders. Leadership research now encompasses current historical context and the culture and values of the organization (Kezar et. al, 2006). This shift in focus includes aspects of ethics and spirituality (Greenleaf, 1977; Buchen, 1998), social change (Astin & Leland, 1991; Garner, 2004), and empowerment (Kezar, 2000). This shift in thinking emphasizes the need to utilize a multi-faceted leadership approach, such as the Bolman and Deal framework.

Kezar et. al (2006) reviewed six predominant leadership themes and emerging concepts. This organization of leadership themes was helpful in summarizing the countless essays and definitions of a popular and heated topic. In two editions of an Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE) Report on leadership, Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum (1989) and Kezar et. al (2006) review prominent leadership theories in a chronological fashion. These include trait, behavioral, power and influence, contingency, cognitive, and cultural/symbolic theories (Bensimon et. al, 1989; Kezar et. al, 2006). These six leadership themes are highlighted below along with key research interspersed throughout each section. These themes provide a context into many aspects of leadership and set the stage for understanding components of the Bolman and Deal model, which will be discussed in more detail following a foundational knowledge of related leadership theories.

Trait Theories

Trait theories were most prominent in the early 1900s. A global set of characteristics is sought for leaders in this set of theories. It is assumed from this perspective that leaders have different traits that “distinguish them from followers” (Kezar et. al, 2006, p. 7). This section will explore this concept through related research,

including a chronological account of themes within trait theories. Criticism of this set of theories is also provided.

Stodgill (1948) is an often-cited classic study that examined 128 published articles regarding leadership traits. Stodgill (1948) found that a variety of traits are present for leaders. As of 1948, the typical leader showed more traits in the following categories as compared to followers: higher intelligence, scholarship, dependability, social participation, and socioeconomic status (Stodgill, 1948). The traits most closely associated with leadership at this time were originality, popularity, social skills, judgment, assertiveness, desire to excel, liveliness, and humor (Stodgill, 1948). However, Stodgill's findings have not been fully confirmed in subsequent research, especially since this initial summative inquiry used children, school, and social groups rather than workplaces (Bass, 2008).

A similar concept is the "great man" theory, which assumes that great men were to provide effective leadership (Jennings, 1960). It was assumed that men in power were the driving force behind leadership and that followers passively received this greatness (Bass, 2008). Contrary to this theory, researchers now show that leadership is not a one-way street from leader to follower and that leadership is a more complex process that should incorporate a blend of empowerment and the context of the organization and followers (Bass, 2008; Bolman & Deal, 2008; Rost, 1991).

New methods to examine leadership traits emerged after Stodgill's 1948 research, including a comparison of different country leadership traits and the inclusion of minority groups (Bass, 2008). New measurements (to control for error) were also used between Stodgill's studies from 1948 to 1970. These included new questionnaires more closely

tied to theory (Bass, 2008; Stodgill, 1974). This research evolved into the first *Handbook of Leadership*, which was written by Stodgill in 1974. This time, Stodgill examined 163 research articles and used workplace data to examine leadership.

Results from Stodgill (1974) as cited in Bass (2008) show leaders at that time were:

characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and completion of tasks, vigor and persistence in the pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and originality in problem solving, a drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and a sense of personal identity, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence other people's behavior, and the capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand. (Stodgill, 1974 as cited in Bass, 2008, p. 101)

Research in trait orientations used to show leaders as courageous, confident, strong, having social distance, and being intelligent (Bass, 2008; Bensimon et. al, 1989; Stodgill, 1948). More recent research shows those characteristics are no longer related to a global definition of leadership (Kezar et. al, 2006). However, leadership traits still play an important role in understanding the leadership and follower relationship (Bass, 2008). Today, a broader set of characteristics are present for leaders, including a shared value with followers, identification amongst leaders and followers, and a caring and collaborative approach (Astin & Leland, 1991; Bass, 2008; Kezar et. al, 2006).

Trait theories have been criticized for neglecting to include important aspects of diversity and context (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Kezar, 2000) and failing to “distinguish between leadership as a process and the leader as a person” (Calder, 1977, p. 356). For example, the “great man” theories ignored the accomplishments of great women (Bass,

2008), and most of the early research with leadership traits used only men in sampling (Bass, 2008; Kezar, 2000). In addition, this set of theories assumed one shared reality (Kezar, 2000), neglected to include perspective and perception (Bolman & Deal, 2008), and is limited to a narrow view that is mainly hierarchical and portrays leaders as withdrawn from followers and exhibiting power and control (Astin & Leland, 1991; Fisher, 1984). More recent literature has aimed to examine leadership traits that span across cultures and gender.

Today, traits are “requirements for doing something” and are called “competencies” (Bass, 2008, p. 103). Various kinds of traits and competencies are factors in leadership, as outlined in the table below.

Table 5

Traits of Leadership (1970-2006)

Type of trait	Description
Cognitive competency	Task competence and problem-solving abilities. Includes intelligence, judgment, decisiveness, knowledge, fluency of speech, resourcefulness, technical abilities, intellectually stimulating qualities, vision, imagination, articulateness, diagnostic skills, originality, and creativity
Social competency	Social intelligence, assertiveness, cooperativeness and the ability to enlist cooperation, attractiveness, affiliativeness, nurturance, sociability, interpersonal skills, social participation, tact, diplomacy, empathy, social insight, and attributional accuracy
Emotional competency	Emotional intelligence, emotional maturity, self-confidence, self-esteem, self-efficacy, hardiness, and optimism
Character	Integrity, honesty, moral reasoning, resilience, and discipline

Note. Source from Bass, 2008, p. 103

Trait theories were one of the first types of leadership research. Given that they focus on establishing a global set of leadership characteristics, they only provide a brief glimpse into the many aspects in which to examine leadership. The next set of theories focuses on a related concept – leadership behaviors.

Behavioral Theories

Behavioral theories examine effective leadership behaviors and emerged in the mid 1900s (Bass, 2008; Kizar et. al, 2006). This set of theories diverges from traits in that leadership can be learned through gaining specific skills and training (Kizar et. al, 2006; Latham & Saari, 1979). Each task must be matched with a subsequent behavior, and effectiveness is defined as the leader's ability to negotiate tasks and related behaviors (Kizar et. al, 2006). With behavioristic orientations in mind, a sea of leadership texts, programs, and seminars have been developed ranging from rigorous empirical research to whimsical popular psychology.

From a more general perspective, Blake and Mouton (1964, 1981) provided a behavioral perspective through an identification of managerial orientations. Their widely cited text begins with a self-assessment of managerial styles, elements of decisions, convictions, response to conflict, emotions and temper, humor, and effort. Subsequent research was related to behavioral orientations based upon a managerial grid. The Academic Administrator Grid assessed five major management styles based upon behaviors regarding concern for people and concern for institutional performance (Blake & Mouton, 1981).

In a more specific relationship to career services, the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) provides a yearly Management and Leadership Institute

that includes behavioral training. The curriculum is geared toward current and future leaders with two to seven years of experience in career services and aims to develop specific skills related to workplace tasks, including the development of leadership skills for managing direct reports, skills in carrying out office missions and goals, gaining new techniques in leading the office through marketing efforts, and enhancing financial and budgeting skills (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010a). Additional theories are incorporated into this training, but behavioral orientations appear to be the predominant orientation.

Behavioral theories have been criticized for not providing an “adequate relationship between leaders’ behaviors and outcomes” (Kezar et. al, 2006, p. 10). Context is also an area that lacks with these theories (Kezar et. al, 2006). With this idea, Yukl (1998) suggested that learning leadership behaviors should be based upon specific skills in certain situations. As leadership theories have developed as a whole, the importance of context has been more emphasized, as in the next set of theories that address power and influence.

Power and Influence Theories

Power and influence theories address the situational social exchange process associated with the acquisition and use of power (Burns, 1978; Etzioni, 1961; Raven & French, 1958; Homans, 1958; Zahn & Wolf, 1981). Prominent throughout the twentieth century, power and influence theories address some of the concerns that are associated with trait and behavioral theories (Kezar et. al, 2006). For example, this set of theories addresses important political and situational context that impacts the leader and follower

relationship. The following research provides foundations regarding the types of power, its use, and associations with transactional and transformational leadership.

French and Raven (1959) identify major types of power, which form an underpinning for power and influence theories. Each type of power is limited to the specific situation and range of power (French & Raven, 1959). The five major types of power identified were: Reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert. Reward power is defined as the ability to provide rewards as an exchange. Giving rewards then leads to a higher position of stature for the reward provider (French & Raven, 1959). Coercive power is similar to reward power but a negative association is given rather than a positive one. Legitimate power relates mostly to the power of position and requires that a leader believes he/she has power over someone and the receiver agrees (French & Raven, 1959). This form of power can be influenced by cultural values, social structure, and designated role (French & Raven, 1959). Referent power relates to a mutual respect and feeling of membership between a leader and a follower. An expert power holder is seen to have “superior knowledge or ability in very specific areas” (French & Raven, 1959, p. 352). Raven (1992) conducted a follow-up study building upon French and Raven (1959) where additional elements were added to the definitions of expert and referent power in that they can be negative or positive. The various forms of power, as outlined by French and Raven (1959, 1992), have been related to various aspects of university presidential leadership. For example, Fisher and Koch (1996) argue that the most important forms of power are in this order: (1) referent, (2) expert, (3) legitimate, (4) reward, and (5) coercive. An effective university president should use transformational leadership that incorporates aspects of power and charisma. “Charismatic leaders have an extraordinary

ability to inspire trust, loyalty, confidence, and performance. This distinctly transformational characteristic is measurably the single most important dimension of leadership...” (Fisher and Koch, 1996, p. xii).

Through an extensive review of qualitative and quantitative research, Etzioni (1961, 1975) examined power and aspects of compliance as they related to organizational effectiveness. Compliance is defined as “both a relation in which an actor behaves in accordance with a directive supported by another person’s power and to the orientation of the subject to the power applied” (Etzioni, 1975, p. 21, 22). Compliance structures were compared between various settings and were classified into the following categories: predominantly coercive settings (such as prisons), utilitarian (including peacetime military organizations), normative (including colleges and universities and hospitals), and dual structure settings (such as the majority of unions) (Etzioni, 1975, p. 66).

Burns (1978) viewed power as more of a two-way process and as a relationship. In the discussion of leadership, Burns saw power and influence as playing an integral role in analyzing context and situation. He also viewed power in relation to the needs of both leaders and followers. “Power wielders draw from their power bases resources relevant to their own motives and the motives and resources of others upon whom they exercise power” (Burns, 1978, p. 17). Through this process, power takes many forms, including money, information, status, and political connections. Power also relies on skills such as communication, timing, and judgment (Burns, 1978). Through the foundation of needs, Burns developed three widely cited leadership theories: transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and moral leadership.

Transactional and transformational leadership.

Transactional and transformational leadership are typically defined as a power and influence theory (Burns, 1978; Kezar et. al, 2006). Burns (1978) describes leadership as the “opposite of brute power” (p. 4). With this perspective, leadership is a joint effort between leaders and followers based upon needs, defined as implying “a more socialized, collective, objective phenomenon, in the sense of persons requiring something needful in the view of others, as well as themselves” (Burns, 1978, p. 64). Transformational leadership is also charismatic in nature (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993).

The role of needs is important in the discussion of transactional and transformational leadership. Maslow (1943) developed a widely used hierarchy of needs, which is an important foundation to this discussion. Initial needs must be satisfied in order to attain subsequent, higher level needs. Basic needs are a foundation and the first level, including physiological needs (i.e. air, water, food, shelter). Safety needs are next on the hierarchy and address the ability to function without fear of being endangered. More specifically related to employment, safety needs address people’s desire for job security and protective benefits such as health insurance and retirement savings (Maslow, 1943). Love needs – including belongingness in a group and romantic relationships – comprise Maslow’s next level of needs. Esteem needs are the next step and are defined in self-esteem and esteem from others, including desire for achievement, adequacy, and confidence and recognition and the importance of appreciation. A main tenant at this level is to feel “being necessary in the world” and without meeting these needs, one may feel discouraged and helpless (Maslow, 1943). The highest level on Maslow’s hierarchy is self-actualization, referring to “become actualized in what he (she) is potentially. This

tendency might be phrased as the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming” (p. 383).

The context of need satisfaction is determined by the level of needs that are present. For example, if only basic needs are present, then one’s view of satisfaction is a situation in which there is enough food to meet basic needs. However, higher level needs dominate once they have been realized (Maslow, 1943). Burns (1978) argued that leaders should aim to address the needs of followers that are one level above where they are functioning.

Based upon the concept of needs, Burns (1978) developed three leadership concepts: transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and moral leadership. Transactional leadership, a basic form of leadership that comprises the majority of leader and follower relations, is defined when “leaders approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another: jobs for votes, or subsidies for campaign contributions” (Burns, 1978, p. 4). Transformational leadership, a more complex and dynamic endeavor, is defined when a leader “looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower” (Burns, 1978, p. 4).

These two leadership theories represent a shift in leadership research. For example, transactional leaders exchange rewards or punishment for following or not following. Transformational leaders act in mutual ways with followers, appeal to their higher needs, and inspire followers to move forward to a particular purpose (Bensimon et. al, 1989). Transformational leadership also assumes a role of ethics and moral purpose

(Burns, 1978) and has a focus to match leadership styles with followers' needs and values (Kezar et. al, 2006).

Moral leadership.

Burns (1978) advocated for moral leadership, which included three components: (1) leaders have a relationship of power with followers but also one of “mutual needs, aspirations, and values,” (2) followers have contextual awareness of alternative leaders and programs and the “capacity to choose among those alternatives,” and (3) leaders take “responsibility for their commitments” instead of only saying hollow promises (Burns, 1978, p. 4). Moral leadership is rooted in the “needs, aspirations and values” of followers (Burns, 1978, p. 4).

Aspects of context begin to appear more strongly in power and influence theories. While trait and behavior theories examined characteristics within the leader, this set of theories focuses on a more holistic picture of leadership. The next set of theories takes the focus of context to an additional level of priority.

Contingency Theories

Contingency theories gained popularity in the 1960s and focus on the connection between leadership tasks and the situation (Fiedler, 1970, 1971; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958). The leadership approach is dependent on the situation. This approach looks at aspects outside of the organization while behavioral theories focus on more in-organization aspects (Bensimon et. al, 1989).

Fiedler (1970) discussed implications of contingency theory. In an experiment with Belgian naval officers, Fiedler reported that contingency theory shows that various types of people can be in leadership positions. In addition, leaders can be trained to

become self aware of their own leadership styles and the best situation for success.

Leaders are not effective in all situations (Fiedler, 1970). For example, more structured and routine tasks call for a more “managerial” and directive approach (p. 63). In more unstructured situations (such as times of crisis) there is need for increased discussions, meetings, and conferences in an effort to access various viewpoints and enhance buy-in. In an attempt to address effectiveness, leaders can use various strategies depending on the situation, including the specificity of instructions for tasks, and the position of power can either be increased or decreased (Fiedler, 1970).

In a review of 25 studies regarding contingency theory, Fiedler (1971) identified common definitions and findings. Definitions included *interacting groups* either together or independent, identification of the *least preferred coworker (LPC)* in an effort to establish appropriate leadership styles, use of relationship or task-oriented behaviors, and *situational favorableness* for leadership effectiveness. A review of 15 studies showed that leaders who were more preferred coworkers did best when there were extreme situations (Fiedler, 1971).

Higher education research has also supported the notion that effective leaders must match the situation in which they function (Gilley, Fulmer, & Reithlingshoefer, 1986; Vroom, 1983). However, the specific types of situations and leadership orientations have not been pinpointed. Dill (1984) recommends that a facilitator role is most likely to be effective in working with faculty. For example, a more effective leader in working with faculty is one who “smoothed out problems” and sought resources (Dill, 1984, p. 79).

Even with its strengths in addressing context, contingency theories are not strong in addressing the internal thought processes of leaders or the perspectives of followers. Given the many situations that can be observed in higher education, contingency research appears to be difficult to apply because the answer to effective leadership is often “It depends on the context” and its many variables (Kezar, et. al, 2006). The next set of theories – cognitive orientations – addresses some of these weaknesses, including a greater focus on follower perspectives.

Cognitive Theories

Cognitive theories emphasize how individuals view and attribute actions and outcomes to leaders (Calder, 1977; Meindl, Ehrlich & Dukerich, 1985), task structure (Newell & Simon, 1972), and mental models and the learning organization (Senge, 1990). The importance of perception from both leaders and followers is a highlight of this set of theories (Kezar et. al, 2006). How we attribute behaviors has been a long-lasting inquiry by many disciplines, including psychology, sociology, political science, and higher education, which makes one definition of cognitive theories a challenge (Kezar et. al, 2006). Cognitive theories, on an overarching level, focus on “the mental process of leaders or other individuals involved in leadership processes” (Kezar et. al, 2006, p. 46).

Attribution refers to “the cognitive processes through which individuals infer causation from observed behavior” (Calder, 1977, p. 368). Calder (1977) criticized previous leadership research claiming it did not go beyond what could be gathered from “everyday knowledge” (p. 358). With this belief, Calder (1977) did not desire to extend previous leadership theories but aimed to establish attribution as a central focus of leadership research. Calder believed leadership research aimed to span across too many

contexts, including both an extension of theory and practical everyday application. To address these concerns, Calder emphasized the importance of follower perception, which may or may not be consistent with the attributions from a leader.

Meindl, Ehrlich and Dukerich (1985) researched how romanticism can be attributed to the role of leadership from followers and leaders, including concepts of charisma, heroism, and prestige. “The concept of leadership is a perception that plays a part in the way people attempt to make sense out of organizationally relevant phenomena. Moreover, in this sense-making process, leadership has assumed a romanticized, larger-than-life role” (Meindl et. al, 1985, p. 79). To assess this romantic view of leadership, the following studies were conducted: (1) an archival analysis of popular newspaper coverage of businesses, (2) dissertation topics addressing leadership, (3) archival research with general business periodicals, and (4) experimental studies, including how attribution varies with performance with positive outcomes (Meindl et. al, 1985). Results indicated that both positive and negative outcomes were attributed to leaders and that leaders can assume some responsibility in defining how meanings are attributed.

Through a review of literature, Newell and Simon (1972) developed two components of problem solving, which is a component of cognitive theories: the space or environment of the problem and the interpretation of the problem from the leader or problem solver. The space or context of the problem provides a structure for what orientations might be appropriate. The leader then searches the problem “space” in order to find relevant solutions.

Taking a more comprehensive approach, Senge (1990) emphasized that cognitive development is the responsibility of the entire organization, not only a few leaders. He

calls for organizations to become “learning organizations,” and this continuous process of learning is shown through an “ensemble” of disciplines, including: systems thinking (the view that all organizational parts interconnect), personal mastery (where organizations encourage personal vision and skill growth), mental models (how “deeply ingrained assumptions and generalizations” impact our understanding), building a shared vision (a collective view of the future with buy-in from numerous constituents), and team learning (where individual members grow and develop as well as the team) (Senge, 1990, p. 440, 442).

Senge’s disciplines relate to the present day times of a volatile higher education system, where many institutions are in survival mode. “Survival learning’ or what is more often termed ‘adaptive learning’ is important – indeed it is necessary. But for a learning organization, ‘adaptive learning’ must be joined by ‘generative learning,’ learning that enhances our capacity to create” (Senge, 1990, p. 444).

The work of Senge (1990) – along with Newell and Simon (1972), Meindl et. al (1985), and Calder, 1977 – form a representation of cognitive leadership theories. Research about cognitive processes can “open the door” for future studies that address a more subjective experience (Kezar et. al, 2006). Theories that address culture and symbols will be discussed next.

Cultural/Symbolic Theories

Community and meaning making are important leadership endeavors in cultural and symbolic orientations (Bergquist, 1992, 2008; Schein, 1992, 1996, 2010). Contextual factors also emerge as important factors that leadership is connected with the higher education institution’s culture and values. In addition, rituals and stories make leadership

a “meaningful” process that acknowledges context and interaction as well as symbols (Kezar et. al, 2006, p. 7). The use of symbols will be explained more in the symbolic frame discussion of Bolman and Deal’s (1984, 1991, 2008) Multiple Frame Leadership Model.

First, however, organizational culture will be discussed, since symbols, rituals, stories, and the like are often attributed to organizations rather than singular leaders.

Schein (1985) provided a detailed definition of organizational culture as:

A pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems (Schein, 1985, p. 9).

Schein (1992), as cited in Schein (1996), expanded upon the original definition of organizational culture as “the set of shared, taken-for-granted implicit assumptions that a group holds and that determines how it perceives, thinks about, and reacts to its various environments” (Schein, 1996, p. 236). An important note is that culture often includes subtle and unwritten rules. Culture can be so subtle that workers are not aware of their own culture until they experience a new one (Schein, 1996).

Through an examination of quantitative and qualitative research, Schein (1996, 2010) described three cultures of management: the operators, engineers, and executives. First, the operators are the most common form of managers. They are sometimes called “the line” and assist with carrying out the organization’s mission (Schein, 1996, p. 236). Next, the engineers design structures that help the operators run more smoothly, often

through technology. In the case of career services, an information coordinator or online recruiting systems manager might be classified in the engineer category while a career development director might take on a more operator-type role. Schein (1996) notes that the “operators” and “engineers” may disagree in how to carry out the organization’s mission with operators utilizing a more human approach and engineers focusing on an alternative, technical solution. Top-level executives, including CEOs, are considered to be in the “executive category” (Schein, 1996, 2010).

Culture has emerged as a popular leadership topic due to the complex and “baffling” dynamics of organizations (Bergquist, 1992, p. 1, 2008). In relation to career service directors, they must navigate the specific institutional culture in order to effectively provide services with students, employers, faculty, and university administrators. Bergquist (1992, 2008), building on the work of Tierney (1988), went beyond looking at single institutions related to culture and identified six cultures within academic institutions. Through a literature review, Bergquist (1992, 2008) identified the collegial, managerial, developmental, advocacy, virtual, and tangible cultures, which are different in perspectives, values, and leadership qualities. The latter two cultures were added in the 2008 text in response to changing cultures related to virtual components of higher education and global perspectives. These cultures are summarized in the table below.

Table 6

Six Cultures of the Academy: Perspectives, Values, and Leadership Qualities

Culture	Perspectives	Values	Leadership qualities
Collegial	Goal focuses on generating and interpreting knowledge	Faculty research and scholarship	Character, wisdom, and vision; Politically savvy
Managerial	Define clear goals and objectives; Develop specific student knowledge, skills, and attitudes	Financial responsibility, effective supervisory skills	Competence – reflecting competence and developing that in students, faculty and staff; Accountability
Developmental	Geared toward personal and professional growth of collegiate community	Service to others Personal openness Assumes members of community strive to be better and reach potential	Used more indirectly; Use of “expert” power and charisma; Collaboration; Empowerment
Advocacy	Equitable and egalitarian policies to distribute resources; Aims to establish new social attitudes and structures	Confrontation and fair bargaining, especially between management and faculty/staff	Mediation; Mindful of actions and influence on others; Setting clear expectations; Collaboration; service
Virtual	Broaden global learning networks through technology	Open and collaborative global perspectives	Open to change, ambiguity and new ideas for defining higher education
Tangible	Spiritual perspectives, historical context and tradition	Familiarity of values-based traditions, physical space of a campus	Honor the past through current actions, local perspective, symbols, and process

Note. Source adapted from Bergquist, 1992, 2008

The cultures of the academy presented above highlight the array of organizational contexts in higher education and are present in all institutions (Bergquist, 1992, 2008). They also highlight the variety of dynamics that are present within the academy for career service directors' interactions with faculty and university administrators. Bergquist (1992, 2008) proposes that the cultures above are mixed within higher education settings, with one main culture and the other cultures interacting as secondary cultures. This cultural context creates an important consideration for higher education leaders as they strive to develop a vision for the future.

In this section, six foundational leadership theories have been reviewed that provide a prominent conceptual framework for current and future leadership research, including aspects related to traits, behaviors, power and influence, the situation (and contingency theories), cognitive aspects, and culture. Some leadership theories utilize combined aspects of the previously discussed themes. For example, Bolman and Deal (1991, 2008) propose a multiple frame model of leadership that combines aspects of cognitive reframing depending upon the situation and context, and Bass (1985) created the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, which addresses aspects of transactional and transformational leadership along two additional variables (effective versus ineffective and active versus passive). Combining aspects of leadership theories has led researchers to address components of organizational effectiveness, which is a foundational component of the Bolman and Deal Multiple Frame Leadership Model (1984, 1991, 2008). Before examining the Bolman and Deal model, the Competing Values Framework will be explored. This foundational aspect will provide an important understanding of the model used for this study.

Organizational Effectiveness

Organizational effectiveness is an outcome that leaders overall strive to attain (Bass, 2008; Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Related to this inquiry, career service directors are often charged with the task of implementing assessments that address organizational effectiveness, including student and alumni job attainment reports and preparing students for internships and employment (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2007, 2009, 2010b). Students may define an effective institution by an attainment of quality employment following graduation (Lucas, 1986; National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2007, 2009, 2010b; Sovilla, 1979; Watts & Dent, 2006).

In order to be effective, organizations must address competing values (Quinn, Hildebrandt, Rogers, & Thompson, 1991; Quinn & McGrath, 1982; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). A framework for addressing competing values addresses a transformational cycle at the individual level, including the power of reframing (Quinn, 1988). This framework has great applicability related to career service directors, who must provide leadership with internal and external constituents. This varying group of students, alumni, employers, and university administrators may not always agree on the definition of an effective career services office. The body of effectiveness research – in specific the Competing Values Framework –formed a basis for Bolman and Deal’s Multiple Frame Leadership Model (1984, 1991, 2008). The Competing Values Framework will now be examined followed by a review of the Bolman and Deal model.

Competing Values Framework

Numerous researchers have attempted to define the characteristics of an effective organization (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Studies by Bluedorn (1980), Campbell (1977), Hannah and Freeman (1977), and Steers (1975) found discrepant variables between studies regarding effectiveness. Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) sought to address this discrepancy by approaching the question of organizational effectiveness in a different way. They asked how 45 experts thought about effective organizations. Through multidimensional scaling, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) asked organizational researchers and theorists about pairs of effectiveness criteria. Through this process, they developed a cognitive map and scheme, the competing values framework, which is provided in Figure 1 below. Competing values frameworks are most useful in addressing organizational effectiveness when, “The organization is unclear about its own criteria, or change in criteria over time are of interest” (Cameron, 1984, p. 276).

Quinn (1988) described the nature of the competing values framework:

The criteria seem to initially carry a conflictual message. We want our organizations to be adaptable and flexible, but also want them to be stable and controlled. We want growth, resource acquisition, and external support, but we also want tight information management and formal communication. We want an emphasis on the value of human resources, but we also want an emphasis on planning and goal setting” (p. 49).

The competing values framework has two axes with two extremes on each axis (flexibility versus control and internal versus external) (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Four quadrants or models are proposed: rational goal, open system, human relations, and internal process. Output and quality are a balance of the four quadrants in the center.

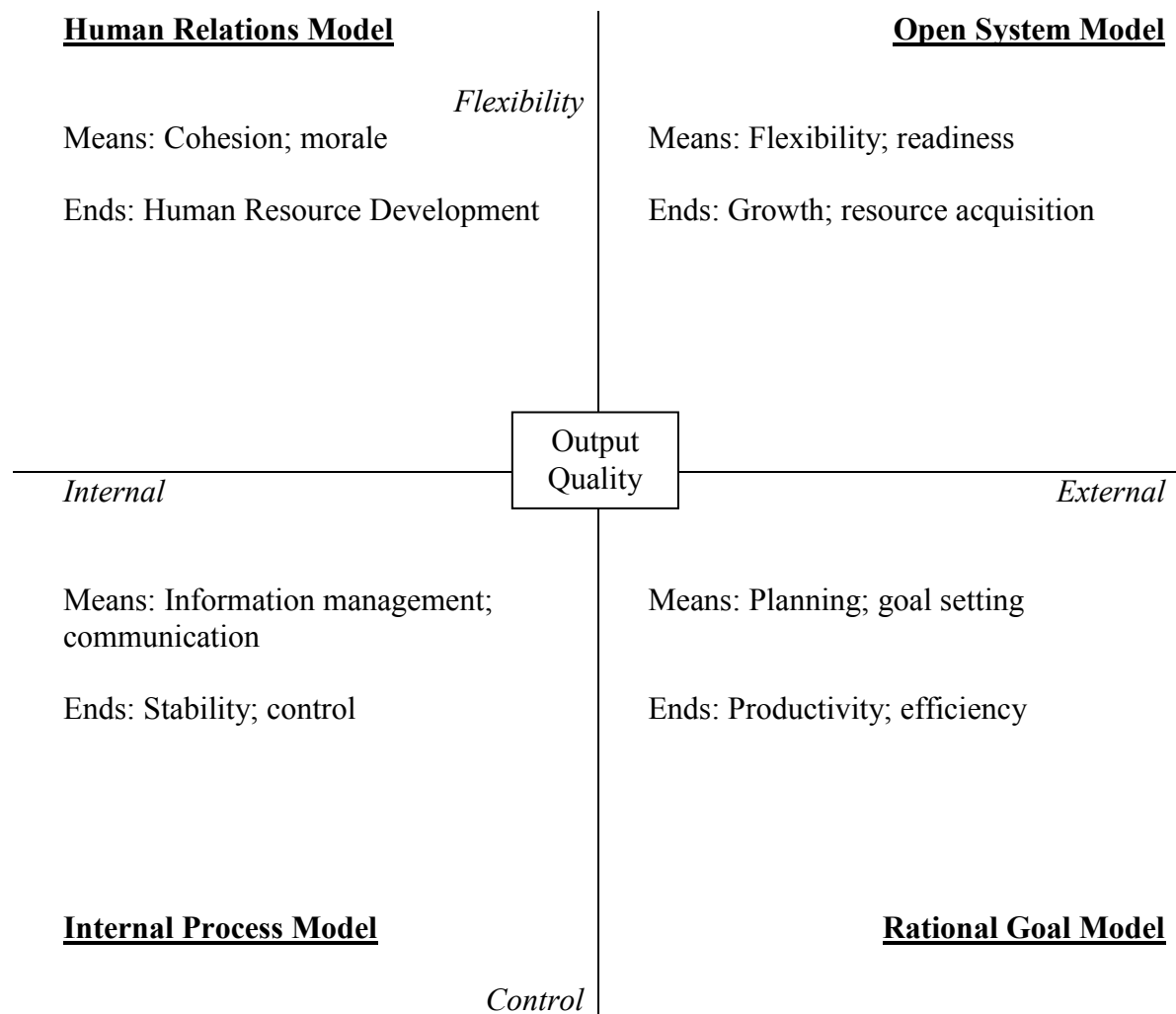


Figure 1. Competing Values Framework from Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983, p. 269.

Transformational Cycle

Quinn (1988) discussed a transformational cycle for how organizations can address effectiveness. The transformational cycle addresses how “excellence occurs” in the midst of continuous change (Quinn, 1988, p. 15). Four phases were proposed for this cycle: initiation, uncertainty, transformational, and routinization. Subcomponents of this cycle are present within each phase, and a person must continually adapt to each dynamic. (1) Initiation is the first phase, where leaders identify a problem and are challenged to take risks in addressing change via new actions. Uneasiness can lead to

panic from individuals or groups throughout this phase. (2) The second phase is uncertainty. For persons amenable to the change, they may experiment with how to address the problem and in turn, develop creative insight. Panic can still be a byproduct in this phase due to a shifting environment, but creative insight can then lead to the next phase. (3) Transformation is the process by which organizations address a problem through creativity and reframing. (4) The last phase of Quinn's (1988) Transformational Model is routinization. The change and impact of the transformational stage has become more common and the freshness has worn off. The high level of change and effectiveness from the transformational stage cannot maintain itself, and the organization reaches a state of equilibrium. At the heart of this process is reframing, which will now be discussed in further detail.

Reframing.

The most insightful part of the Transformational Cycle is that of reframing. Following creative insight, reframing means "moving to a different kind of comprehension" of a problem; it is a "new view that suddenly makes sense of a contradictory situation" (Quinn, 1988, p. 20). Numerous researchers and theorists have tried to understand the process of how one goes about making patterns and sense of the world, and therefore synonymous terms are present for "reframing," including cognitive maps (Weick & Bougon, 1986), and paradigms (Pfeffer, 1981).

Reframing is at the core of the transformational phase and is a "primary capacity of the master manager" and where "excellence occurs" (Quinn, 1988, p. 20, 21). In the process of reframing, opposites are brought together where the observer can now "see" a problem from multiple perspectives (p. 21). This process is similar to the theory of

integrative complexity discussed by Tetlock (1983). Using multiple frames demonstrates a “higher level of cognitive differentiation (e.g., recognizing a variety of aspects) and integration (e.g., developing complex connections among different aspects)” (Bensimon, 1989, p. 111). The impact of reframing and paradox is shown in Rothenberg (1979), who says that the work of historical inventors and artists is a byproduct of the ability to think about the interplay of two opposite concepts. Rothenberg (1979) reported about the accomplishments of inventors and artists who used this form of thinking, including Einstein and Mozart. Similarly, Cameron (1986) argues that organizational effectiveness is inherently tied into paradox because “the construct of effectiveness can be understood in only a limited way without considering simultaneous contradictions” (p. 549).

Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) used reframing to develop a leadership theory. They define a frame as “a coherent set of ideas forming a prism or lens that enables you to see and understand more clearly what goes on from day to day” (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 43). Multiple frame orientations provide numerous benefits for leadership. Multiple framing helps shape how situations are defined and helps determine what actions to take (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008; Mabey, 2003; Quinn, 1988, Quinn & Cameron, 1985). By assessing and approaching a leadership problem from numerous perspectives, multiple frames assist with leader self-awareness and “blind” spots (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008). Weick (1986) reported that frames help determine the definition of a problem and what orientations to take in solving it. This model assumes people see the world differently in a complex and ambiguous context (Bolman & Deal, 1991). The use of a multiple-frame approach also assumes that not all problems can be solved in the same way or with the same frames so multiple frames must

be used (Bolman & Deal, 1991, 2008). Taking multiple perspectives would be valuable in assessing the leadership of career service directors as they aim to be effective in a variety of tasks with constituencies.

Bolman and Deal: Use of Multiple Frames

Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) was used as the conceptual framework for this research and utilizes a dynamic model of multiple frame leadership building upon the work of Quinn & Rohrbaugh (1983) and the competing values framework (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991; Thompson, 2000). This “balanced” model is also related to numerous leadership theories as identified by Kezar et. al (2006), including cognitive theories where framing affects the way leaders view a problem (Eddy, 2003) and social constructivism, where leaders are influenced by the context of their organization (Bass, 2008).

In emphasizing the context of leadership, Bolman and Deal (1994) noted, “Leadership is hard to quantify because it's constantly dynamic and very difficult to freeze” (p. 81). Because leadership is a dynamic process, Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) examined multiple perspectives and how four frames could be used in different situations. Leaders tend to gravitate to the perspectives or frames in which they are most comfortable using (Bolman & Deal, 1991). In carrying out the daily challenges of being a leader, blind spots and weaknesses can be observed due to the amount of energy devoted to solving organizational problems (Quinn, 1988). Bolman and Deal (1991) assume that leaders cannot demonstrate “consistent patterns” of behavior associated with the four frames unless their “mental maps” contain corresponding frame elements (p. 514).

Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) present four frames: structural, human resources, political, and symbolic. Table seven provides a summary of definitions and examples of these frames.

Table 7

Overview of Bolman and Deal (2008) Four-frame Leadership Model

	Structural	Human Resources	Political	Symbolic
Metaphor	Factory or machine	Family	Jungle	Carnival, theater
Central concepts	Rules, roles, goals, policies, technology, environment	Needs, skills, relationships	Power, conflict, competition, org. politics	Culture, meaning, metaphor, ritual, ceremony, stories, heroes
Image of leadership	Social architecture	Empowerment	Advocacy and political savvy	Inspiration
Basic Leadership Challenge	Attune structure to task, technology, environment	Align organizational human needs	Develop agenda and power base	Create faith, beauty, meaning
Proposed Related theories	Cognitive, Contingency	Trait, behavioral, social change	Power and influence	Cultural/Symbolic

Note. First four rows from Bolman and Deal (2008) p. 18

These frames were confirmed by two studies (Bolman & Deal, 1991): 1. A qualitative analysis of critical incidents written by managers to assess how many and which frames were used and (2) Survey instruments to assess managers' frame orientations, which used a regression analysis. Usually, leaders only use two frames in handling problems (Bolman & Deal, 1991). This model has generated research within various disciplines, including human resources and education (Bolman & Deal, 1991, 2008), and it also draws from a variety of concepts and theories in social sciences,

including sociology, psychology, political science, and anthropology (Bolman & Deal, 2008).

The frames presented by Bolman and Deal (1991, 1994, 2008) will now be further examined in terms of each frame's definition, major theories that led to the frame, assumptions, and examples of when the frame is beneficial.

Bolman and Deal: Structural Frame

Definition.

Bolman and Deal (1991) define the structural frame as emphasizing goals and efficiency where “effective organizations define clear goals, differentiate people into specific roles, and coordinate diverse activities through policies, rules, and chain of command” (p. 511). Structural leaders look to identify how the organization and environment can be changed to create more efficient operations (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 1994, 2008). Leaders using a structural approach change the environment by addressing chains of command, policies, rules, and technology (Bolman & Deal, 1991, 2008). The structural frame provides a context and foundation for how both leaders and workers interact and function.

Foundational theories of the structural frame.

Bolman and Deal (2008) identify key foundational aspects to the structural frame, including the classic works of Taylor (1911) regarding scientific management, Weber (1968) and his discussion of the organization as a bureaucracy, and Thompson (1967), who meshed the concepts of Weber and Taylor in open versus closed systems. Morgan (1986, 2006) also provided modern insight into the structural frame through the machine metaphor.

Taylor (1911) produced hallmark research in organizational behavior related to the interaction of supervisors and workers and the enhancement of efficiency. Taylor believed that a more scientific approach in management could lead to a more efficient operation. Taylor coined the term “scientific management,” which included aspects of logic, harmony between managers and workers, cooperation, and a goal of maximum output as opposed to a restricted one. The role of the manager and leader was to equip workers to complete a job successfully through new tasks and orientations with an emphasis on scientific and systematic methods (Taylor, 1911). These included: incorporation of this approach into each worker’s tasks; select, train and enhance each worker’s skills; foster a spirit of collaboration with workers; the manager or leader took on additional responsibilities as compared to past orientations where the workers bore a greater role, especially for those tasks that the workers are not fit to complete (Taylor, 1911).

Sociologist Max Weber (1968) also informed the structural form through classic research regarding the modern bureaucracy or “Officialdom.” Weber defined a bureaucracy with jurisdictional areas ordered by rules, laws, and regulations where there is a clear and “rational” office hierarchy of superiors and subordinates. Contrary to Taylor’s belief that managers or leaders must foster a sense of collaboration, Weber proposed a clear social distinction between each layer of the bureaucracy. For example, the manager or leader is seen as impersonal and has a higher social status than those below him or her on the hierarchy.

Thompson (1967) also emphasized the role of rationality in organizations but focused on how this concept produces results through addressing problems and solving

them. To that end, Thompson looked to meld two distinct ways of thinking about organizations with both closed systems, such as Taylor and Weber, and with open systems where organizational roles evolved depending on the problem or situation (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Thompson, 1967). During the process of addressing changing dynamics and uncertainty, Thompson (1967) identified technology, human needs, and other aspects of the environment, such as social conditions.

Morgan (1986, 2006) provided the image of machine as a modern day equivalent metaphor to the bureaucracy. The machine metaphor highlights how organizations operate in a “routinized, efficient, reliable and predictable way” (2006, p. 13). With inspiration from the industrial revolution, the military and factories, leaders using the machine metaphor “set goals and objectives and go for them; organize rationally, efficiently, and clearly; specify every detail so that everyone will be sure of the jobs that they have to perform; and plan, organize, and control, control, control” (2006, p. 26). This systematic process has both advantages and disadvantages. Organizational machine-like orientations work well when there is a straightforward task in a stable environment, when replication of a same product is required, and when workers are “compliant” and “behave as they have been designed to do” (2006, p. 27). On the other hand, limitations and disadvantages are present for the machine metaphor, including a lack of adaptability to change, an unquestioning and mindless work environment, and “dehumanizing” effects for employees (2006, p. 28).

Assumptions of the structural frame.

Bolman and Deal (2008) identify six assumptions of the structural frame:

(1) Organizations exist to achieve established goals and objectives. (2) Organizations increase efficiency and enhance performance through specialization and appropriate division of labor. (3) Suitable forms of coordination and control ensure that diverse efforts of individuals and units mesh. (4) Organizations work best when rationality prevails over personal agendas and extraneous pressures. (5) Structures must be designed to fit an organization's current circumstances (including its goals, technology, workforce, and environment). (6) Problems arise and performance suffers from structural deficiencies, which can be remedied through analysis and restructuring (p. 47).

From the structural perspective, there is a belief that organizations are rationale. Through this rationality, logical decisions are made that reduce distractions for workers and in turn, they are more productive (Bolman & Deal, 2008).

Examples of when the structural frame is beneficial.

Use of the structural frame is most effective when the right roles and relationships are present within the organization (Bolman & Deal, 2008). There is no one correct way to form an organizational structure, but rather the goal of structure should be to match the organization's problems, goals, and culture (Bolman & Deal, 2008). At its best, structure can provide a reliable and predictable work environment (Bolman & Deal, 2008) but can at its worst provide a constraining and limiting context (Argyris, 1964, 1998).

There are certainly decisions present in structuring an organization. These organizational questions include differentiation (how to allocate work) and integration ("how to coordinate diverse efforts once responsibilities have been parceled out" (Bolman & Deal, p. 52). Organizations must also consider how to structure through

vertical and lateral coordination where vertical coordination addresses more macro-level authority, rules and policies, and planning systems (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Mintzberg, 1979; Perrow, 1986) and lateral coordination addresses formal and informal meetings, task forces, coordinating roles, and networks (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Ghoshal & Bartlett, 1990).

Bolman and Deal: Human Resources Frame

Definition.

Bolman and Deal (1991) define the human resources frame as focusing “attention on human needs and assumes that organizations that meet basic human needs will work better than those that do not” (p. 511). The human resources frame is more focused on relationships and feelings as compared to the structural frame. The human resources frame – with a metaphor of family – emphasizes the goodness of fit between the employee and job tasks (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008). Ideally, a congruency is found between the two, which can lead to an alignment of organizational and human needs (Bolman & Deal 1991, 2008; Kristoff-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Ployhart, 2006). The image of leadership for this frame is of empowerment.

Foundational theories of the human resources frame.

University career service offices have implemented similar approaches to the human resources frame in empowering both students and staff. As career staff assists students in seeking a foundation of self awareness, they too must learn specific skills and training. Frank Parsons (“the Father of Guidance”) wrote an influential book called *Choosing a Vocation*. Parsons (1909) created the foundation for trait and factor theory. Parsons believed in a three-step process of career development: (1) Gain a clear

understanding of yourself. (2) Obtain knowledge about the world of work. (3) Acquire true reasoning on the relation of these two groups of facts (Parsons, 1909). Today, Parsons' foundation is widely used in university career centers and throughout career development realms, including use during individual and group sessions and with standardized assessment inventories, including those that measure aptitude, achievement, interests, values, and personality. Gaining self awareness was also a foundation for university career service leaders, which currently provide commonly used inventories for staff development, including the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and StrengthsQuest.

Needs and attribution are also a component of the human resources frame. In addition to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, McGregor (1960) emphasized the importance of building and emphasizing healthy interpersonal relationships between leaders and followers and that workers naturally want to grow and develop in a fostering environment. McGregor (1960) also challenged the concept of interactions between managers and followers by addressing the implicit assumptions that can be made: that workers overall lack ambition, are passive, lack a drive for responsibility, prefer to be led, dislike change, and are not perceptive to organizational needs. McGregor (1960) called this assumption Theory X. McGregor found that managers utilized a "hard" or "soft" approach to Theory X. Hard approaches were identified as being more associated with overt coercion, threats, and a more authoritarian style. Soft approaches to Theory X were often associated with an avoidance of conflict where a feigned sense of joy was present. McGregor (1960) believed that this view was a self-fulfilling prophecy, that if managers or leaders treat followers in a certain manner, then that is how one will respond. Theory Y was defined as McGregor's main belief in that "the essential task of management is to

arrange conditions so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing efforts toward organizational rewards” (p. 61).

Assumptions of the human resources frame.

Bolman and Deal (2008) identify core assumptions of the human resources frame, which was built upon the value of people in organizations being a vital component that can “make or break” an organization:

(1) Organizations exist to serve human needs rather than the converse. (2) People and organizations need each other. Organizations need ideas, synergy, and talent; people need careers, salaries, and opportunities. (3) When the fit between individual and system is poor, one or both suffer. Individuals are exploited or exploit the organization – or both become victims. (4) A good fit benefits both. Individuals find meaningful and satisfying work, and organizations get the talent and energy they need to succeed (p. 122).

If strategies are implemented halfheartedly, they will not succeed. Success requires a long-term commitment and comprehensive strategy (Hackman & Wageman, 1995; Powell, 1995).

Examples of when the human resources frame is beneficial.

The occupational person and environment fit has been researched from a number of perspectives, including person-job (French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1974; Holland, 1985; Lofquist & Dawis, 1969; Parsons, 1909; Super, 1953) and person-organization (Chatman, 1989; O’Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991). Workers can have two types of fit with the environment (and vice versa): complimentary (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987; Kristoff, 1996) and supplementary (Kristoff-Brown, 2006). A complimentary fit is when there are similar characteristics for the person and workplace

environment (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987) or where individuals fulfill a gap in need in the environment or vice versa (Kristoff, 1996). A supplementary fit is when the worker and environment are only similar and shows a weaker relationship with job attitudes (Kristoff-Brown et. al, 2006).

Kristoff-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson (2005) conducted a meta-analysis of 172 studies of job-person fit and controlled for variance due to sampling errors. The following positive benefits were strongly correlated with a good fit in relation to the person and job: job satisfaction (.56), organizational commitment (.47), and a reduced intent to leave (-.46). Moderate correlations were found with coworker satisfaction (.32), supervisor satisfaction (.33), and organizational identification (.36). For person and organization fit, Kristoff-Brown et. al (2006) found strong correlations with job satisfaction (.44) and organizational commitment (.51).

The wide range of definitions for “fit” in individuals and the environment is a challenge for research. For example, in a meta-analysis of occupational person and environment fit, Kristof-Brown et. al (2006) reported that “fit” has included a variety of concepts: need-satisfaction, demand-ability matches, skills, needs, values, personality, and goals. This varying level of definition makes pinpointing a successful employee-employer match a challenge.

Bolman and Deal: Political Frame

Definition.

In the political frame, organizations are “arenas of continuing conflict and competition among different interests for scarce resources. Political leaders are advocates and negotiators who value realism and pragmatism. They spend much of their time

networking, creating coalitions, building a power base, and negotiating compromises” (Bolman & Deal, 1991, p. 512). The political frame functions under the assumption that leadership is naturally connected to conflict, especially in the context of competition for scarce resources (Bolman & Deal, 1991, 1994, 2008). This frame, with its metaphor of a jungle, emphasizes a leader’s ability to organize and develop alliances in a heated political environment (Bolman & Deal, 1991, 2008). Images of leadership include advocacy and political savvy while striving to develop an agenda and power base (Bolman & Deal, 2008). This frame is most closely linked with power and influence theories provided by Kezar et. al (2006). Foundational theories have been previously addressed in the power and influence theories section.

Assumptions of the political frame.

The political frame does not view politics in a negative light; rather politics are inherent in the process where competing needs are present (Bolman & Deal, 2008): “The political frame does not blame politics on individual characteristics such as selfishness, myopia, or incompetence. Instead, it proposes that interdependence, divergent interests, scarcity, and power relations inevitably spawn political activity” (p. 194). Five assumptions are identified by Bolman and Deal, 2008, p. 194, 105:

(1) Organizations are coalitions of assorted individuals and interest groups. (2) Coalition members have enduring differences in values, beliefs, information, interests, and perceptions of reality. (3) Most important decisions involve allocating scarce resources – who gets what. (4) Scarce resources and enduring differences put conflict at the center of day-to-day dynamics and make power the most important asset. (5) Goals

and decisions emerge from bargaining and negotiation among competing stakeholders jockeying for their own interests.

Examples of when the political frame is beneficial.

The political frame's value is observed when resources are scarce (Bolman & Deal, 1991, 2008), as in today's higher education landscape. Previously mentioned topics of power and influence are relevant here as well, including the definitions of power by French and Raven (1959). Political ramifications are seen throughout institutions of higher education in terms of obtaining state funding (McLendon, Hearn & Mohker, 2009), cost and sharing (Johnstone, 2004), curriculum development (Leathwood & Phillips, 2000), the role of the university president (Birnbaum, 1992; Cohen & March, 1974), and student affairs functions (Kuk & Banning, 2009).

Bolman and Deal: Symbolic Frame

Definition.

The last frame proposed by Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) is the symbolic frame. Bolman and Deal (1991) define the symbolic frame as seeing “a chaotic world in which meaning and predictability are social creations, and facts are interpretative rather than objective” (p. 512). This frame attempts to tap into the underlying motivations of workers as shown through charisma, rituals, meaning, culture, metaphor, ceremony, stories, and heroes (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Ortner, 1973). With its image of leadership being inspiration, leaders who use this frame have goals of creating meaning and buy-in from employees. Having a metaphor of a carnival or theater, this frame is most closely associated with cultural and symbolic theories presented by Kezar et. al (2006).

Foundational theories of the symbolic frame.

The symbolic frame attempts to address under-the-surface dynamics through the examination of symbols, stories, and charisma. This next section includes a brief introduction to the origins of the symbolic frame and is not aimed to be all inclusive. This includes the definition of symbols (Ortner, 1973) and the use of stories and culture in higher education (Clark, 1972; Tierney, 1989a, 1989b).

Ortner (1973), building upon the work of Schneider (1968), identified symbols from an anthropological perspective. Two main types of symbols were identified by Ortner (1973): summarizing and elaborating. Summarizing symbols are seen as “expressing, representing for the participants in an emotionally powerful and relatively undifferentiated way, what the system means to them” (Ortner, 1973, p. 1339). Examples of summarizing symbols include the American flag, which some view as a number of combined symbols for the “American Way.” Elaborating symbols are analytic and focus on “providing vehicles for sorting out complex and undifferentiated feelings and ideas, making them comprehensible to oneself, communicable to others, and translatable into orderly action” (p. 1340). Elaborating symbols are more relative to each context and situation. An example of an elaborating symbol identified by Ortner (1973) is the Horatio Alger myth: that success and wealth in America can be attained through hard work, even if one is from a non-wealthy background.

The use of stories and symbols has been noted as a component of leadership in higher education (Clark, 1972; Tierney, 1988, 1989b). Clark examined stories in higher education through organizational sagas or stories, which are defined as “a collective understanding of unique accomplishments in a formally established group” (p. 178). This

includes “nonstructural” and “nonrational” aspects of organizational achievement and life (p. 178). Sagas can form a unique bond and affiliation within higher education and can take an unstable or stable form. If unstable, interpretation of such a story can be altered quickly. Clark (1972) reported unstable stories must be repeated in order to maintain a positive connotation. On the other hand, sagas can be highly stable if built in structured social contexts. In previous research, Clark (1960) found that strong sagas develop in active – rather than passive – organizations. Sagas can be fulfilled at various levels of the institution, including personnel, programs, and the student subculture (Clark, 1972).

Tierney (1988) aimed to provide a working framework for organizational culture in higher education. Linking various concepts to culture, Tierney (1988) expressed that culture is “grounded in the shared assumptions of individuals participating in the organization. Often taken for granted by the actors themselves, these assumptions can be identified through stories, special language, norms, institutional ideology, and attitudes that emerge from individual and organizational behavior” (p. 4). Stories, therefore, are byproducts of organizational culture, according to Tierney (1988). Occurring at many levels of the institution and system, culture impacts decision making.

Tierney (1989) developed a framework for how college presidents used symbolism. Through semi-structured interviews with 32 college and university presidents, Tierney explored the meaning of “good” presidential leadership and tasks of a successful leader. Types of symbols were identified, including *metaphorical symbols* (such as being “the glue” of the organization), *physical symbols* (including allocation of physical space and wearing of school colors and logos), *communicative symbols* (such as “rubbing elbows” with students and faculty), *structural symbols* (such as adding a

position to the staff council), *personification symbols* (such as giving particular attention to a student group), and *ideational symbols* (including the development of a new idea).

Assumptions of the symbolic frame.

Bolman and Deal (2008) identify five assumptions for the symbolic frame:

(1) What is most important is not what happens but what it means. (2) Activity and meaning are loosely coupled; events and actions have multiple interpretations as people experience life differently. (3) Facing uncertainty and ambiguity, people create symbols to resolve confusion, find direction, and anchor hope and faith. (4) Events and processes are often more important for what is expressed than for what is produced. Their emblematic form weaves a tapestry of secular myths, heroes and heroines, rituals, ceremonies, and stories to help people find purpose and passion. (5) Culture forms the superglue that bonds an organization, unites people, and helps an enterprise accomplish desired ends (p. 253).

Examples of when the symbolic frame is beneficial.

Symbols exist in an organization, even if they are not acknowledged (Tierney, 1989). They are of such great importance that they are intertwined into the fabric of an organization: “To speak of organizations is to speak of interpretation and symbols. An organization void of symbolism is an organization bereft of human activity” (p. 154). Symbolism is also jointly associated with expectations and understanding of leadership (p. 156). The symbolic frame is especially useful in times of uncertainty and ambiguity (Cohen & March 1986) and during times of change and creation of a vision (Kotter, 1996). Bolman and Deal (2008) argue that the symbolic frame is useful when “turnover is high and resources are tight.”

Managers are inescapably accountable for budget and bottom line; they have to respond to individual needs, legal requirements, and economic pressures. But they can serve a deeper and more durable function if they recognize that team building at its heart is a spiritual undertaking. It is both a search for the spirit within and creation of a community of believers united by shared faith and shared culture. Peak performance emerges as a team discovers its soul (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 291).

Benefits of Bolman and Deal Frames

The Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) frames have been researched from a number of perspectives, including human resources (Mabey, 2003), aspects of gender (Thompson, 2000), and also secondary education and executive management (Bolman & Deal, 1991). This section provides an introductory perspective of this research.

Bolman and Deal (1991) developed the Leadership Orientations Survey (LOS), which can be used as a self-evaluation or an evaluation of another (such as a subordinate or supervisor). Bolman and Deal used a regression analysis to assess effective managers and leaders. Effectiveness was a dependent variable and the four frames were the independent variables for both effective management and leadership. Effectiveness was defined by responses to two questions: rate the overall effectiveness as a leader and as a manager on a five-point scale with five being the top 20 percent and one equaling the bottom 20 percent. Predetermined definitions of leader and manager were not provided because Bolman and Deal (1991) wanted to learn the meaning attributed to those terms. Both effective management and leadership varied with the organizational context. This study was completed with corporate middle managers, higher education administrators, United States K-12 administrators, and Singapore K-12 school administrators. Each

group was given the same survey regarding leadership orientations and the two overall effectiveness questions. Given these four groups, the most relevant to this inquiry are the corporate middle managers and higher education administrators.

Effective leadership did not equate to effective management, as summarized in the table below. In terms of effective leadership for corporate middle managers, the symbolic frame was most effective followed by political and human resource. For effective higher education leaders, symbolic was found to be most effective followed by political and human resources. In terms of management, effective corporate middle managers utilized political and human resource frames while effective higher education administrators used structural and political frames. Effective leaders appear to be more symbolic, even though educational programs for managers focus more on structural and human resource components (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

Table 8

Leadership and Management Effectiveness Patterns with Bolman and Deal Frames

Variable	Corporate middle managers	Higher education administrators
Effective <i>leaders</i> are highest on:	Symbolic, political, human resources	Symbolic, political, human resources, structural
Effective <i>managers</i> are highest on:	Political, human resources	Structural, political, human resources

Note. Source from Bolman & Deal, 1991, p. 525

In that same published study, Bolman and Deal also used a qualitative study using accounts of critical incidents. United States higher education leaders used the political frame in more than 70 percent of cases. It is interesting to note that for school administrators in Singapore political frames were infrequently used while human resource frames were universal. Most incidents across all three groups (United States

higher education administrators, United States public school administrators, and Singapore public school administrators) showed one or two frames used, and the structural frame was present in 60 percent of cases while the symbolic frame was present in less than 20 percent (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

Follow-up reports examined the use of frames depending upon the situation, including aspects related to individual commitment and motivation, the technical quality of the decision, levels of ambiguity, the level of resources, and the structure of the worker within the organization. The table below describes when to select the appropriate frame in general terms, which can guide the process of decision making but is not a foolproof method:

Table 9

When to Choose a Bolman and Deal Frame Most Effectively

Question	If Yes:	If No:
Are individual commitment and motivation essential to success?	Human resource Symbolic Structural	Structural Political
Is the technical quality of the decision important	Structural	Human resource Political Symbolic
Are there high levels of ambiguity and uncertainty?	Political Symbolic	Structural Human resource
Are conflict and scarce resources significant?	Political Symbolic	Structural Human resource
Are you working from the bottom up?	Political	Structural Human resource Symbolic

Note. Source from Bolman and Deal, 2008, p. 317

Bensimon (1989) researched 32 university presidents through semi-structured interviews and assessed four frames that are very similar to those presented by Bolman and Deal, including bureaucratic (similar to structural), collegial (similar to human resources), political, and symbolic. Out of the 32 presidents, 13 used one frame, 11 utilized two frames, seven took on three frames, and one used four frames. Of the 13 presidents that use a single-frame orientation, five used bureaucratic and four used collegial frames. For the 11 presidents who used two frames, the collegial and symbolic combination was used most (from five presidents) while the collegial and political pair was utilized three times. Within more than three frames used, the collegial/political/symbolic combination was used most frequently (by five presidents) (Bensimon, 1989).

Heimovics, Herman, and Jurkiewicz (1995) had 52 non-profit chief executives provide an account of 26 successful and 25 unsuccessful critical events through semi-structured interviews. Transcripts were then coded and compared to the frames of Bolman and Deal (1991). Behaviors of effective leaders were also compared to espoused frame orientations. Effective non-profit chief executives were twice as likely to use the political frame in relation to a comparison group as well as engage in relationships with constituents outside of the organization. Political behaviors were present – and highly necessary – but a political frame orientation was not advocated (Heimovics et. al, 1995).

Thompson (2000) used the Leadership Orientation Survey (Bolman & Deal, 1991) and Competing Values Leadership Instrument (CVLI) to address aspects of gender in relation to leadership and the four frames. Thompson (2000) found that educational leaders who use three or four leadership frames are “perceived to be more effective” (p.

983). In addition, results indicated no differences in leadership effectiveness between males and females. Results from this study were generated from a sample of 57 educational leaders at both K-12 and higher education levels and 535 subordinate participants. Of the 57 leaders, five were of lower management, 25 were from middle management, and 26 were from upper management. Thompson (2000) found that leadership types are the same for males and females. Analysis was conducted through a multivariate analysis of variance with leadership type from the Bolman and Deal LOS and gender as independent variables and results from the CVLI as a dependent variable.

Criticism of Bolman and Deal Frames

Criticism of the Bolman and Deal (1991) multiple frame approach has been expressed related to its direct connection and lack of causality in usage (Dunford & Palmer, 1995). In their article “Claims about frames,” Dunford and Palmer report doubt about the effectiveness of multiple frame orientations due to the methods of developing the model and the difficulty in applying the model directly to leadership.

Reframing is also limited by one’s cognitive ability, the organizational culture and context, and its overall utility. Palmer and Dunford (1996) question whether everyone has the ability to reframe while also doubting that organizations can be changed by viewing a problem in a different way. “With dominant frames being embedded in organizational practices this raises the question of whether managers can simply step outside of them by deciding to see the organizational world in a new way...Reframing does not occur in a socio-historical vacuum” (p. 15). Additionally, there is some doubt proposed about whether a reframe of a problem will lead to actual behaviors. Palmer and Dunford report there is “greater clarification (needed) of the processes through which reinterpretation,

analysis and subsequent action can undo sedimented thought processes and practices, and the limits to this” (p. 24).

This section concludes the discussion about the historical context of leadership in general and research related to Bolman and Deal’s four-frame model. The next section examines higher education leadership research, including midlevel managers and student affairs leaders.

Higher Education Leadership Research

This section provides an introduction to the context of higher education today and the most related higher education leadership research compared to career service directors. With this goal in mind, this section does not provide an exhaustive review of the literature but aims to discuss the most relevant research to the tasks and challenges of career service directors.

Context of Higher Education Today

Funding constraints have yielded calls for heightened accountability in higher education (Burke, 2005). Accountability is a highly desired but elusive endeavor. Burke defines accountability in a number of ways ranging from who is accountable to whom and for what and the demands that are placed on officials in higher education settings. Burke defines six demands that are placed on officials in colleges and universities: (1) powers must be used properly (2) organizations must show they are working to achieve the mission or priorities that are determined by its office or institution, (3) performance must be reported, (4) accounting for the efficiency and effectiveness for resources and outcomes, (5) ensure quality of programs and services, and (6) serve public needs. The

interpretation of these demands is highly subjective and dependent on the contextual nature of each university department.

In addition to the elusive nature of accountability, there are also great expectations for the function of higher education in the United States. With these expectations, institutions of higher education have received great power. For example, higher education institutions are accountable and responsible for providing both positive public and private benefits (Baum & Payea, 2005; Watts, 2000). In terms of a private benefit, some describe higher education as an “economic engine” and a ticket to the “American Dream.” (Baum & Payea, 2005; Humes, 2006; Moretti, 2004; Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 2009). In terms of a public benefit, state and national economies rely on an educated workforce as economies become more based on knowledge and information (Baum & Payea, 2005; Puukka & Marmolejo, 2008).

Even within this national context, career services still functions on a more local and institutional level. “Lack of unanimity and the multifaceted orientation of practitioners have resulted in each college and university organizing career services and programs according to local and institutionally specific traditions and exigencies” (Bechtel, 1993, p. 23). The structure of career offices depends on a number of factors: historical and traditional roles of the career office and its separate identity at each institution, identity of career practitioners, importance of professional schools and academic units with connections to employment areas, size and character of the host institution, and the institution’s view of career services purpose and its closeness to the organization’s central mission (Bechtel, 1993).

Various areas related to the role of accountability with career services have been explored, including an economic perspective related to productivity (Watts & Dent, 2006), cost effectiveness (Sampson, Reardon, Peterson, & Lenz, 2004) and the interaction with public policy (Watts, 2000). Student affairs programs – of which many career service offices are considered a part – face a challenge in addressing accountability. The lens through which students assess career services varies. Some students utilize services while others may not. In turn, the perceived value of programs may vary depending on how often the students use services (Schuh, 2003). With this varying context in which to view career service functioning, there is still an expectation to demonstrate effective practices with students that involve the communicating of career counselors' practice as an area of expertise (Niles, 2003, p. 76).

Middle Managers and Directors

Current higher education research includes additional parts of the campus community, including middle (or midlevel) managers (Johnsrud, 1996; Rosser, 2004). Career service directors fit the definition and functions of midlevel managers.

Midlevel managers are defined as: “those nonacademic employees classified as administrative, professional and technical staff members, who are in positions below the Dean level. Typical positions include such titles as directors, managers, coordinators, advisors, counselors, technical and other specialists” (Johnsrud, Heck & Rosser, 2000, p. 44).

Midlevel managers also represent the university to constituents in the academic and public community and “must maintain a balance between their own supervisor's directions and delegations, and the faculty, students, and public who require their support

and services” (Johnsrud, 1999, p. 121). Middle managers serve key roles in various parts of the institution and are often a first point of contact for numerous constituents, such as parents, students, and community members (Rosser, 2004). Even with hard work and serving challenging institutional roles, middle managers feel invisible (Johnsrud & Rosser, 1999), are rarely included in the governance process (Henkin & Persson, 1992), feel a lack of recognition for their competence, and report a limited opportunity for advancement (Johnsrud, 1996). Even though they may have these negative experiences, middle managers still believe they can serve a larger role of leadership:

Though midlevel leaders often feel the pressure to perform, particularly in fiscally austere times, they see the importance of providing effective leadership in their units. By virtue of their mid-level placement within the organizational structure, midlevel leaders are often placed between institutional decision-making and policy implementation (Rosser, 2004, p. 331).

Student Affairs Leadership and Management Overview

It is important to include leadership and management research in student affairs in this inquiry. The majority of university career service offices are located within student affairs programs (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010b). Career service offices are also the third most common student affairs division, and 78 percent of student affairs units include career services (Kuk & Banning, 2009).

Student affairs managers face the difficulty of weaving together fragmented programmatic silos (Kleemann, 2005). This lack of coordination between programs creates service challenges for student affairs administrators. Burnett (2002) reports there is a mismatch in the organizational structure of student affairs programs and serving

students. “Organizational charts are vertical, serving the customer is horizontal,” (Burnett, 2002, pp. 3-4). This also presents challenges in organizing to carry out a shared vision and how to handle a more complex world with existing departmental structures (Kleeman, 2005). In attempting to address these challenges, Lovell and Kosten (2000) identified successful administrative traits and skills in student affairs, including facilitation, knowledge of student development theory, integrity, cooperation, technology, assessment, political skills, and public policy knowledge.

Intersection Between Leadership and University Career Services

There are many potential perspectives in researching leadership. “However, the definition of leadership should depend on the purposes to be served” (Bass, 2008, p. 25). The purpose to be served in this research is to explore leadership used with directors of university career service offices in the context of addressing a variety of expectations and constituents. Because leadership has not been examined empirically within collegiate career services, this research could prospectively focus on a number of leadership theories while providing an extension of theory related to leadership in an additional higher education setting. Given that university career offices provide an array of services with multiple constituents, it is intriguing to examine how leaders in career offices approach leadership and how leadership may explain effectiveness with different tasks and groups. With the goal of assessing leadership from multiple perspectives, Bolman and Deal’s Multiple Frame Leadership Model (1984, 1991, 2008) addresses many aspects of leadership and would be interesting to examine in relation to university career service director effectiveness with diverse tasks and constituents.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

The methods used to examine the leadership orientations of career service directors are discussed in this chapter along with how those identified orientations may relate to effectiveness. This chapter presents the research design, data source, population and sample, data collection procedures, research questions, instrumentation and variables, data analysis, and how the study protected human subjects.

Research Design

This quantitative study used three surveys overall: (1) to assess leadership, (2) to evaluate career service director effectiveness with job tasks, and (3) to obtain relevant demographic information. This study adds to the research of leadership in higher education and extends knowledge of the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) leadership orientations. The goal of this study was to (1) describe the leadership orientations or frames of university career service directors, (2) examine demographic and profile characteristics in relationship to leadership orientations, and (3) to assess if any particular orientations are related to perceived effectiveness of career service directors. The three instruments addressing these areas were combined into one continuous web survey in order to make the process easier for participants to complete. First, the Bolman and Deal Leadership Orientations Instrument (Bolman & Deal, 1991) was used to address leadership frames. (See Appendix A for the Bolman & Deal Leadership Orientations Instrument.) This survey was developed to describe the four leadership orientations identified by Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008): structural, human resources, political,

and symbolic. The self-rating form was used for this research, and directors of general university career service offices completed the instrument.

The leadership orientations instrument includes four sections, and some of the sections were not used for this particular research. Section I was used for this research and includes 32 items with eight questions representing each of the four leadership orientations. Section II of the survey has participants view four responses corresponding to the four orientations. Participants use a forced ranking of the response that best describes him/her. (This section was not used for the purposes of this research due to the lack of scalability in analyzing variables). Next, a researcher-generated survey addressed perceived effectiveness criteria of university career service directors. This 13-item survey was generated from primary career service leader functions as reported in the National Association of Colleges and Employers Professional Standards for College and University Career Services (2009) and in the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (2008). See Appendix B for the Effectiveness Survey. Last, a Background Questionnaire was given in order to better understand the characteristics and makeup of the sample. This questionnaire took the place of the Section IV Background Information in the leadership instrument because it provided more tailored information for this research. See Appendix C for the Background Questionnaire.

Data Source

Population

Three populations and three samples were generated for this research. Participants were leaders with general university career service offices in the United States. In specific, career service leaders were included who worked at non-profit public and

private institutions in: (1) baccalaureate colleges, (2) masters-level, and (3) doctorate-granting (research) institutions as defined by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (2009). This excluded for-profit colleges and universities as well as community colleges. For-profit colleges and community colleges were not included in order to limit the scope and control of this research and because they have different specific needs. Specialized career service offices for business, law, and other specific disciplines were also excluded from this research because the discipline-specific mission and focus of those centers presents a different leadership context as compared to general collegiate career service offices.

Institutional type for this research was defined by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (2009). The Carnegie Foundation defines baccalaureate, masters-level and doctorate-granting (research) institutions in the following way:

Baccalaureate colleges (liberal arts and sciences and baccalaureate colleges in diverse fields). This includes institutions where baccalaureate degrees represent at least 10 percent of all undergraduate degrees and where fewer than 50 master's degrees or 20 doctoral degrees were awarded during the update year. Excludes special focus institutions and tribal Colleges. This includes all sizes of institutions that are of public and private non-profit status (p. 1).

Master's colleges and universities. Generally includes institutions that awarded at least 50 master's degrees and fewer than 20 doctoral degrees during the update year. Excludes special focus institutions and tribal colleges (p. 1). All levels of public and private non-profit master's colleges and universities were included in the population for this research.

Doctorate-granting (research) universities: Includes institutions that awarded at least 20 research doctoral degrees during the update year (excluding doctoral-level degrees that qualify recipients for entry into professional practice, such as the JD, MD, PharmD, DPT). Excludes special focus institutions and tribal colleges (p. 1). All levels of public and private non-profit doctorate-granting universities were included in the population for this research.

Sample

The proposed sample for this research was determined by probability sampling. In specific, a systematic random sampling method was used (Babbie, 2006). This requires a population list in which to gather a smaller sample (Babbie, 2006). The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching was used to gather a list of non-profit universities and is a widely used tool to classify higher education institutions (McCormick & Zhao, 2005; McCormick, Pike, Kuh & Chen, 2009). On its website, the Carnegie Foundation has a searchable database with a variety of criteria (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009). The proposed sample for this study used only basic classification as a search criteria in order to create a diverse list of institutions for the sample in baccalaureate, masters-level, and doctorate-granting (research) institutions.

Once a list of institutions was finalized in these three areas, e-mail addresses were gathered for directors at general collegiate career service offices (or the person in the highest leadership position if a “director” title was not present). The leadership role at general collegiate career service offices has different designations depending on the career service office and institution, but it is usually indicated as “director” or “executive

director” but can be “coordinator” or “associate director” for smaller offices (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2009). E-mail addresses were obtained from publicly available career service websites and the NACE directory in order to send an invitation e-mail to participate. (See Appendix D for a copy of the recruitment e-mail).

The following calculations were used to find an ideal sample size (Rea & Parker, 1997), using Raosoft, Inc, a free online survey research company.

$$x = Z(c/100)^2 r(100-r)$$

$$n = N x / ((N-1)E^2 + x)$$

$$E = \text{Sqrt}[(N - n)x / n(N-1)]$$

Sample size was tabulated using an alpha level of .05, a 95 percent confidence level, and a population size for each of the three institutional areas, as outlined in the table below (from the Carnegie Classification List), and a 50 percent response distribution. Once the list of institutions was generated, the researcher used every other institution on the list.

A search using the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (2009) institutional lookup website yielded the following total number of institutions in baccalaureate, masters-level, and doctorate-granting (research) institutions. These included all residential statuses for very small, small, medium, and large two and four-year institutions. This list did not include exclusively graduate and professional institutions.

Table 10

Population and Sample: Number of Surveys Sent By Institutional Type

Institutional Type	Initial population	Available population (no career services office at some institutions)	Recommended sample size with 95 percent confidence interval	Number of surveys sent
Baccalaureate	608	534	224	230
Masters-level	644	567	230	247
Doctorate-granting	280	268	159	111

Data Collection

Data were collected via Qualtrics, a commercial online survey program. Online surveys were used in order to expedite data collection with participants from across the United States. Prospective participants for this research were initially sent an invitation e-mail to participate. This included a brief description of the study and a link to the informed consent and online surveys for this research. A copy of the informed consent was available in the recruitment e-mail below the signatures of the researchers. Survey data were only accessible to the researcher and dissertation advisor through username and password protection. This password-protected access enhanced the confidentiality of participant data. In order to further enhance protection of participant data, a unique password was created only for use with this site. The three instruments for the study (examining leadership, effectiveness, and demographics) were combined into one continuous web survey in order to make the process easier for participants to complete. After clicking the link from the recruitment e-mail to the research site on Qualtrics, participants read the informed consent for the research.

Prior to beginning the online surveys, participants were asked to read the informed consent. By clicking “next,” participants agreed that they had read and agreed to the informed consent. Participants could have exited the survey at any time and could have chosen not to participate. After the informed consent was read and agreed to, the three surveys were completed. Follow-up e-mails were sent 10 days and three weeks after initial correspondence as recommended by Dillman (2000). In that follow-up e-mail, the link to participate was provided, which directed participants to the survey instruments. Thank you e-mails were sent to those who completed the surveys. Surveys were completed in July and August of 2011. The summer months were chosen for data collection in an effort to increase participation during a time when career service leaders are planning for the next academic year and do not have as many events and programs to conduct.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

RQ1: What Leadership Orientations Do Career Services Directors’ Exhibit?

RQ2: Do Demographic and Profile Characteristics (e.g. sex, race/ethnicity, years in position) Explain Career Services Directors’ Leadership Orientations?

RQ3: How Do Identified Top Leadership Orientations Relate to Career Services Directors' Effectiveness?

RQ4: What Combination of Demographic and Profile Characteristics and Leadership Orientation Explain Career Services Directors' Effectiveness?

Instrumentation and Variables

Leadership

Leadership was assessed through participant completion of The Leadership Orientations Instrument (Bolman & Deal, 1991), which addresses leadership skills and the best description of the respondent related to the four orientations (structural, human resources, political, and symbolic). In terms of accessing the survey for research purposes, Bolman notes on his website that he grants full permission to college and university students: “The survey and the scoring handout are both copyrighted. We grant instructors in college and university courses automatic permission to make copies for their students, on condition that the copies carry the copyright notice and author credits. We extend the same permission to students in college and university courses” (Bolman, 2010, p. 1). The instrument includes questions where the respondent rates his or her “leadership and management orientation.” The first section has 32 questions and addresses the frequency of leadership behaviors on a one to five Likert scale with one being never, two is occasionally, three is sometimes, four is often, and five being always. Questions in this first category assess characteristics of the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 2008) orientations.

The second category also addresses the Bolman and Deal orientations but in a different way. For each item, respondents are asked to provide a forced ranking with the following directions: give the number "4" to the phrase that best describes you, "3" to the item that is next best, and on down to "1" for the item that is least like you. This section of the leadership instrument was not used for this research because it did not provide a variable with scalability and therefore could not be used in the regression analysis. In

addition, more comparable descriptive results were attained by calculating the mean score from each participant regarding each orientation.

The last two questions on the instrument address effectiveness as a manager and leader. These items will not be used in favor of the more detailed effectiveness survey related to career service offices. The terms “leadership” and “management” were not pre-defined for the purposes of the Leadership Orientations Instrument (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 2008). The goal in development of the survey was to “learn what meaning they (respondents) gave to the two terms” of leadership and management and to explore similarities and differences in leadership orientation patterns (Bolman & Deal, 1991, p. 518).

The Leadership Orientations instrument was designed to measure dimensions for each of the four frames. These are included below (Bolman & Deal, 1991, p. 518).

1. Human Resource Dimensions

Supportive – concerned about the feelings of others; supportive and responsive

Participative – fosters participation and involvement; listens and is open to new ideas

2. Structural Dimensions

Analytic – thinks clearly and logically; approaches problems with facts and attends to detail.

3. Political Dimensions

Powerful – persuasive, high level of ability to mobilize people and resources; effective at building alliances and support

Adroit – politically sensitive and skillful; a skillful negotiator in face of conflict and opposition.

4. Symbolic Dimensions

Inspirational – inspires others to loyalty and enthusiasm; communicates a strong sense of vision.

Charismatic – imaginative, emphasizes culture and values; is highly charismatic.

Examples of how these orientations relate to career service directors are provided in Appendix A-1 and are based upon the professional experience of the researcher.

Reliability of the Leadership Orientations Survey

Bolman and Deal (1991, 2008) report Cronbach's Alpha for the four frames with all populations ranged between .91 and .93. Section I of the Leadership Orientations Survey (Bolman & Deal, 1991), addresses 32 questions related to each of the four frames and each subdimension. (See Appendix A for a list of questions for the Leadership Orientations Survey). Each item is ranked from a one to five scale with one equaling "Never" and five being "always." Cronbach alphas were run on the leadership items to see whether the suggested grouping of questions in previous studies holds for career services directors. Cronbach's α was calculated to see which items hung together with this targeted sample: (1) for the entire sample with each of the eight leadership orientation questions that comprised the four leadership constructs and (2) for each assigned top leadership orientation group.

The following Leadership Orientations Survey reliability statistics were calculated by Bolman and Deal (1991). Each frame was analyzed for internal consistency and item reliability. A summary of reliability data for the four frames is listed below.

Table 11

Coefficient Alpha by Leadership Orientation for Bolman and Deal Survey Section 1

Leadership Orientation	Coefficient Alpha
Structural	.920
Human Resource	.931
Political	.913
Symbolic	.931

Note. Source from Bolman and Deal (1991, 2008)

Collegiate Career Service Effectiveness

The effectiveness of career service office leaders has not been empirically researched. With that context, the next best option to define effectiveness was by reviewing professional association reports. The foremost authorities related to this targeted population are the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) and the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) Standards and Guidelines for Student Services/Student Development. The NACE Standards were used as the primary definition of the effectiveness of career service directors while the CAS Standards were consulted in order to confirm similar areas of effectiveness. NACE generates Professional Standards for College and University Career Services that apply to all types of career services staff, including directors, career counselors, and employer relations personnel. These widely-respected standards by collegiate career service professionals intend to “facilitate excellence in the creation, maintenance, and delivery of

programs and services” with collegiate career service offices (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010c, p. 3). The first report addressing professional guidelines for collegiate career services was created in 1957 by the College Placement Council (CPC) and has been updated periodically to address the specific evolving needs of career service offices. The NACE standards have also been incorporated into the 2001 and 2003 version of the CAS Standards and Guidelines for Student Services/Student Development. The most current NACE Standards were generated from a committee of career service leaders and representatives from NACE. The NACE Board of Directors also approved the standards (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010c).

The committee generating the NACE Standards aimed to write the standards “broadly to reflect variations in career services provided by individual colleges and universities. Some standards may apply to several functional areas within career services.” (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010c, p. 3). The standards throughout note essential career services, including the broad categories of career advising/counseling at any stage of career development; collaborative work with academic divisions, student services, and employers; accessible career information to students; employment services (preparing for the job search); graduate school planning; and experiential education such as internships and volunteer opportunities (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010c). In an effort to assist career service leaders, a NACE Standards Evaluation Workbook is available as a supplemental guide for career service leaders. A search in this workbook for “effectiveness” yields aspects related to education, cost and finances, and an overall evaluation.

Validity and reliability of the career services effectiveness measure.

With the professional standards provided by NACE (2010c) as a primary source and the CAS Standards as a secondary source, an effectiveness questionnaire was generated to define essential functions of a career services leader. (Appendix F highlights aspects of the NACE and CAS Standards used to define effectiveness for this research.). The following variables were used to define the effectiveness variable (See Appendix C for the Effectiveness Questionnaire).

Table 12

Definition of the Career Services Director Effectiveness Variable

Providing a vision of the future for the career services office.

Collaboration with faculty.

Collaborating with other student service unit leaders.

Collaboration with employers.

Providing career information to students.

Preparing students for the job search.

Developing quality career opportunities for students.

Providing education to students about career development.

Budgeting for the career services office.

Advocating for career services to university administration.

Developing a strategic plan for the career office.

Evaluating career service office functions.

Note. Established from National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) Standards (2010c) and the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (2008) (CAS) Standards

With the effectiveness measure being generated from professional association standards, it is important to address its validity and reliability (Babbie, 2006). Validity refers to “the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning

of the concept under consideration” (Babbie, 2006, pp. 146). One way to assess validity is through the content of questions. Content validity is “the degree to which a measure covers the range of meanings included within a concept” (p. 147). In order to enhance content validity, effectiveness questions were evaluated by a panel of experts in the career services field to (1) assess the content and clarity of questions, (2) check if any areas were missing, and (3) identify if any items were confusing. Six experts reviewed the effectiveness measure, including three career services directors and two assistant directors. The average number of years of experience for the expert panel was 13, and location ranged in geographic representation across the United States and in professional background, including business, education, hospitality, and non-profit sectors. Expert panelists recommended re-wording some of the questions for clarity, so wording was changed to “career development” rather than “student learning and development.” Through this expert panel, additional effectiveness items were also recommended and subsequently added to the final effectiveness measure, including advocacy with upper administration, aspects of strategic planning, and the quality of career opportunities developed for students.

For this questionnaire, career service directors were given the following directions: “Please read each statement carefully and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree. You may also indicate if the statement is not applicable. Your responses will remain confidential as outlined in the informed consent for this research. You may exit out of the survey at any time and choose not to participate.” Participants ranked responses with the following options: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral,

Agree, and Strongly Agree. They also ranked their overall effectiveness in addition to the areas mentioned in the above table.

In turn, reliability refers to “whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same object, yields the same result each time” (Babbie, 2006, p. 143). In terms of reliability, Cronbach alphas were calculated on the effectiveness items using SPSS to measure the internal consistency of questions. All 13 effectiveness questions were put into a reliability coefficient to see which items hung together with this targeted sample. A high Cronbach’s alpha is considered to be acceptable or sufficient (Kent, 2001). George and Mallery (2003) provide the following guidelines for the evaluation of Cronbach α related to internal consistency of the measure: “if alpha is $> .9$, Excellent, $> .8 =$ Good, $> .7 =$ Acceptable, $> .6 =$ Questionable, $> .5 =$ Poor, and $< .5 =$ Unacceptable” (p. 231).

Demographic Variables

The leadership of collegiate career service offices is potentially influenced by a number of factors. This includes the leader’s professional and cultural background (Bolman & Deal, 1991, 2008), institutional goals (Bolman & Deal, 1991, 2008; Kezar et. al, 2006; National Association of Colleges & Employers, 2010), the goals of the career service office (Heppner & Davidson, 2002, National Association of Colleges & Employers, 2010, Rayman, 1993), and the institution’s culture (Bolman & Deal, 1991, 2008; Kezar et. al, 2006; Schein 1985, 1996, 2010). The division in which career service offices are housed may play a role in the leadership of the office as well (Kuk & Banning, 2009).

With the above aspects in mind, demographic variables were assessed through a background questionnaire that asked about highest level of education, experience in

career services overall and at the director level, previous work experience and industries, current institutional type and size, and also sex, ethnicity, and race. Institutional size guidelines were defined by the Carnegie Classification descriptions. A copy of the Background Questionnaire is available in Appendix C.

Data Analysis

The following research questions were used for this study: 1) What leadership orientations do career services directors' exhibit? 2) Do demographic and profile characteristics (e.g. sex, race/ethnicity, years in position) explain career services directors' leadership orientations? 3) How do identified top leadership orientations relate to career services directors' effectiveness? 4) What combination of demographic and profile characteristics and leadership orientation explain career services directors' effectiveness?

Data obtained from survey instruments were analyzed using appropriate corresponding statistical procedures. In summary, the analyses of data will include descriptive statistics, correlation coefficients, and regression. As with many social science research projects, the probability level was set at a .05 level relative to the sample size in order to control for Type I and Type II errors. Analytical procedures will now be further explained.

RQ1: What Leadership Orientations Do Career Services Directors' Exhibit?

This research question was primarily used to categorize individual career services directors into a leadership orientation. The descriptive statistics calculated will also allow an assessment of three types of information: knowledge of a distribution's shape, average score and measures of central tendency, and the variation of scores (Hinkle, Wiersma,

&Jurs, 2003). Descriptive statistics were used for this question, including frequencies, percentages, and the means and standard deviations for the entire leadership orientation construct for each individual participant.

A participant being “in” a frame was defined as the frame that is most exhibited by mean scores from Section I of the Leadership Orientations Survey. Participants were assigned to a group (or top orientation) based upon the largest overall frequency score corresponding to each orientation. To determine the assignment of top leadership orientation in the event of a “tie,” the number of “always” responses was counted for each question within the corresponding top orientations. (This is the highest designation of five on the response scale for the Leadership Orientations instrument). The largest number of “always” scores then determined the “top” orientation. If the same number of “always” scores were present, then the number of “often” responses were counted (the next highest designation of four on the response scale) to determine the assignment of top leadership orientation. Means and standard deviations were also analyzed for each item in the background questionnaire and with the Effectiveness Measure.

The four frames are defined in the Leadership Orientations Survey through corresponding questions. Eight survey items from Section I define each frame. For each individual participant, scores from all questions relating to each corresponding frame were averaged to identify the frame that each participant most exhibits. With the above procedures in mind, it is important to identify the survey items that correspond to each frame. (See Appendix A for each survey item). The Structural Frame consists of Section I items 1, 9, 17, 25, 5, 13, 21, and 29. The Human Resource Frame consists of Section I items 2, 10, 18, 26, 6, 14, 22, 30. The Political Frame consists of Section I items 3, 11,

19, 27, 7, 15, 23, 31. Lastly, the Symbolic Frame consists of Section I items 4, 12, 20, 28, 8, 16, 24, 32. As noted previously in this chapter, Section II of the survey was not used or sent to participants for this research.

RQ2: Do Demographic and Profile Characteristics (e.g. sex, race/ethnicity, years in position) Explain Career Services Directors' Leadership Orientations?

Four regression models (one for each top leadership orientation) were created with five demographic variables as the independent (or predictor) variables and the top leadership orientation as the dependent variable. All 13 demographic variables were not included in the final analysis because of a lower than expected response rate. Participants, who exhibit predominantly in a given orientation, were assigned to that group, so there were a total of four groups (corresponding to the four leadership orientations). A backward stepwise method was used because no prior determination of variable importance existed. Demographics were independent variables and the leadership orientation is the outcome or dependent variable.

Even though the research was exploratory, only a select group of independent variables were included in the regression equations to more closely abide by “rules of thumb” to ensure model stability. There is no consensus among researchers as to the ideal number of participants per independent variable in order to obtain a stable regression model, however, this number may range from five to fifty (University of Texas-Austin, 2012). Stevens (2009) recommends fifteen data points per independent variable for multiple regression analysis. For this research question, the lowest number of participants for a top leadership orientation group was 23. Therefore, the lowest recommended number of predictors (five) was used for the study, though the other orientations had a

larger response. This same number of predictors was used for each equation to maintain consistency in the regression analyses and for analytical comparison.

The five independent variables for this research question were selected using a systematic method, focusing on the most highly correlated items to the dependent variable. This systematic method aided in reducing the independent variables and provided a rationale for choosing which variables to include in the regressions. The table in Appendix G shows the results of the correlational analysis, which followed the following steps. First, Pearson correlation coefficients were run in SPSS to correlate all 13 demographic variables to each top leadership orientation. Pearson coefficients were also run in SPSS with all 173 participants to correlate all 13 demographic variables to each leadership orientation. Second, correlation coefficients were ranked based upon the strength of relationship from one to 13 with one being the strongest correlation coefficient. Third, each independent variable ranking was then added together for each top leadership orientation and the entire sample. The five highest ranking independent variables, shown on the last column in Appendix G, with their corresponding ranking, were then chosen for inclusion for this research question. The five independent variables in each of the regressions equations included: (1) Perception of adequate resources to carry out job, (2) age, (3) years worked at current position, (4) full-time enrollment (both undergraduate and graduate students), and (5) number of full-time career services staff.

A backward stepwise regression was used for each equation, with the five selected variables in the initial analysis. Backward stepwise regression is appropriate when existing research does not provide an indication of which independent variables in the analysis may have more bearing on the dependent variable (Field, 2009). Predictor

variables were removed or “stepped out” from the equation in SPSS when a variable exceeded the preset .10 threshold. After each step, the predictor variable with the least significance was removed from the equation. The analysis was then repeated until either all variables were removed or a significant model was obtained.

This method yielded four regression equations for each top leadership orientation. Examples of these equations are provided in Appendix F.

The following regression formula was used (Keppel & Wickens, 2004):

$$Y = a_0 + a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n$$

Y represents the top leadership orientation as measured by the corresponding top leadership orientation. For the above equation, x_1 corresponds to the first demographic characteristic, x_2 to the next and so forth up to and including x_5 .

Regression coefficients (a_0 and a_1) were calculated based upon collected data. Values from the independent variables were used in the above equation.

When using multiple regression, certain assumptions are made, including the assumption of no multicollinearity. A violation of this assumption occurs when two variables are so highly correlated that they may measure the same construct (Field, 2009; Myers, 2000). A Pearson coefficient of .90 or greater indicates a high risk of multicollinearity (Field, 2009), and was used in this analysis. The top five variables chosen for the regression equations for this research question were below .90.

Subtle forms of multicollinearity can also exist, even when results are under the .90 Pearson coefficient. Two additional tests were also run to assure that multicollinearity did not exist in this data: VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) and tolerance. VIF provides an index to see how much variance is increased because of multicollinearity while tolerance

is the reciprocal of VIF (Field, 2009). If the largest VIF value is less than 10, there is cause for concern that multicollinearity exists. If the average VIF is substantially greater than one, the regression may be biased (Bowerman & O'Connell, 1990). For the four regression models in this research question, the largest VIF values were less than 10, and the average VIF was not substantially greater than one. Tolerance was also analyzed, and if tolerance is below .1, a serious problem of multicollinearity is present while tolerance below .2 is a potential problem (Bowerman & O'Connell, 1990). Tolerance values for the four regression models did not present any potential or serious problems and were greater than .2.

RQ3: How Do Identified Top Leadership Orientations Relate to Career Services Directors' Effectiveness?

Pearson correlation coefficients were used to assess if a relationship existed between top identified leadership orientations and career service directors' effectiveness. This step in the analysis allows for a broad overview of how leadership orientation constructs relate to effectiveness. First, participants were pooled together based upon the top leadership orientation from question one. For example, all individuals who fell under "Human Resources" were grouped together (with the highest average mean), and the same was done for structural, political, and symbolic. Second, Pearson correlation coefficients were run in SPSS to correlate each of the top four leadership orientations and the average score from all 12 effectiveness questions (1. Providing a vision of the future for the career services office, 2. collaboration with faculty, 3. collaborating with other student service unit leaders, 4. collaboration with employers, 5. providing career information to students, 6. preparing students for the job search, developing 7. quality

career opportunities for students, 8. providing education to students about career development, 9. budgeting for the career services office, 10. advocating for career services to university administration, 11. developing a strategic plan for the career office, and 12. evaluating career service office functions). The responses for strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree were converted to numerical values in order to compare across items. The following numerical values were given: Strongly disagree (SD) 1, Disagree (D) 2, Neutral (N) 3, Agree (A) 4, Strongly agree (SA) 5).

RQ4: What Combination of Demographic and Profile Characteristics and Leadership Orientation Explain Career Services Directors' Effectiveness?

Multiple regression analysis was used to determine if demographic and profile characteristics and the top leadership orientation of career service directors significantly explained overall effectiveness. Six regression models were created. Five models included only the top five independent variables as described below. One model was created (a comprehensive model) with all independent variables for all participants. As with the second research question, only a select group of independent variables were included for the first five regression equations due to a low response rate and to more closely abide by “rules of thumb” to ensure model stability and for analytical comparison. For the top five variable models, four demographic variables and the top leadership orientation were the independent (or predictor) variables, and the average overall effectiveness score from the 13 effectiveness questions was the dependent variable. These top five independent variables were run in SPSS across the four top leadership orientation groups and also with all participants. For the all participants group, only one leadership orientation score was included (each participant’s top mean). An additional model was run

in SPSS for all participants (N = 173) with all independent variables, and the average overall effectiveness score from the 13 effectiveness questions was the dependent variable.

The top five independent variables for the first five regressions were selected using a systematic method, focusing on the most highly correlated items to the dependent variable. (This was the same method as used for the second research question). This systematic method aided in reducing the independent variables and provided a rationale for choosing which variables to include in the regressions. First, Pearson correlation coefficients were run in SPSS to correlate all 13 demographic variables and top leadership orientation to overall effectiveness. Pearson coefficients were also run in SPSS with all 173 participants to correlate all 13 demographic variables and top leadership orientation to overall effectiveness. Second, correlation coefficients were ranked based upon the strength of relationship from one to 13 with one being the strongest correlation coefficient. Third, each independent variable ranking was then added together for each top leadership orientation and the entire sample. The five highest ranking independent variables, shown on the last column in Table 5 below, with their corresponding ranking, were then chosen for inclusion for this research question. The five independent variables in the first five regression equations included: Top orientation mean, years worked at any level of career services, years worked in career services at the director level, years worked at current position, and perception of adequate resources to carry out job.

Multiple regression analysis was used to determine if all 13 demographic and profile characteristics and the top leadership orientation of career service directors significantly explained overall effectiveness using all participants in the analysis. For this

regression, categorical variables were transformed into binary dummy variables to address the non-numerical nature of the variables and establish a useable variable for the regression equations. Recoded dummy variables were: Highest level of education completed, public or private institution, division of office, sex, race, and institutional type.

A backward stepwise regression was used for all six equations (the top five independent variables for the first five, all 14 independent variables for the last). Backward stepwise regression is appropriate when existing research does not provide an indication of which independent variables in the analysis may have more bearing on the dependent variable (Field, 2009). Predictor variables were removed or “stepped out” from the equation in SPSS when a variable exceeded the preset .10 threshold. After each step, the predictor variable with the least significance was removed from the equation. The analysis was then repeated until either all variables were removed or a significant model was obtained.

An evaluation of multicollinearity was also conducted for all six regression models for this research question (using the same Pearson coefficient, VIF, and tolerance guidelines for the regressions in the second research question). Pearson coefficients were run separately for all of the six regression models for this research question, and all variables for the separate six regression models were below .90. VIF and tolerance were also calculated separately for all six models. For the six regression models in this research question, the VIF and tolerance values did not indicate concerns with multicollinearity.

Examples of these equations are provided in Appendix E. The following regression formula was used (Keppel & Wickens, 2004):

$$Y = a_0 + a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots a_nx_n$$

Y represents the average overall effectiveness score from all items in the effectiveness survey. For the above equation, x_1 corresponds to the first demographic characteristic, x_2 to the next and so forth up to and including x_5 . The top leadership orientation is identified by x_n .

Regression coefficients (a_0 and a_1) were calculated based upon collected data. Values from the independent variables were used in the above equation. The regression equation included the following independent variables: (1) the top five independent variables (from demographic and profile characteristics from the background questionnaire and top leadership orientation) as determined by correlational strength. (2) The overall highest mean score from Section I of the Leadership Orientations Survey.

Example equations are provided in Appendix E. The data were analyzed using the most recent edition of SPSS statistical analysis software. Individual responses were reviewed for any missing data, and the data were also reviewed for normality related to the normal distribution.

Protection of Human Subjects

Procedures for this research were designed with the protection of participants or human subjects in mind. This research was granted human subjects' approval by the researcher's Institutional Review Board. Participants were provided informed consent for the study in the recruitment e-mail in terms of time commitment, benefits, and risks. In the recruitment e-mail for the study, the informed consent was explained as well as

procedures for confidentiality by specifying: “All individual responses for this research were held confidential and will only be viewed by my dissertation chair and me. There are no direct benefits to you from participating, nor are there any risks besides those of everyday life. Information collected from this study was kept in a password protected website (Qualtrics, an online survey website) with only the researchers for this study. To participate, please click the link below for the informed consent for this research and surveys. All information for this research was held confidential and will only be viewed by my dissertation chair and me.” A sample of the recruitment e-mail is available in Appendix D.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The research question results will be presented in this chapter. First, descriptive and demographic statistics are presented to gain a better understanding of participant backgrounds. Next, reliability analyses are provided for both the Bolman and Deal Leadership Orientations survey and the new career services effectiveness measure. These analyses were run to (1) evaluate the reliability of the Bolman and Deal Leadership Orientations survey with an un-researched group and (2) to assess the reliability of the effectiveness measure created for this study. Last, the analyses are presented for each research question. Some analysis is presented in narrative form, while other results that are more easily summarized in table format follow that approach.

Descriptive Statistics

Responses were collected from 173 individual participants at 173 different institutions across the United States. The overall response rate for this investigation was 29.6%. Invitations to participate were sent via e-mail and data were collected via an online web survey. The response rate was slightly higher than the average 20% documented rate for survey invitations conducted through e-mail, according to (Kaplowitz, Hadlock, & Levine, 2004). However, the 29.6% response rate for this research was slightly lower than the 34% web-based response average found in a meta-analysis that compared 39 web and mail survey responses (Shih & Fan, 2008).

For this current investigation, descriptive statistics were divided into two categories: (1) demographic information for career service director participants, and (2) institutional and career service unit descriptions. First, career service director

demographics include sex, educational level, professional experience, race, and ethnicity. More females participated in this study (67.6%) than males (30.1%). Most participants were masters prepared (75.6%) in terms of educational level followed by those who completed a doctorate (15.0%) and those whose highest educational level completed was a bachelor's degree (8.1%). Participants were experienced, reporting 15.03 average years in careers services and 9.26 average years at their current director position. Most identified as White/Caucasian (77.5%), while 7.5% identified as African-American/Black, 2.3% identified with a multi-racial background, 0.6% identified with Native American, and 0.6% identified with Asian/Pacific Islander.

Career service units represented in this research are diverse in terms of organizational structure, form, and function. In terms of Carnegie Classification, baccalaureate institutions represented 25.7% of the sample, 32.4% were from masters level, and 30.6% from doctorate-granting institutions. The majority of participants came from private (56.3%) versus public (43.7%) institutions. Most participants worked for career service units that were housed in student affairs (67.5%), followed by academic affairs (23.7%), and advancement (5.3%). The remaining participants were from units in enrollment management (1.2%), human resources (0.6%), and international student services (0.6%). In terms of enrollment, the largest percentage of participants was from institutions with a combined undergraduate and graduate enrollment of 3,000-9,999 (37.0%). The second largest enrollment group was from institutions with 1,000–2,999 (31.2%), followed by at least 10,000 students (19.7%) and fewer than 1,000 students (9.8%). Participants felt they had adequate resources to carry out their jobs. On a scale of one to five (with five being the highest), participants responded to the question of

“Perception of adequate resources to carry out my job” with an average of 3.05.

Respondents reported an average of 4.86 full-time staff.

Reliability Analysis of Leadership Orientations and Effectiveness Measure

Reliability tests were run on the Bolman and Deal Leadership Orientation questions in order to determine how strongly questions grouped together and measured similar leadership constructs for career services directors. Cronbach’s α was calculated (1) for the entire sample with each of the eight leadership orientation questions that comprised the four leadership constructs and (2) for each assigned top leadership orientation group. George and Mallery (2003) provide the following guidelines for the evaluation of Cronbach α related to internal consistency of a measure: “if alpha is $> .9$, Excellent, $> .8$ = Good, $> .7$ = Acceptable, $> .6$ = Questionable, $> .5$ = Poor, and $< .5$ = Unacceptable” (p. 231).

Cronbach’s α was analyzed for the eight leadership orientation questions that comprised the four leadership orientations for the entire sample ($n = 173$), yielding the following results: .851 for structural, .785 for human resources, .812 for political, and .775 for symbolic. Given the guidelines from George and Mallery (2003), the Cronbach alphas for the Leadership Orientations survey fall in the acceptable to excellent range for internal consistency. This means that item groupings on the leadership survey reliably represent the four leadership constructs.

While the first set above examined questions across all survey respondents, the second reliability analysis looked at the same questions but only for those who indicated a particular orientation as their top rating. The Cronbach’s α for all 32 questions was .861 for the structural group as top leadership orientation ($n = 32$), .861 for human resources

($n = 90$), .907 political ($n = 23$), and .906 for symbolic ($n = 28$). Given the guidelines from George and Mallery (2003), the Cronbach alphas for the Leadership Orientations survey fall in the good to excellent range for internal consistency. This means that items on the leadership survey represent similar leadership constructs.

Reliability tests were also run for the 13 effectiveness measure questions and the total average effectiveness score in order to determine how closely all items measured the same concept. Cronbach's α for the effectiveness measure questions was .840. This falls into the "good" range for internal consistency, according to George and Mallery (2003) and means that the measure represents similar general constructs of career service director effectiveness.

Research Questions and Statistical Analysis

RQ1: What Leadership Orientations Do Career Services Directors' Exhibit?

In order to address this research question, each individual participant was assigned to a "top" leadership orientation. This "top" leadership orientation was indicated by the highest average score for the corresponding eight questions for each orientation, as detailed in Chapter 3. For the majority of participants, a singular "top" orientation was reported. This was the case for 86.7% of the sample. The same average or "tie" for the highest average orientation score occurred with 13.3% (23 participants). To determine the assignment of top leadership orientation in the event of a "tie," the number of "always" responses was counted for each question within the corresponding top orientations. (This is the highest designation of five on the response scale for the Leadership Orientations instrument). The largest number of "always" scores then determined the "top" orientation. If the same number of "always" scores were present, then the number of

“often” responses were counted (the next highest designation of four on the response scale) to determine the assignment of top leadership orientation. Table 13 summarizes the frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations for each of the top orientations. The mean statistic represents the average for the corresponding eight questions for the leadership orientation, and the standard deviation is the deviation among the averages for all those respondents who scored that particular orientation highest. The most frequently cited top orientation is listed first and the least common is last.

Table 13

Career Services Directors' Top Mean Scores for Bolman and Deal Leadership Orientations

Leadership Orientation	N	Percent	Mean	Std. Deviation
Human Resources	90	52.0	4.479	0.350
Structural	32	18.5	4.371	0.363
Symbolic	28	16.2	4.469	0.320
Political	23	13.3	4.353	0.357

The most exhibited top leadership orientation was by far human resources. Nearly three times the number of participants indicated human resources as the top orientation compared to the second most cited (structural). The human resources orientation was also the highest average score of the top orientations. The high mean can be interpreted as participant responses that are strongly aligned with the attributes of a particular orientation. The second highest average score for a top orientation was symbolic, which was listed as the third most cited. Only 5.2% separated the second through fourth top

orientations. The next research question builds upon these results and examines demographic characteristics related to top leadership orientation.

RQ2: Do Demographic and Profile Characteristics (e.g. sex, race/ethnicity, years in position) Explain Career Services Directors' Leadership Orientations?

Multiple regression analysis was used to determine if demographic and profile characteristics of career service directors significantly explained their top leadership orientation. Four regression models (one for each leadership orientation) were created with five demographic variables as the independent (or predictor) variables and the top leadership orientation as the dependent variable. All 13 demographic variables were not included in the final analysis because of a lower than expected response rate. (There were 32 participants with the top orientation as structural, 90 with human resources, 23 with political, and 28 with symbolic).

Even though the research was exploratory, only a select group of independent variables were included in the regression equations to more closely abide by “rules of thumb” to ensure model stability. There was no consensus among researchers as to the ideal number of participants per independent variable in order to obtain a stable regression model, however, this number may range from five to fifty (University of Texas-Austin, 2012). Stevens (2009) recommends fifteen data points per independent variable for multiple regression analysis. For this research question, the lowest number of participants for a top leadership orientation group was 23. Therefore, the lowest recommended number of predictors (five) was used for the study, though the other orientations had a larger response. This same number of predictors was used for each

equation to maintain consistency in the regression analyses and for analytical comparison.

The five independent variables for this research question were selected using a systematic method, focusing on the most highly correlated items to the dependent variable. This systematic method aided in reducing the independent variables and provided a rationale for choosing which variables to include in the regressions. The table in Appendix G shows the results of the correlational analysis, which followed the following steps. First, Pearson correlation coefficients were run in SPSS to correlate all 13 demographic variables to each top leadership orientation. Pearson coefficients were also run in SPSS with all 173 participants to correlate all 13 demographic variables to each leadership orientation. Second, correlation coefficients were ranked based upon the strength of relationship from one to 13 with one being the strongest correlation coefficient. Third, each independent variable ranking was then added together for each top leadership orientation and the entire sample. The five highest ranking independent variables, shown on the last column in Appendix G, with their corresponding ranking, were then chosen for inclusion for this research question. The five independent variables in each of the regressions equations included: (1) Perception of adequate resources to carry out job, (2) age, (3) years worked at current position, (4) full-time enrollment (both undergraduate and graduate students), and (5) number of full-time career services staff.

A backward stepwise regression was used for each equation, with the five selected variables in the initial analysis. Backward stepwise regression is appropriate when existing research does not provide an indication of which independent variables in the analysis may have more bearing on the dependent variable (Field, 2009). Predictor

variables were removed or “stepped out” from the equation in SPSS when a variable exceeded the preset .10 threshold. After each step, the predictor variable with the least significance was removed from the equation. The analysis was then repeated until either all variables were removed or a significant model was obtained.

When using multiple regression, certain assumptions are made, including the assumption of no multicollinearity. A violation of this assumption occurs when two variables are so highly correlated that they may measure the same construct (Field, 2009; Myers, 2000). A Pearson coefficient of .90 or greater indicates a high risk of multicollinearity (Field, 2009), and was used in this analysis. The top five variables chosen for the regression equations for this research question were below .90.

Subtle forms of multicollinearity can also exist, even when results are under the .90 Pearson coefficient. Two additional tests were also run to assure that multicollinearity did not exist in this data: VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) and tolerance. VIF provides an index to see how much variance is increased because of multicollinearity while tolerance is the reciprocal of VIF (Field, 2009). If the largest VIF value is less than 10, there is cause for concern that multicollinearity exists. If the average VIF is substantially greater than one, the regression may be biased (Bowerman & O’Connell, 1990). For the four regression models in this research question, the largest VIF values were less than 10, and the average VIF was not substantially greater than one. Tolerance was also analyzed, and if tolerance is below .1, a serious problem of multicollinearity is present while tolerance below .2 is a potential problem (Bowerman & O’Connell, 1990). Tolerance values for the four regression models did not present any potential or serious problems and were greater than .2.

Table 14 below summarizes the standard coefficients for the four regression models. Results indicate how each demographic (independent) variable relates to each top leadership orientation (dependent variable). The structural and human resource models were not significant. The political and symbolic models were significant at the .05 level. Both the correlation between the dependent variable and the entire model (R) were analyzed as well as the amount of variance in each leadership category explained by the combination of predictor variables in the final model (R²). Adjusted R² values are reported since the standardized coefficients for the predictor variables were included. An “X” indicates that particular variable was used in the regression but was stepped out.

Table 14

Regression Models: Standard Coefficients by Top Leadership Orientation

	Structural	Human Resources	Political	Symbolic
Perception of adequate resources to carry out job	X	.171	.591*	X
Age	X	X	X	X
Years worked at current position	X	X	-.318	.209
Full-time enrollment (both undergraduate and graduate students)	.249	-.115	.733*	-.573*
Number of full-time career services staff	X	X	-1.051**	.721*
Regression Constant	4.030	4.439	3.400	4.762
R	.249	.213	.649	.527
Adjusted R ²	.029	.022	.285	.187

Note. X = indicates variable was used in regression but was stepped out.

*p<.05, **p<.01

Structural model. This model did not indicate any significant variables were related to the structural leadership orientation. This model accounted for 2.9% of the variance in the structural leadership orientation ($R^2_{adj} = .029$), $F(1, 29) = 1.911$, $p > .05$. Four of the five variables were stepped out and removed from the final model because they did not meet the minimum standards for inclusion.

Human Resources model. This model did not indicate any significant variables were related to the human resources leadership orientation. This model accounted for 2.2% of the variance in the human resources leadership orientation ($R^2_{adj} = .022$), $F(2, 83) = 1.967$, $p > .05$. Three of the five variables were stepped out and removed from the final model because they did not meet the minimum standards for inclusion.

Political model. This model indicated the following two variables were significant and positively related to the political leadership orientation: (1) Perception of adequate resources to carry out job, $t(17) = 2.778$, $p < .05$ and (2) Full-time enrollment (both undergraduate and graduate students), $t(17) = 2.296$, $p < .05$. One variable was significant and negatively related to the political leadership orientation: (1) Number of full-time career services staff $t(17) = -3.110$, $p < .01$. This model accounted for 28.5% of the variance in the political leadership orientation ($R^2_{adj} = .285$), $F(5, 17) = 3.095$, $p < .05$. One variable was stepped out and dropped from the final model because it did not meet the minimum standards for inclusion.

Perception of adequate resources to carry out job (standardized beta = .591).

This value indicates that as perception of adequate resources to carry out job increases by one standard deviation, the political leadership orientation score increases by .591 standard deviations. The standard deviation for perception of adequate resources to carry

out job was 1.143, so this constitutes a change of .676 points on the political leadership score (This was found by taking the standardized beta (.591) and multiplying it by the standard deviation, 1.143). Therefore, for every 1.143 points in perception of adequate resources to carry out the job, an extra .676 total points can be expected to be added to the political leadership score.

Full-time enrollment (both undergraduate and graduate students) (standardized beta = .733). This value indicates that as full-time enrollment increases by one standard deviation, the political leadership orientation score increases by .733 standard deviations. The standard deviation for full-time enrollment was .853, so this constitutes a change of .625 points on the political leadership score. Therefore, for every .853 increase in enrollment points on a one to five scale, an extra .625 total points can be expected additionally to the political leadership score.

Number of full-time career services staff (standardized beta = -1.051). This value indicates that as the number of full-time career services staff increases by one standard deviation, the political leadership orientation score decreases by 1.051 standard deviations. The standard deviation for number of full-time career services staff was 4.920, so this constitutes a change of – 5.171 points on the political leadership score. Therefore, for every 4.920 full-time career services staff, 5.171 total points are subtracted from the political leadership score.

Symbolic model.

This model indicated the following variable was significant and positively related to the symbolic leadership orientation: (1) Number of full-time career services staff, $t(24) = 2.722, p < .05$). One variable was significant and negatively related with the symbolic

leadership orientation: (1) Full-time enrollment (including both undergraduate and graduate students), $t(24) = -2.073, p < .05$. This model accounted for 18.7% of the variance in the symbolic leadership orientation ($R^2_{adj} = .187$), $F(3, 24) = 3.073, p < .05$. Two variables were stepped out and dropped from the final model because they did not meet the minimum standards for inclusion.

Number of full-time staff (standardized beta = .721). This value indicates that as the number of full-time staff increases by one standard deviation, the symbolic leadership orientation score increases by .721 standard deviations. The standard deviation for years worked at the current position is 6.459, so this constitutes a change of 4.657 total points on the symbolic leadership score. Therefore, for every 6.459 full-time staff members, an extra 4.657 total points can be expected additionally to the symbolic leadership score.

Full-time enrollment (both undergraduate and graduate) (standardized beta = -.573). This value indicates that as full-time enrollment increases by one standard deviation, the symbolic leadership orientation score decreases by .573 standard deviations. The standard deviation for full-time enrollment is .887, so this constitutes a change of - 0.508 points on the symbolic leadership score. Therefore, for every .887 change in points with full-time students on a five-point scale, 0.508 total points are subtracted from the symbolic leadership score. In summary, career services directors with a top leadership orientation as symbolic are more likely to come from smaller institutions and have a larger full-time staff.

RQ3: How Do Identified Top Leadership Orientations Relate to Career Services Directors' Effectiveness?

Pearson correlation coefficients were used to assess if a relationship existed between top identified leadership orientations and career service directors' effectiveness. First, participants were pooled together based upon the top leadership orientation from question one. For example, all individuals who fell under "Human Resources" were grouped together (with the highest average mean), and the same was done for structural, political, and symbolic. Second, Pearson correlation coefficients were run in SPSS to correlate each of the top four leadership orientations and the average score from all 12 effectiveness questions (1. Providing a vision of the future for the career services office, 2. collaboration with faculty, 3. collaborating with other student service unit leaders, 4. collaboration with employers, 5. providing career information to students, 6. preparing students for the job search, developing 7. quality career opportunities for students, 8. providing education to students about career development, 9. budgeting for the career services office, 10. advocating for career services to university administration, 11. developing a strategic plan for the career office, and 12. evaluating career service office functions). Table 15 provides a summary of these results.

Table 15

Pearson Coefficients: Relationship of Top Leadership Orientation and Effectiveness of Career Services Directors

	N	Total Effectiveness Score (Average of all effectiveness questions)	Sig. (2- tailed)
Structural	32	-.133	.470
Human Resources	90	.327**	.002**
Political	23	.169	.440
Symbolic	28	.402*	.034*

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

The human resources and symbolic leadership orientations were significantly correlated to the total effectiveness score. There was a positive, significant correlation between the human resources leadership orientation and the total effectiveness score, $r(88) = .327, p < .01$, indicating that as the score for the human resources leadership orientation goes up, then so does the total effectiveness score. There was a positive, significant correlation between the symbolic leadership orientation and the total effectiveness score, $r(26) = .402, p < .05$, indicated that as the score for the symbolic leadership orientation goes up, then so does the total effectiveness score. Hinkle et. al (2003) interpret the strength of correlations (both positive and negative) as: .00 – .30 little if any correlation; .30 – .50 low correlation; .50 – .70 moderate correlation; .70 – .90 high correlation; .90 – 1.00 very high correlation. Given these guidelines, both correlations above have a low strength.

**RQ4: What Combination of Demographic and Profile Characteristics
and Leadership Orientation Explain Career Services Directors' Effectiveness?**

Multiple regression analysis was used to determine if demographic and profile characteristics and the top leadership orientation of career service directors significantly explained overall effectiveness. Six regression models were created. Five models included only the top five independent variables as described below. One model was created with all independent variables for all participants. As with the second research question, only a select group of independent variables were included for the first five regression equations due to a low response rate and to more closely abide by “rules of thumb” to ensure model stability and for analytical comparison. For the top five variable models, four demographic variables and the top leadership orientation were the independent (or predictor) variables, and the average overall effectiveness score from the 13 effectiveness questions was the dependent variable. These top five independent variables were run in SPSS across the four top leadership orientation groups and also with all participants. For the all participants group, only one leadership orientation score was included (each participant’s top mean). An additional model was run in SPSS for all participants (N = 173) with all independent variables, and the average overall effectiveness score from the 13 effectiveness questions was the dependent variable.

The top five independent variables for the first five regressions were selected using a systematic method, focusing on the most highly correlated items to the dependent variable. (This was the same method used for the second research question). This systematic method aided in reducing the independent variables and provided a rationale for choosing which variables to include in the regressions. Table 16 below shows the

results of this analysis, which proceeded according to the following steps. First, Pearson correlation coefficients were run in SPSS to correlate all 13 demographic variables and top leadership orientation to overall effectiveness. Pearson coefficients were also run in SPSS with all 173 participants to correlate all 13 demographic variables and top leadership orientation to overall effectiveness. Second, correlation coefficients were ranked based upon the strength of relationship from one to 13 with one being the strongest correlation coefficient. Third, each independent variable ranking was then added together for each top leadership orientation and the entire sample. The five highest ranking independent variables, shown on the last column in Table 16 below, with their corresponding ranking, were then chosen for inclusion for this research question. The five independent variables in the first five regression equations included: Top orientation mean, years worked at any level of career services, years worked in career services at the director level, years worked at current position, and perception of adequate resources to carry out job.

Table 16

Pearson Correlation Coefficients and Rankings to Overall Effectiveness for All Participants and for each Top Leadership Orientation (Rankings for each group provided in parentheses)

	All	Top Structural Means Only	Top HR Means Only	Top Political Means Only	Top Symbolic Means Only	Total Score	Final Rank
Top Orientation Mean*	.442 (1)	.150 (8)	.479 (1)	.683 (1)	.445 (1)	12	1
Highest education completed	.023 (12)	.082 (10)	.033 (13)	.058 (13)	.043 (13)	61	14
Years at any career services level*	.161 (5)	.267 (2)	.190 (5)	.238 (6)	.185 (4)	22	3
Years at the career services director level*	.221 (3)	.165 (6)	.223 (4)	.286 (5)	.153 (5)	23	4
Years at current position*	.201 (4)	.155 (7)	.236 (3)	.287 (4)	.133 (7)	25	5
Public or private	.025 (11)	.090 (9)	.065 (11)	.122 (11)	.061 (12)	54	13
Division of office	.145 (6)	.014 (13)	.108 (8)	.330 (3)	.153 (5)	35	6
Full-time enrollment	.064 (9)	.172 (5)	.100 (9)	.138 (10)	.146 (6)	39	7
Sex	.000 (14)	.187 (4)	.094 (10)	.114 (12)	.253 (3)	43	9
Age	.137 (7)	.000 (14)	.157 (6)	.146 (9)	.086 (11)	47	11
Race	.082 (8)	.072 (12)	.125 (7)	.192 (7)	.100 (10)	44	10
Resource adequacy*	.261 (2)	.078 (11)	.274 (2)	.333 (2)	.333 (2)	19	2
Number of full-time career services staff	.014 (13)	.240 (3)	.009 (14)	.033 (14)	.103 (9)	53	12
Institutional Type	.049 (10)	.319 (1)	.055 (12)	.169 (8)	.115 (8)	39	7

*Indicates variable was chosen for use in regressions as a top five variable

A backward stepwise regression was used for all six equations (the top five independent variables for the first five, all 14 independent variables for the last). Backward stepwise regression is appropriate when existing research does not provide an indication of which independent variables in the analysis may have more bearing on the dependent variable (Field, 2009). Predictor variables were removed or “stepped out” from the equation in SPSS when a variable exceeded the preset .10 threshold. After each step, the predictor variable with the least significance was removed from the equation. The analysis was then repeated until either all variables were removed or a significant model was obtained.

An evaluation of multicollinearity was also conducted for all six regression models for this research question (using the same Pearson coefficient, VIF, and tolerance guidelines for the regressions in the second research question). Pearson coefficients were run separately for all of the six regression models for this research question, and all variables for the separate six regression models were below .90. VIF and tolerance were also calculated separately for all six models. For the six regression models in this research question, the VIF and tolerance values did not indicate concerns with multicollinearity.

Table 17 below summarizes the standard coefficients for the first five regression models. Results indicate how each demographic and top leadership orientation (independent) variable relates to overall effectiveness (dependent variable). The human resources, political, and all participant models were significant at the .01 level. The structural and symbolic models were not significant. Both the correlation between the dependent variable and the entire model (R) were analyzed as well as the amount of

variance in each leadership category explained by the combination of predictor variables in the final model (R^2). Adjusted R^2 values are reported since the standardized coefficients for the predictor variables were included. An “X” indicates that particular variable was used in the regression but was stepped out.

Table 17

Regression Models: Standard Coefficients for Top Five Independent Variables by Overall Effectiveness

	Top Structural Means Only	Top HR Means Only	Top Political Means Only	Top Symbolic Means Only	All Participants, Top Orientation Mean Only
Top orientation mean	X	.492**	.741**	.399*	.423**
Years worked in career services at any level	.315	.199*	.360*	-.212	.159*
Years worked in career services at director level	X	X	X	X	X
Years worked at current position	X	X	X	X	X
Perception of adequate resources	X	.171	X	X	.155*
Regression Constant	4.079	1.616	.877	2.295	1.998
R	.315	.570	.769	.455	.493
Adjusted R^2	.068	.300	.549	.143	.229

X = indicates variable was used in regression but was stepped out.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Structural model – top five variables. This model did not indicate any significant variables were related to overall effectiveness. This model accounted for 6.8% of the variance in the overall effectiveness ($R^2_{adj} = .068$), $F(1, 29) = 3.200$, $p > .05$. Four of the five variables were stepped out and removed from the final model because they did not meet the minimum standards for inclusion.

Human Resources model - top five variables. This model indicated the following two variables were significant and positively related to overall effectiveness: (1) top orientation mean, $t(86) = 5.383$, $p < .01$) and (2) years worked in career services at any level, $t(86) = 2.197$, $p < .05$). This model accounted for 30.0% of the variance in the overall effectiveness ($R^2_{adj} = .300$), $F(3, 86) = 13.303$, $p < .01$. Two of the five variables were stepped out and removed from the final model because they did not meet the minimum standards for inclusion.

Top orientation mean (standardized beta = .492). This value indicates that as the top orientation mean increases by one standard deviation, the overall effectiveness score increases by .492 standard deviations. The standard deviation for the top orientation mean was .350, so this constitutes a change of .172 on the overall effectiveness score. Therefore, for every .350 points in the top orientation mean, an extra .172 total points can be added to the overall effectiveness score.

Years worked in career services at any level (standardized beta = .199). This value indicates that as the years worked in career services at any level increases by one standard deviation, the overall effectiveness score increases by .199 standard deviations. The standard deviation for years worked in career services at any level was 9.405, so this constitutes a change of 1.872 on the overall effectiveness score. Therefore, for every

9.405 years worked in career services at any level an extra 1.872 points can be added to the overall effectiveness score.

Political model - top five variables. This model indicated the following two variables were significant and positively related to overall effectiveness: (1) top orientation mean, $t(20) = 4.991, p < .01$) and (2) years worked in career services at any level, $t(20) = 2.425, p < .05$). These were the same two significant variables that were indicated by the human resources model and the model for all participants (with only the top five independent variables included). This model accounted for 54.9% of the variance in the overall effectiveness ($R^2_{adj} = .549, F(2,20) = 13.789, p < .01$). Three of the five variables were stepped out and removed from the final model because they did not meet the minimum standards for inclusion.

Top orientation mean (standardized beta = .741). This value indicates that as the top orientation mean increases by one standard deviation, the overall effectiveness score increases by .741 standard deviations. The standard deviation for the top orientation mean was .364, so this constitutes a change of .270 on the overall effectiveness score. Therefore, for every .364 points in the top orientation mean, an extra .270 total points can be added to the overall effectiveness score.

Years worked in career services at any level (standardized beta = .360). This value indicates that as the years worked in career services at any level increases by one standard deviation, the overall effectiveness score increases by .360 standard deviations. The standard deviation for years worked in career services at any level was 11.387, so this constitutes a change of 4.100 on the overall effectiveness score. Therefore, for every

11.387 years worked in career services at any level an extra 4.100 points can be added to the overall effectiveness score.

Symbolic model - top five variables. This model indicated the following variable was significant and positively related to overall effectiveness: (1) top orientation mean, $t(28) = 2.241, p < .05$). This model accounted for 14.3% of the variance in the overall effectiveness ($R^2_{adj} = .143$), $F(2, 28) = 3.261, p > .05$. Three of the five variables were stepped out and removed from the final model because they did not meet the minimum standards for inclusion.

Top orientation mean (standardized beta = .399). This value indicates that as the top orientation mean increases by one standard deviation, the overall effectiveness score increases by .399 standard deviations. The standard deviation for the top orientation mean was .320, so this constitutes a change of .128 on the overall effectiveness score. Therefore, for every .320 points in the top orientation mean, an extra .128 total points can be added to the overall effectiveness score.

All participants model - top five variables. This model indicated the following three variables were significant and positively related to overall effectiveness: (1) top orientation mean, $t(168) = 6.143, p < .01$), (2) years worked in career services at any level, $t(168) = 2.325, p < .05$), and (3) perception of adequate resources to carry out job, $t(168) = 2.244, p < .05$). This model accounted for 22.9% of the variance in overall effectiveness, ($R^2_{adj} = .229$), $F(3, 168) = 17.555, p < .01$. Two of the five variables were stepped out and removed from the final model because they did not meet the minimum standards for inclusion.

Top orientation mean (standardized beta = .423). This value indicates that as the top orientation mean increases by one standard deviation, the overall effectiveness score increases by .423 standard deviations. The standard deviation for the top orientation mean was .351, so this constitutes a change of .148 on the overall effectiveness score. Therefore, for every .351 points in the top orientation mean, an extra .148 total points can be added to the overall effectiveness score.

Years worked in career services at any level (standardized beta = .159). This value indicates that as the years worked in career services at any level increases by one standard deviation, the overall effectiveness score increases by .159 standard deviations. The standard deviation for years worked in career services at any level was 9.510, so this constitutes a change of 1.512 on the overall effectiveness score. Therefore, for every 9.510 years worked in career services at any level an extra 1.512 points can be added to the overall effectiveness score.

Perception of adequate resources to carry out job (standardized beta = .155). This value indicates that as perception of adequate resources to carry out the job increases by one standard deviation, the overall effectiveness score increases by .155 standard deviations. The standard deviation for perception of adequate resources was 1.206, so this constitutes a change of .187 on the overall effectiveness score. Therefore, for every 1.206 points in perception of adequate resources an extra .187 points can be added to the overall effectiveness score.

Comprehensive regression model: All participants, including all demographic variables and top leadership orientation as independent variables and overall effectiveness as dependent variable.

Multiple regression analysis was used to determine if all 13 demographic and profile characteristics and the top leadership orientation of career service directors significantly explained overall effectiveness using all participants in the analysis. For this regression, categorical variables were transformed into binary dummy variables to address the non-numerical nature of the variables and establish a useable variable for the regression equations. Recoded dummy variables were: Highest level of education completed, public or private institution, division of office, sex, race, and institutional type.

Table 18 below summarizes the standard coefficients related to overall effectiveness for all 14 independent variables. Results indicate how each demographic and top leadership orientation (independent) variable relates to overall effectiveness (dependent variable). The final model was significant at the .01 level. Both the correlation between the dependent variable and the entire model (R) were analyzed as well as the amount of variance in each leadership category explained by the combination of predictor variables in the final model (R^2). Adjusted R^2 values are reported since the standardized coefficients for the predictor variables were included. An “X” indicates that particular variable was used in the regression but was stepped out.

Table 18

Comprehensive Regression Model: Standard Coefficients by Overall Effectiveness for All Independent Variables (N = 173)

Independent Variable	Standard Coefficients For all Participants
Top Orientation Mean	.400**
Highest level of education completed	X
Years worked in career services at any level	X
Years worked in career services at the director level	.172*
Years worked at your current position	X
Public or Private	X
Division of Office	-.140
Full-time enrollment of your institution, both undergraduate and graduate students	X
Sex	X
Age	X
Race	X
Perception of adequate resources to carry out job	.203*
Number of full-time career services staff	-.096
Institutional Type - Carnegie Classification	X
Regression Constant	2.161
R	.535
Adjusted R ²	.261

X = indicates variable was used in regression but was stepped out.

*p<.05, **p<.01

All participants model – all 14 independent variables. This model indicated the following three variables were significant and positively related to overall effectiveness: (1) top orientation mean, $t(166) = 5.523, p < .01$, (2) years worked in career services at the director level, $t(166) = 2.378, p < .05$, and (3) perception of adequate resources to carry out job, $t(168) = 2.643, p < .05$. This model accounted for 26.1% of the variance in overall effectiveness, ($R^2_{adj} = .261$), $F(5, 166) = 11.311, p < .01$. Nine of the 14 variables were stepped out and removed from the final model because they did not meet the minimum standards for inclusion.

Top orientation mean (standardized beta = .400). This value indicates that as the top orientation mean increases by one standard deviation, the overall effectiveness score increases by .400 standard deviations. The standard deviation for the top orientation mean was .351, so this constitutes a change of .140 on the overall effectiveness score. Therefore, for every .351 points in the top orientation mean, an extra .140 total points can be added to the overall effectiveness score.

Years worked in career services the director level (standardized beta = .172). This value indicates that as the years worked in career services at the director level increases by one standard deviation, the overall effectiveness score increases by .172 standard deviations. The standard deviation for years worked in career services at the director level was 7.910, so this constitutes a change of 1.361 on the overall effectiveness score. Therefore, for every 7.910 years worked in career services at the director level an extra 1.361 points can be added to the overall effectiveness score.

Perception of adequate resources to carry out job (standardized beta = .203). This value indicates that as perception of adequate resources to carry out the job increases

by one standard deviation, the overall effectiveness score increases by .203 standard deviations. The standard deviation for perception of adequate resources was 1.224, so this constitutes a change of .248 on the overall effectiveness score. Therefore, for every 1.224 points in perception of adequate resources an extra .248 points can be added to the overall effectiveness score.

CHAPTER 5

INTERPRETATIONS

This chapter details the interpretations related to each of the four research question findings, implications for theory and practice, and recommendations for future research. First, possible explanations for why the human resources orientation was so widely cited among respondents will be discussed. Second, themes for why specific demographic and profile characteristics explained top leadership orientations will be reviewed. Third, the top two leadership orientations' relationship to effectiveness will be interpreted. Fourth, predictors of effectiveness will be discussed for career service directors overall and for each of the top leadership orientations.

Question One Interpretations:

What Leadership Orientations Do Career Services Directors' Exhibit?

Research question one examined career services directors' top leadership orientations, and this section discusses possible explanations for why the human resources orientation was so widely cited. The human resources orientation emerged as the top leadership orientation for more than half of the participants (52%), followed by structural (18.5%), symbolic (16.2%), and political (13.3%).

Two reasons could explain why human resources was indicated as the top orientation by such a wide margin: (1) the use of trait and factor theories of career development that guide career services, and (2) the associated career practices and professional standards (from the National Association of Colleges and Employers and the Council for the Advancement of Standards) that are related to concepts of the human resources orientation.

First, predominant trait and factor theories that guide career services are related to concepts of the human resources leadership orientation. Table 19 below highlights three areas of similarity (central concepts, associated image, and basic challenge) between the human resources leadership orientation and the most widely-used set of career development theories (trait and factor). These theories are the theoretical foundation for many inventories used in career services with students and alumni, including the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Strong Interest Inventory, workplace values exercises, and skills scans. Some form of inventory testing is used by 74.1% of career service offices (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2011). The goal of these inventories is to match a student's personality, interests, values, and skills to related occupational interest areas and workplaces (Sharf, 2006).

Table 19

Comparison of Human Resources Leadership Orientation to Trait and Factor Career Theories

	Human Resources Leadership Orientation*	Related Human Resources Orientations Survey Concepts	Trait and Factor Career Development Theories**
Central concepts	Needs, skills, relationships	Support and concern for others, foster involvement in decisions	Facilitate self-understanding through active process of aptitudes, interests, values, personality to similar occupations
Associated Image	Empowerment	Collaboration	Matching
Basic Challenge	Align organizational human needs	Leader participation versus empowerment	Integrate information about one's self and the world of work to create a satisfying career

*Adapted from Bolman and Deal (2008) p. 18. See Appendix A for Human Resources Orientation Survey questions. (Items 2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, and 30).

**Adapted from Sharf (2006)

Both theories above demonstrate the focus on goodness of fit between people and work. In the human resources orientation, leaders aim to align worker's tasks and roles to fit with related organizational needs. In a similar way, the goal of using trait and factor theories is for career staff to align the traits of a student (aptitudes, interests, values, and personality) to fit with matching occupations.

Second, associated professional career practices and standards may impact human resources as the top leadership orientation. Participants were experienced within the career services field in other roles outside of being a director and reported 15.03 average years in careers services and 9.26 average years at their current director position. Even though this research did not specifically inquire about previous roles within career services, it is likely that participants' non-director experience was within one of the other commonly-held roles within the discipline as identified by the National Association of Colleges and Employers (2011), including career counseling or advising and employer relations. Both roles have the end goal of students finding a best fit for occupational experience, whether it is during individual student counseling sessions or maximizing employer satisfaction through planning recruitment events. This process requires the ability to assess student and employer needs and is reinforced in the human resources orientation survey questions. For example, questions 2 and 10 assess high levels of support and concern for others and their needs while questions six and 14 emphasize fostering collaborative relationships and high levels of involvement in decision-making. In turn, it seems that this previous work experience in career services may have influenced director's leadership orientations.

Additionally, career services professional standards emphasize components of the human resources orientation and may influence career service directors' top leadership orientation. Both standards used for this research (Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, 2008; National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010) emphasize the importance of matching or aligning students with a best career fit, which as noted above, provides a connection to the human resources orientation (including survey questions 2, 6, 10, and 14) as well as with trait and factor career development theories. This alignment of "best fit" from the human resources orientation is supported in the first paragraphs of the NACE Principles (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2011b), especially with an emphasis on partnership, which relates to questions 18 (being responsive to others) and 30 (being a participative manager):

Career services and employment professionals are involved in this process in a partnership effort with a common goal of achieving the best match between the individual student and the employing organization. This partnership effort traditionally involves students, but may also involve alumni, community members, prospective students, and/or faculty staff. (p. 1)

Similarly in the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (2008), the primary mission of career services staff is to "assist students and other designated clients in developing, evaluating, and implementing career, education, and employment plans" and services must "be informed by current career development and experiential learning theories and practices, employment and workforce trends, and appropriate assessments and evaluations" (p. 6, 7). Many career theories and assessments

are guided by similar concepts of “fit,” and therefore CAS seems to emphasize components of the human resources orientation, including survey questions 14 (fostering high levels of involvement in decisions) and 18 (being responsive to others).

In contrast to the NACE Standards, CAS emphasizes a wider range of knowledge and approaches in order to lead a career services office. A foundation of career and student development is emphasized in CAS even though an additional skill set is needed to lead a career services office. As described in CAS, the career services leader should aim to both understand the counseling and student development processes and also incorporate additional approaches, including “sales, management, technical, financial, marketing, public relations, assessment, and analytical skills” (p. 3). Even though the focus of this section has been on the human resources orientation, the skills mentioned in the CAS Standards provide an important validity to the other orientations as well. A career services director must use the skills mentioned above, which require an ability to use the structural orientation and analytical skills (as shown in question 17 of the leadership orientations survey, “using facts and logic to approach problems”), the political orientation and public relations skills (as shown in question 31, “succeeding in the face of conflict and opposition”), and the symbolic orientation and sales skills (as shown in question 28, “generating loyalty and enthusiasm”).

**Question Two Interpretations: Do Demographic and Profile Characteristics
(e.g. sex, race/ethnicity, years in position) Explain Career Services Directors’**

Leadership Orientations?

The interpretations for this research question focus on three discussion areas: (1) the structural and human resources orientations lack of significant predictors, (2) the two

demographic variables that were significant across political and symbolic orientations (full-time enrollment and number of full-time career services staff), and (3) perception of adequate resources to carry out the job related to the political top orientation.

Lack of Predictors

The human resources and structural orientations did not have any significant demographic and profile predictors. A possible reason is the assessed demographic and profile characteristics did not capture related components of these orientations. Bolman and Deal (1991, 2008) report two dimensions for the human resources orientation: (1) supportive – concern about others’ feelings and responsiveness, and (2) participative – fostering participation and involvement and openness to new ideas. The demographic and profile variables tested did not examine variables that could really get at interaction within the organization, which seems to be aligned with the human resources perspective. Related profile characteristics to these dimensions could possibly better explain human resources as a top orientation, including the organization’s climate for responsiveness, the ability to liaise with other departments, involvement of staff, and the institution’s openness to new ideas.

Similar reasoning could support why the structural orientation model did not yield any significant predictors. For example, the structural orientation includes an analytical dimension (Bolman & Deal, 1991, 2008). This area assesses clear and logical thinking and approaching problems with facts. Additional profile characteristics could assess related variables to this dimension. For example, statements could be evaluated that include “my institution provides enough facts to make adequate decisions” and “my

career services office produces thorough evaluation measures that drive decision-making.”

Institutional and Staff Size as Predictors of Orientation

Full-time enrollment and number of full-time career services staff were the two demographic variables that were significant across the political and symbolic orientations models. These variables had different explanatory effects on the political and symbolic orientations. For the political orientation model, an increase in full-time enrollment and a decrease in full-time staff were significant predictors. The symbolic frame yielded the opposite results for these variables.

It seems logical that career service directors at larger institutions might score high on political orientation. Larger institutions likely have larger bureaucracies, which in turn potentially create programmatic silos and the need for additional political navigating (Burnett, 2002; Kleemann, 2005). Directors with a political orientation might be more drawn to this environment or develop this orientation out of necessity. The smaller number of full-time staff was surprising as a predictor for the top political orientation, especially given that one assumption of the political frame from Bolman and Deal (1991, 2008) states that the greater the individual differences, the greater potential for conflict. It would seem that a larger staff would yield more individual differences in these areas and possibly increase, rather than decrease, the reporting of a top political orientation.

The mindset of participants in answering the leadership survey items may have also had an impact on results. Although it was impossible to know participants' intentions, one might deduce that respondents could have answered some of the political items in the survey with respect to the broader institution rather than their immediate

career services group. This notion is reflected at least in part in half of the political survey items, which tend to be more associated with a broader, institutional context: Question 3, ability to mobilize people and resources to get things done; question 15, deal adroitly with organizational conflict; question 19, getting support from people with influence and power; and question 27, develop alliances to build a strong base of support. On the other hand, perhaps directors who do not have to deal with internal dynamics within their own departments (small departments) are more available to engage in political navigation within the broader institution—that is, a smaller staff means the director is able to focus attention on the political necessities associated with a larger institutional environment.

In contrast, a symbolic leadership orientation was explained by a lower full-time enrollment and a higher number of staff. Directors who supervise a larger staff might gravitate toward a more symbolic orientation as they strive to develop a workplace culture with potentially different types of people. Similarly, a departmental subculture within career services may be more encouraged and likely to emerge if a larger staff is present (Schein, 2010). A closely related variable is that of organizational age. A larger staff may be associated with an older institution. As organizations grow, become older, and more diverse, more occupational subcultures emerge. Departmental leaders are then challenged to decide which cultural elements to keep or change (Schein, 2010), so the issue of “managing culture” seems to become a leadership skill in such cases.

The definition of full-time enrollment and corresponding response options may have influenced the lower full-time enrollment predictor for the symbolic orientation. Enrollment size provided more differentiation for smaller institutions. The survey choices were consistent with the definitions provided by the Carnegie Foundation for the

Advancement of Teaching (2009) and were used for comparison purposes: (1) Fewer than 1,000, (2) 1,000–2,999, (3) 3,000–9,999, and (4) at least 10,000. As seen in these options, enrollment was more lumped together for larger institutions, a disadvantage of using the Carnegie (2009) definition. It should also be noted that even though smaller institutions explained the top symbolic orientation, institutional type did not. It was not included in this equation because it was only the eleventh highest predictor overall (as shown in Appendix G).

Resources

A director's perception of resource adequacy was related to the political top orientation. Results indicated those career services directors with a political orientation also perceive that they possess adequate resources. At first glance, this seems counterintuitive and goes against findings from Bolman and Deal (1991, 2008), who report the use of political orientations are related to scarce resources that put conflict at the center of day-to-day workplace dynamics. However, cause and effect may be reversed in this case as well. For example, directors who are successful politically may be those who have both the comfort level and skills to network, negotiate, and subsequently obtain adequate resources (Bolman and Deal, 2008). Political directors may also be adept at identifying the tensions that exist in organizations and then build coalitions to address those areas (Morgan, 2006).

Research Question Three Interpretations: How Do Identified Top Leadership Orientations Relate to Career Service Directors' Effectiveness?

The human resources and symbolic orientations were significantly and positively correlated to career service directors' effectiveness (human resources at the .01 level and

symbolic at the .05 level). Possible reasons for these findings were explored through a comparison of effectiveness questions and leadership survey items for the human resources and symbolic orientations. The effectiveness measure was a cumulative measure and comprised of X items, while each orientation was comprised of Y survey items, so “deconstructing” the effectiveness measure and the orientations provides some insight into the relationship.

A strong association was present between effectiveness and leadership orientation items across particular constructs. For example, aspects of collaboration were evaluated in the effectiveness measure for three separate questions, with (1) faculty, (2) other student service unit leaders, and (3) employers. In turn, collaboration with these constituencies appears to be closely related to four human resources questions: (1) item 6, build trust through open and collaborative relationships; (2) 14, foster high levels of participation and involvement in decisions; (3) 22, listen well and are receptive to others ideas; and (4) 30, being a highly participative manager. It is likely that a career services director who scores highly in human resources might also feel effective in these areas since they have related themes. Similar observations can be seen in comparing the symbolic orientation items to effectiveness questions pertaining to what one might call “visioning” or helping people look to the future with an eye toward optimism. For example, questions 20 (communicate a strong and challenging sense of vision and mission) and 24 (see beyond current realities to generate exciting new opportunities), are closely related to effectiveness for a “vision of the future for the career services office,” an “office that prepares students for the job search,” and an “office that develops quality career opportunities for students.”

In reflecting upon these findings, the values that underlie the leadership orientations and the effectiveness measure are also linked to the literature. In their theory development, Bolman and Deal (1991) compared leadership orientations to the Competing Values Framework (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). In looking at this comparison, the human resources and symbolic orientations are closely related to one another in terms of the values (Bolman & Deal, 1991; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) that intersect what Quinn and Rohrbaugh termed the Human Relations model, as shown in Figure 2 below. The figure also notes the significant leadership orientations related to career service directors' effectiveness.

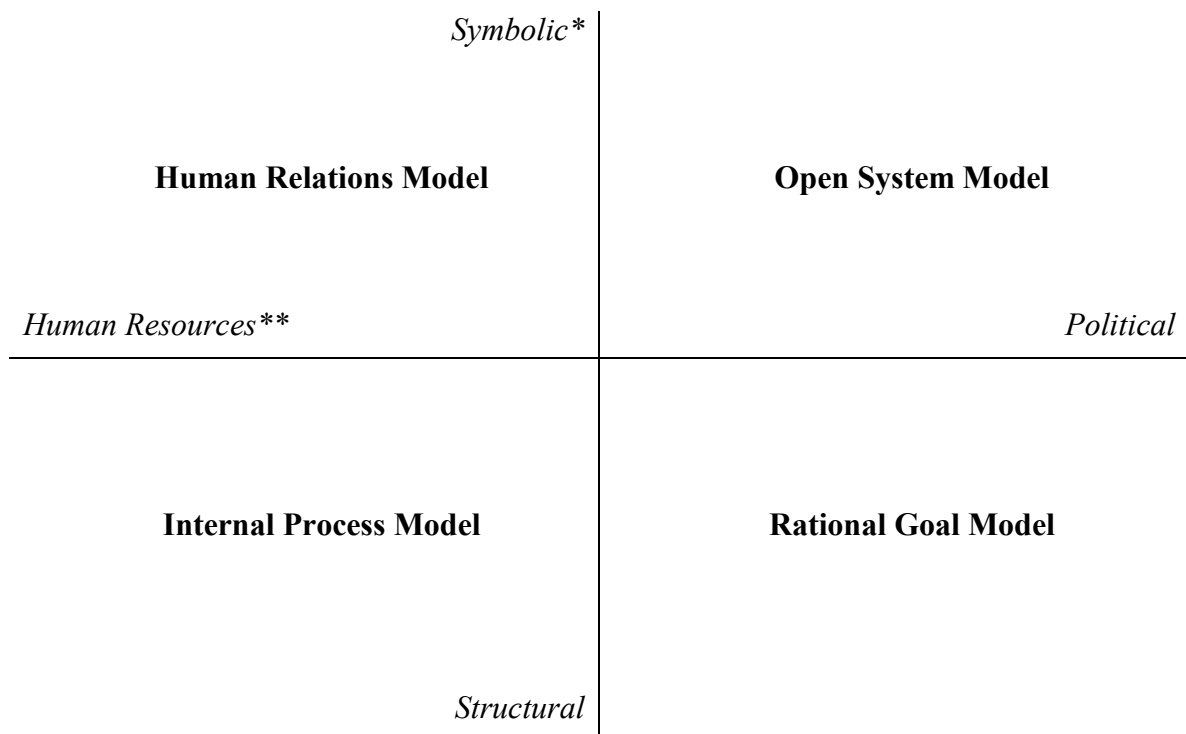


Figure 2. Relatedness of Career Services Director Leadership Orientation to the Competing Values Framework from Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), p. 369; Bolman & Deal (1991), p. 513

*Correlation to career service directors' effectiveness is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

**Correlation to career service directors' effectiveness is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

For career service directors, the results for this research question, combined with a comparison to Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), show that the symbolic and human resource orientations are indeed effective ways to lead in the field. In their discussion of values, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) and Bolman and Deal (1991) note that the human relations model emphasizes the importance of cohesion and morale, components from the human resources orientation (being caring, trusting, and collaborative) and the symbolic orientation (being artistic, expressive, and metaphoric). Cohesion and morale are also seen in the corresponding leadership orientation survey items: (1) for human resources (question 1, showing high levels of support and concern for others, and question 26, giving personal recognition for work well done) and (2) for symbolic (question 12, being an inspiration to others, and question 28, generating loyalty and enthusiasm). Clearly, there is a connection among the orientation survey items, the effectiveness items, and the competing values framework, which are all reasonable explanations for why the human resources and symbolic orientations yielded a significant relationship with the cumulative effectiveness measure.

The results from this research question provide both similar and different perspectives related to Bolman and Deal (1991, 2008), who report effective leaders in higher education are highest on symbolic, political, and human resources orientations. For career services directors, it is the symbolic and human resources orientations that most prominently correlate to effectiveness, with the political frame left out entirely.

Question Four Interpretations: What Combination of Demographic and Profile Characteristics and Leadership Orientation

Explain Career Services Directors' Effectiveness?

The interpretations for this research question discuss predictors for career service directors' effectiveness. Five different models were run: four models contained only one of the four leadership orientations (for that group which designated said orientation as dominant), and a final, comprehensive model that combined all of the data (all respondent data for all orientations). Findings and discussion includes: (1) the effect of leadership orientation on effectiveness, (2) the influence of experience on effectiveness, and (3) resource adequacy and its perceived impact on effectiveness.

Leadership Orientation

Leadership orientation was influential in explaining effectiveness. For example, the top orientation mean (which included the top average score whether it was for structural, human resources, political, or symbolic) was significant in the comprehensive model, which included all respondents and their top leadership orientation. One possible reason for this finding is that a leader more confident in reporting a top orientation might also self-rank higher on effectiveness items. In addition, the effectiveness items seemed to address a range of topics that could relate to several orientations and could have been interpreted by the participant through his/her preferred leadership orientation. For example, collaboration with employers, faculty, and staff could be seen through a political lens as negotiation and developing strong alliances; or from a human resources perspective as engaging with others to show concern and foster involvement.

Three out of the four individual models explained effectiveness (for political, human resources, and symbolic), so multiple perspectives were found to be effective. Of the individual modules (where only one leadership orientation was included), the political orientation model yielded the highest standard coefficient but was the least popular top orientation. Two observations can be made from this finding:

(1) Participants identifying with a political orientation might assess themselves higher in effectiveness items because of the measure's political themes. For example, political skills and negotiating are present when evaluating effectiveness components, including question 10, being an effective advocate for career services to university administration; questions 2, 3, and 4, which assess coordination with employers, faculty, and staff, and question 7, leading an office that provides quality opportunities. In each of these areas, political navigation is required, especially in addressing input and feedback from various constituencies.

(2) With respect to the political orientation as the least popular orientation in the study, career service directors may not prefer a political orientation, even though it can be an effective approach. As noted in the interpretations for research question three in this chapter (Figure 2), the values for the political orientation (the least cited top orientation) are the antithesis of the values for the human resources orientation (the most widely cited top orientation).

Although the political orientation may not be the most popular among career services directors, these results may suggest that this orientation may actually be effective in conducting some of the business of the career services office.

Experience

Experience at any level of career services was a significant predictor of career service directors' effectiveness. This was the case for two out of the four orientation models (human resources and political) and the comprehensive model. Participants were experienced in career services prior to being a director and averaged 15.034 years at any level of career services and 9.266 years at the director level. The 5.7 years of experience prior to being a director probably included tasks related to the effectiveness measure, which now help participants be more effective in a director role as they manage employees who fulfill these tasks. In many career centers, non-director personnel undertake vital roles and functions. These roles can be seen to varying degrees in the effectiveness measure, whether it is a career counselor providing education to students about career development or collaborating with faculty and staff, an employer relations liaison developing quality career opportunities for students and collaborating with employers, or an assistant director providing career information to students through website development or evaluating programs by assisting with an annual employment report.

Comprehensive Model: Resource Adequacy

Resource adequacy was a significant predictor and positively related to effectiveness for the comprehensive model. It is important to examine the wording of this question, which asked participants to evaluate the phrase: "I am given adequate resources to carry out my job as a career services director." Given that this question was worded in the affirmative, it could have influenced respondents to interpret the question in a more

positive light. It is also likely that directors who feel they have adequate resources are better able to be effective and carry out their leadership tasks.

Implications for Theory

This section focuses on two areas: (1) a new potential area of research that addresses career services effectiveness and (2) additions to the Bolman and Deal leadership and management theory.

Career Services Leadership and Effectiveness

A new effectiveness measure was created to assess career services leaders. This measure could be used in additional institutional settings (beyond this study) in assessing career services. Previously, the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) and the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) have described effectiveness for the discipline in two separate professional standards. This research blended each approach to create one effectiveness survey, which reflected the variety of areas that directors lead.

The results of the study indicate that respondents may have interpreted different items in the effectiveness survey in different ways that align with their leadership orientation perspective, so it may be important to conduct qualitative interviews with individuals who display different orientations and investigate how they are interpreting the questions.

Bolman and Deal Leadership and Management Theory

This study adds to the body of research regarding the Bolman and Deal (1991, 2008) leadership and management theory, by applying it to a specific population. The results of this study show that career service director orientations more closely align with

effective managers (as defined by Bolman and Deal's conclusions after applying their orientations to different populations) than leaders. Career service director orientations are more closely aligned to effective corporate middle managers than higher education administrators. The most effective orientations for career services directors were political, human resources, and symbolic, which align with the same two effective management orientations for corporate middle managers (Bolman & Deal, 1991). It is a possibility that effective corporate middle managers could also exercise leadership qualities. However, the before mentioned orientations most closely align with management, according to Bolman and Deal, 1991. In contrast, effective higher education administrators were highest in symbolic, political, and human resources for leadership and structural, political, and human resources for effective management (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

The reliability of the Bolman and Deal (1991, 2008) Leadership Orientations Survey was also evaluated with an additional, new profession. For the entire sample ($n = 173$), results showed Cronbach's α was slightly lower compared to the Cronbach's α from Bolman and Deal (1991, 2008). For the career services sample, alphas were: .851 for structural, .785 for human resources, .812 for political, and .775 for symbolic. This falls into the acceptable to excellent range for internal consistency (George & Mallery, 2003). These findings were lower than the combined results with multiple populations from Bolman and Deal (1991, 2008) regarding coefficient alphas, which fell into the excellent range, according to George and Mallery (2003): structural (.920), human resources (.931), political (.913), and symbolic (.931). This finding implies that the leadership construct with career service directors was less slightly less reliable when compared to

those from previous populations, even though findings were in the acceptable to excellent range.

Implications for Practice

This section discusses implications for practice from both the perspective of the career services director and from the perspective of the next higher level of administration.

Career Services Director Perspective

Results show three leadership orientations are related to effectiveness: political, human resources, and symbolic. Given that not all problems can be solved in the same way, this finding can encourage career services leaders to use a variety of leadership orientations (or perhaps certain characteristics associated with different orientations) and utilize the most effective leadership orientations for their particular campus, institutional culture, and political climate. A challenge to this suggestion is that leaders tend to gravitate to the orientations that they are most comfortable using (Bolman & Deal, 1991, 2008). Given that three leadership orientations were found to be effective, however, this may encourage career service leaders to work outside of their comfort zone and explore other styles in order to be effective. For example, human resources was the most common leadership orientation, but it may not always be the best option depending on the presenting problem and context. This could encourage career services leaders to use other leadership orientations that may not be the most preferred approach. The idea of applying different “styles” to different situations is well aligned with the idea of situational leadership, as articulated by Hersey, Blanchard, and Natemeyer (1979)

Leadership can be smothered by the day-to-day tasks of being a manager (Bolman & Deal, 1994), and this is noteworthy for the career services leader. Many leaders in higher education are challenged to do more with less in the midst of rising expectations from students and other constituencies as college costs rise. Specifically, as this pertains to career service directors, these expectations may have a consequence of increased administrative tasks, including duties such as coordinating career fairs and on-campus recruitment, which seem to be more aligned with management than leadership. During these times of increased managerial activities, it is also important for career service leaders not to lose focus on leadership qualities, such as a vision for the office and establishing a culture that provides an atmosphere for collaboration with key constituencies.

Next Higher Level of Administration

When hiring a career services director, one possible implication for practice is to examine characteristics that explain effectiveness. The following characteristics explained effectiveness: leadership orientation (in any of the four orientations but structural), more years worked in career services at any level and at the director level, and an increased perception of adequate resources to carry out the job. Hiring administrators may consider these characteristics when hiring the right fit for an institution (especially related to the institution's size and the number of full-time career services staff).

Resource adequacy

Resource adequacy is a factor that the next higher level of administration could consider in working with a career services director. This variable was a significant predictor of effectiveness for the comprehensive model. Supervisors of career services

leaders could address this area in an open fashion, ideally during the interview process for hiring a new director. The hiring manager could inform the candidate of what resources are available and then ask the candidate if he/she feels like these are adequate resources to do their job. Those who do not feel like resources are adequate, will probably not be successful in that environment. Those who feel like the resource availability articulated in the interview is adequate, will likely be more effective. In addition, resource adequacy could take multiple forms, in terms of support as well as staffing and financial resources. Some of these resources may be more expensive than others (e.g. hiring staff). However, lower cost resources could be provided by supervisors of career service leaders, which could enhance support during higher levels of administrative activity (e.g. collaboration with other departments to assist with large-scale career events and encouragement of faculty involvement with employer recruitment).

Recommendations for Future Research

This study provided an exploratory perspective regarding leadership with career service offices and a glimpse into the nature of this topic. There are opportunities for future research in this area: (1) from additional points-of-view, (2) with additional methodologies, and (3) with specific industry types from specialized career service centers. Challenges for future research are also discussed in this section.

Additional Points of View

Additional points of view could be utilized to address career services leadership, including the perspective of supervisors of career service leaders, supervisees of career service leaders, students and alumni, employers, and faculty. It would be interesting to

assess the similarities and differences from each of these different constituencies and further identify the effective leadership orientations and approaches of career service directors.

Additional Methodologies

Additional methodologies would provide another lens in which to understand career services leadership. This study utilized survey research, and additional methodologies such as qualitative interviews and participant responses could provide insight into aspects of reframing and multiple frame usage. An example of this would be to ask career service directors how they interpret the various survey items related to effectiveness. A case approach could also address aspects of contextual factors that influence how and when specific leadership orientations are used most effectively.

Specific Industries and Specialized Career Center Leadership

Future research could also examine specialized career service centers. This research sample was from general collegiate career service centers. Future research could explore effective leadership orientations in career centers serving a specific industry, including those focused on business, engineering, hospitality, communication, and healthcare. Similarities and differences of effective leadership style in those environments would be interesting to examine compared to a general career services setting.

Challenges to Future Research

The career services leadership topic potentially falls into many areas of academia, which may create challenges for peer-reviewed dissemination regarding the topic. Few peer-reviewed publications appear to be an exact fit for this topic, and the role of career

services is most widely cited through professional associations (such as the National Association of Colleges and Employers). For example, The Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice (JSARP), the Journal of College Student Development (JCSD), and the Career Development Quarterly (CDQ) are prospective publications for dissemination. However, each publication has its own area of focus that has not traditionally included the perspective of career services leadership, including JSARP (which has mostly focused on other student affairs areas), JCSD (which has traditionally focused on individual student development), and CDQ (which has predominantly addressed career development at the individual and organizational levels). Because there is not a clearly-defined academic venue for discussion of findings, this topic does not necessarily appear high on the priority list for conference presentations and publications, even though career services is the third most common student affairs unit and 78 percent of student affairs units include career services (Kuk & Banning, 2009). Given this situation, there could be challenges to disseminate future research, and in turn, develop future theories related to this topic. In the future, it will be the responsibility of researchers to effectively convey the importance of this topic and its relevant implications to higher education.

Summary

This chapter discussed the research findings, including the top leadership orientations exhibited by career services directors, demographic and profile characteristics that explain career services directors' leadership orientations, leadership orientations that relate to effectiveness, and the combination of demographic variables and leadership orientation that explain career services director's effectiveness. Human

resources was a widely cited top leadership orientation, but three top leadership orientations explained effectiveness, including human resources, political, and symbolic. Of these three top orientations, political resulted in the highest standard coefficient related to effectiveness in the regression model. Experience was also found to be a significant variable in explaining effectiveness, including at any level of career services and at the director level. In addition, resource adequacy to carry out a director's job was significant in explaining effectiveness. Implications for practice were discussed at both the career center director level and the next higher level of administration. These findings provide a beginning for a potential future line of research in student affairs and higher education, and future research could evaluate leadership and effectiveness from additional points of view, with additional methodologies, and with specific industries and specialized career center leadership.

Appendix A: Leadership Orientations Survey

Form S-4

Your name: _____

LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS (SELF)

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This questionnaire asks you to describe your leadership and management style.

I. Behaviors

You are asked to indicate how often each of the items below is true of you.

Please use the following scale in answering each item.

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Sometimes		Always
	Occasionally		Often	

So, you would answer '1' for an item that is never true of you, '2' for one that is occasionally true, '3' for one that is sometimes true of you, and so on.

Be discriminating! Your results will be more helpful if you think about each item and distinguish the things that you really do all the time from the things that you do seldom or never.

1. _____ Think very clearly and logically.
2. _____ Show high levels of support and concern for others.
3. _____ Have exceptional ability to mobilize people and resources to get things done.
4. _____ Inspire others to do their best.
5. _____ Strongly emphasize careful planning and clear time lines.
6. _____ Build trust through open and collaborative relationships.
7. _____ Am a very skillful and shrewd negotiator.
8. _____ Am highly charismatic.
9. _____ Approach problems through logical analysis and careful thinking.
10. _____ Show high sensitivity and concern for others' needs and feelings.
11. _____ Am unusually persuasive and influential.
12. _____ Am able to be an inspiration to others.
13. _____ Develop and implement clear, logical policies and procedures.
14. _____ Foster high levels of participation and involvement in decisions.
15. _____ Anticipate and deal adroitly with organizational conflict.
16. _____ Am highly imaginative and creative.
17. _____ Approach problems with facts and logic.
18. _____ Am consistently helpful and responsive to others.
19. _____ Am very effective in getting support from people with influence and power.
20. _____ Communicate a strong and challenging sense of vision and mission.
21. _____ Set specific, measurable goals and hold people accountable for results.
22. _____ Listen well and am unusually receptive to other people's ideas and input.

- 23. _____ Am politically very sensitive and skillful.
- 24. _____ See beyond current realities to generate exciting new opportunities.
- 25. _____ Have extraordinary attention to detail.
- 26. _____ Give personal recognition for work well done.
- 27. _____ Develop alliances to build a strong base of support.
- 28. _____ Generate loyalty and enthusiasm.
- 29. _____ Strongly believe in clear structure and a chain of command.
- 30. _____ Am a highly participative manager.
- 31. _____ Succeed in the face of conflict and opposition.
- 32. _____ Serve as an influential model of organizational aspirations and values.

II. Leadership Style

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

1. My strongest skills are:

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

2. The best way to describe me is:

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

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

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

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

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

5. My most important leadership trait is:

- _____ a. Clear, logical thinking
- _____ b. Caring and support for others
- _____ c. Toughness and aggressiveness
- _____ d. Imagination and creativity

6. I am best described as:

- _____ a. An analyst
- _____ b. A humanist
- _____ c. A politician
- _____ d. A visionary

III. Overall rating

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

1. Overall effectiveness as a manager.

1	2	3	4	5
Bottom 20%		Middle 20%		Top 20%

2. Overall effectiveness as a leader.

1	2	3	4	5
Bottom 20%		Middle 20%		Top 20%

IV. Background Information

1. Are you: ____ Male ____ Female
2. How many years have you been in your current job? ____
3. How many total years of experience do you have as a manager? ____

Appendix A-1: Examples of Dimensions of the Leadership Orientations Survey for this Research

1. Human Resource Dimensions

Supportive – concerned about the feelings of others; supportive and responsive

Participative – fosters participation and involvement; listens and is open to new ideas

Example for this research: Career directors must show concern for the emotional temperature of staff, students, alumni, employers, faculty, and university administrators through in person and online feedback in order to provide a supportive and responsive service.

2. Structural Dimensions

Analytic – thinks clearly and logically; approaches problems with facts and attends to detail.

Example for this research: Career directors may base changes in service with facts from graduating student surveys, employment marketing conditions, service usage from students, and surveys regarding areas of improvement.

3. Political Dimensions

Powerful – persuasive, high level of ability to mobilize people and resources; effective at building alliances and support

Adroit – politically sensitive and skillful; a skillful negotiator in face of conflict and opposition.

Example for this research: Students may expect the career services staff to “give” them a job while career staff aims to assist with the

process of job addition to work with students. The context of leading a career services office at a college or university requires the director to be proactive in addressing misconceptions about office functions with employers and parents. Employers may question the quality of student applicants while the career services director strives to maintain the university's reputation for having quality student employees or interns. Parents may not understand why specific companies do not recruit at their child's college or university while the career services director has been told by an employer that other institutions are targeted on their hiring list.

4. Symbolic Dimensions

Inspirational – inspires others to loyalty and enthusiasm; communicates a strong sense of vision.

Charismatic – imaginative, emphasizes culture and values; is highly charismatic.

Example for this research: The career services director must communicate a consistent vision in order to keep staff motivated, establish buy-in and participation at events from faculty and employers, and maintain consistency with the larger institutional mission.

Appendix B: Leadership Effectiveness Measure

Please read each statement carefully and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree. You may also indicate if the statement is not applicable. Your responses will remain confidential as outlined in the informed consent for this research. You may exit out of the survey at any time and choose not to participate.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I am effective in providing a vision of the future for the career services office.	SD	D	N	A	SA
2. I am effective in collaboration with faculty.	SD	D	N	A	SA
3. I am effective in collaborating with other student service unit leaders.	SD	D	N	A	SA
4. I am effective in collaboration with employers.	SD	D	N	A	SA
5. I am effective in leading an office that provides career information to students.	SD	D	N	A	SA
6. I am effective in leading an office that prepares students for the job search.	SD	D	N	A	SA
7. I am effective in leading an office that develops quality career opportunities for students.	SD	D	N	A	SA

8. I am effective in leading an office that provides education to students about career development.	SD	D	N	A	SA
9. I am effective in budgeting for the career services office.	SD	D	N	A	SA
10. I am an effective advocate for career services to university administration.	SD	D	N	A	SA
11. I am effective in developing a strategic plan for the career office.	SD	D	N	A	SA
12. I am effective in evaluating career service office functions.	SD	D	N	A	SA
13. I am effective overall as a career services director.	SD	D	N	A	SA

Appendix C: Background Questionnaire

1. What is your highest level of education completed? Dropdown menu – bachelor’s through Ph.D.

2. How long have you worked in career services at any level?

3. How long have you worked in career services at the director level?

4. How long have you worked at your current position? _____

5. What type of institution do you currently work with?

- ☐ Private
- ☐ Public

1. In what division is your career services office located?

- ☐ Student Affairs
- ☐ Academic Affairs
- ☐ Enrollment Management
- ☐ Other (please specify): _____

7. What is the full-time enrollment of your institution, including both undergraduate and graduate students? Please mark the corresponding size below.

- ☐ Fewer than 1,000
- ☐ 1,000–2,999
- ☐ 3,000–9,999
- ☐ at least 10,000

8. What is your sex? Male ____ Female ____

9. How old are you? _____

10. Please indicate your race or ethnicity: _____

11. I am given adequate resources to carry out my job as a career services director?

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Not Applicable
SD	D	N	A	SA	NA

12. How many full-time career services staff is at your center? _____

Appendix D: Sample Recruitment E-mail for Participants

Hello,
How does one effectively lead a career services office?

You are invited to participate in my dissertation research titled, “The Leadership Orientations and Effectiveness of University Career Service Office Directors.” The question above has intrigued me throughout my professional experience in career services and has led to this research to complete my dissertation.

I anticipate that this research will take approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete and will be very valuable in furthering our understanding of career service director leadership, which has not been empirically researched.

All individual responses for this research will be held confidential and will only be viewed by my dissertation chair and me. There are no direct benefits to you from participating, nor are there any risks besides those of everyday life. Information collected from this study will be kept in a password protected website (Qualtrics, an online survey website) with only the researchers for this study.

To participate, please click the link below for the informed consent for this research and surveys. All information for this research will be held confidential and will only be viewed by my dissertation chair and me.

LINK HERE FOR INFORMED CONSENT AND QUALTRICS SURVEYS

This research has been approved by the University of Nevada, Las Vegas Office of Research Integrity with Human Subjects. If you have any questions regarding this research, please feel free to contact me at livengo2@unlv.nevada.edu or 617-620-4892 or my dissertation chair, Dr. Mario Martinez at mario.martinez@unlv.edu or 702-895-2895. A copy of the informed consent for this research is available below in this e-mail for your records.

Thank you for your participation to further our understanding about collegiate career services.

Cordially,
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Appendix E: Example Effectiveness Equations

For RQ4: What Combination of Demographic and Profile Characteristics and Leadership Orientation Explain Career Services Directors' Effectiveness?

Formula used: $Y = a_0 + a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n$

Top five independent variable equation:

$Y_{\text{total effectiveness}}$ (The total effectiveness score was calculated by averaging the responses for all effectiveness questions (1 – 14) given assigned numerical values) =
 $a_0 + a_1x_{\text{cs director experience}} + a_2x_{\text{time at current}} + a_3x_{\text{work in career services at any level}} + a_4x_{\text{resource adequacy}} + a_5x_{\text{overall highest mean frame score from Section I}}$

Comprehensive model equation (including all demographic and profile characteristics and top leadership orientation score)

$Y_{\text{total effectiveness}}$ (The total effectiveness score was calculated by averaging the responses for all effectiveness questions (1 – 14) given assigned numerical values) =
 $a_0 + a_1x_{\text{education}} + a_2x_{\text{cs director experience}} + a_3x_{\text{time at current}} + a_4x_{\text{work in career services at any level}} + a_5x_{\text{current institution}} + a_6x_{\text{FT enrollment}} + a_7x_{\text{sex}} + a_8x_{\text{age}} + a_9x_{\text{ethnicity}} + a_{10}x_{\text{race}} + \dots + a_{15}x_{\text{overall highest mean frame score from Section I}}$

Appendix F: Resources used to develop effectiveness measure from NACE Professional Standards for College & University Career Services and Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) Standards – Career Services division

Aspects consulted from NACE Professional Standards for College & University Career Services (p. 10, 11):

“Leadership by Career Services Managers:

Effective and ethical leadership is essential to the success of all organizations. In career services, that leadership comes from members of the management team, including the director, associate directors, and assistant directors.

The institution must appoint, position, and empower career services leaders at various levels within the administrative structure to accomplish the stated mission and goals.

Career services leaders at various levels should be selected on the basis of formal education and training, relevant work experience, personal skills and competencies, relevant professional credentials, as well as potential for promoting learning and development in students, applying effective practices to educational processes, and enhancing institutional effectiveness.

The institution must determine expectations of accountability for leaders and fairly assess their performance.

Leaders in the career services unit must exercise authority over resources for which they are responsible to achieve their respective missions.

Career services leaders must:

- articulate a vision for their organization.
- set goals and objectives based on the needs and capabilities of the population served.
- promote student learning and development.
- prescribe and practice ethical behavior.
- recruit, select, supervise, and develop others in the organization.
- manage financial resources.
- coordinate human resources.

- plan, budget for, and evaluate personnel and programs.
- apply effective practices to educational and administrative processes.
- communicate effectively.
- initiate collaborative interaction between individuals and agencies that possess legitimate concerns and interests in the functional area.

Career services leaders should identify and find means to address individual, organizational, or environmental conditions that inhibit goal achievement.

Career services leaders should promote campus environments that result in multiple opportunities for student learning and development.

Career services leaders must continuously improve programs and services in response to changing needs of students and other constituents, and evolving institutional priorities.

If career components are offered through multiple units, the institution should designate a leader or leadership team to provide strategic direction and align career services with the mission of the institution and the needs of the constituencies served.

Career services leaders should coordinate efforts with other units in the institution providing career components to integrate career services into the broader educational mission. Key constituencies served by each unit are clearly identified and reflected in the mission and goals of the unit.

Careers services leaders must be advocates for the advancement of career services within the institution.

Career services leaders must participate in institutional decisions about career services objectives and policies.

Career services leaders must participate in institutional decisions related to the identification and designation of students and others served.

Decisions about students served should include type and scope of services offered and the fees, if any, that are charged.

Aspects consulted from the CAS Career Standards (p. 14-15):

“An institution must appoint, position, and empower a leader or leadership team to provide strategic direction, manage programs and services, and align Career Services (CS) with the mission of the institution and the needs of the constituencies served.

If components of career services are offered by several units, the institution must designate a leader or leadership team that will coordinate the institution's programs and services.

Such leadership is necessary to ensure adherence to institutional and unit missions and to enhance program effectiveness and efficiency.

Because effective and ethical leadership is essential to the success of all organizations,

CS leaders with organizational authority for the programs and services must:

- articulate a vision and mission for their programs and services
- set goals and objectives based on the needs of the population served and desired student learning and development outcomes
- advocate for their programs and services
- promote campus environments that provide meaningful opportunities for student learning, development, and integration
- identify and find means to address individual, organizational, or environmental conditions that foster or inhibit mission achievement
- advocate for representation in strategic planning initiatives at appropriate divisional and institutional levels
- initiate collaborative interactions with stakeholders who have legitimate concerns and interests in the functional area
- apply effective practices to educational and administrative processes
- prescribe and model ethical behavior
- communicate effectively
- manage financial resources, including planning, allocation, monitoring, and analysis
- incorporate sustainability practices in the management and design of programs, services, and facilities
- manage human resource processes including recruitment, selection, development, supervision, performance planning, and evaluation

- empower professional, support, and student staff to accept leadership opportunities
- encourage and support scholarly contribution to the profession
- be informed about and integrate appropriate technologies into programs and services
- be knowledgeable about federal, state/provincial, and local laws relevant to the programs and services and ensure that staff members understand their responsibilities by receiving appropriate training
- develop and continuously improve programs and services in response to the changing needs of students and other populations served and the evolving institutional priorities
- recognize environmental conditions that may negatively influence the safety of staff and students and propose interventions that mitigate such conditions

CS leaders must conduct regular program evaluations to improve operations and to adjust to changing client needs, evolving institutional priorities, and changes in the workforce and employment conditions.

CS leaders must annually review, update, and communicate goals and objectives to appropriate constituencies.

CS leaders should identify and find means to address individual, organizational, or environmental conditions that inhibit goal achievement.

CS leaders must participate in institutional decisions about career services objectives and policies. CS leaders must participate in institutional decisions related to the identification and designation of clients served.”

**Appendix G: Research Question Two – Correlation Coefficients and Rankings to
Top Leadership Orientation for All Participants and for each Top Leadership
Orientation (Rankings for each group provided in parentheses)**

	All	Structural	HR	Political	Symbolic	Total Score	Final Rank
Perception of adequate resources to carry out job*	.177 (1)	-.042 (10)	.182 (1)	.278 (2)	.316 (1)	15	1
Age*	.121 (2)	.184 (3)	.124 (2)	-.058 (9)	.166 (5)	21	2
Years worked at your current position*	.092 (3)	.107 (6)	.095 (5)	-.076 (8)	.222 (2)	24	4
Years worked in career services at the director level	.068 (4)	.104 (7)	.118 (3)	-.087 (7)	.031 (8)	29	6
Public or Private	-.056 (5)	-.165 (5)	.039 (10)	-.303 (1)	-.023 (10)	31	7
Full-time enrollment, undergraduate and graduate*	-.049 (6)	.229 (2)	-.093 (6)	-.106 (6)	-.148 (6)	26	5
Sex	-.044 (7)	.019 (11)	-.108 (4)	-.021 (10)	-.026 (9)	41	9
Number of full-time career services staff*	.043 (8)	.253 (1)	-.041 (9)	-.303 (1)	.214 (3)	22	3
Years worked in career services at any level	-.029 (9)	-.042 (10)	.015 (12)	-.173 (5)	-.007 (12)	48	12
Division of Office	.009 (10)	.179 (4)	-.048 (8)	-.005 (11)	.068 (7)	40	8
Race	.002 (11)	.055 (8)	.037 (11)	-.004 (12)	.004 (13)	55	13
Institutional Type - Carnegie Classification	.008 (12)	.019 (11)	.060 (7)	-.183 (4)	-.018 (11)	45	11
Highest level of education completed	-.003 (13)	.052 (9)	-.007 (13)	-.254 (3)	.190 (4)	42	10

*Indicates variable was chosen for use in regressions as a top five variable

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CURRICULUM VITAE

Jacob A. Livengood

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EDUCATION

<i>Ph.D.</i>	Doctor of Philosophy in Higher Education Department of Educational Psychology & Higher Education University of Nevada, Las Vegas	December 2012
<i>M.S.W.</i>	Master of Social Work Major: Community Mental Health University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign	2001
<i>B.A.</i>	Bachelor of Arts Major: Psychology Southern Illinois University at Carbondale	2000
<i>A.A.</i>	Associate of Arts Major: Mass Communications Parkland College Champaign, IL	1998

SUMMARY

Supervision and Management

- Ten years of administrative experience in career counseling, teaching and recruitment
- Coordinated relationships with non-profit and for-profit employers
- Researched effective accountability mechanisms and challenges with collegiate career services
- Utilized statistical software to analyze leadership and effectiveness of collegiate career services
- Managed and evaluated 24-hour crisis services with universities, emergency departments and police
- Supervised over 100 volunteers and six clinicians for a 24-hour crisis hotline
- Supervised practicum students from multiple masters programs in psychology and social work
- Generated web-based resources, including social media groups and podcasts

Career Counseling

- Provided career counseling with students and alumni from all majors
- Empowered students to complete a successful job and internship search through a review of resumes, mock interviews and career workshops in both non-profit and for-profit sectors
- Utilized student development theories and inventories to aid students and alumni in selection of experiential learning activities and career paths
- Presented at conferences regarding effective social media use and counseling approaches

Teaching

- Taught diverse students at both undergraduate and graduate levels with multiple institutions
- Instructed courses in career planning, counseling, assessment, and theory in person and online
- Developed career planning and student development workshops for numerous academic disciplines

Employer Relations and Recruitment

- Coordinated job fairs and industry-specific networking events ranging from 15 to 100 employers
- Marketed career service and employer events both online and in print
- Utilized computer platforms to facilitate recruiting functions, including Symplicity and eRecruiting
- Prepared new recruitment brochures, policy materials, manuals and newsletters
- Recruited faculty and student participation for events with multiple academic departments

EMPLOYMENT HISTORY

Boston University School of Management

Assistant Director, Undergraduate Career Services

Oct. 2010 - present

Appointed Lecturer, Organizational Behavior Department

Jan. 2011 – present

- Taught two to three “Charting Your Career Path” courses each semester with 45-60 students per section to enhance job search and career development skills of undergraduate business students
- Achieved 90% employment rate for the Class of 2011 (the highest at the school in 10 years) by developing and leading follow-up efforts with team of 10 via online and phone calls with recent alumni
- Established formal mentor program for MIS and Finance students to serve as a pilot program for the school with a team of alumni relations, career services, and student group leaders.
- Implemented and researched use of subscription career video service (CareerSpots) resulting in more than 300 students per month accessing quality and engaging career information in class and after office hours.
- Coached up to 40 students per week during individual appointments and walk-ins for resume reviews, mock interviews, job search counseling, and career development direction
- Developed first-year student strategies to “Maximize summer opportunities,” which were presented in first-year courses to class of 100
- Supervised two to three career peer advisors and teaching assistants in teaching career material during individual sessions to peer business students
- Served on accreditation student services focus group with Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) site visit

University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Program Coordinator, Hotel College Career Office

Sep. 2007 – Sep. 2010

Graduate Assistant, Career Services & Educational Leadership

June 2009 – present

Program Coordinator, Hotel College Career Office

Feb. 2008 – May 2009

Sep. 2007 – Feb. 2008

- Reviewed an average of 60 resumes per month with undergraduate and graduate students as part of a two-person start-up office
- Established new career services office with director through marketing and outreach efforts resulting in 400 contacts visiting the office per month, including current and prospective students and faculty
- Facilitated large-scale networking and recruiting events with up to 200 attendees with two-person office
- Taught and reviewed career assessment results with undergraduate and graduate students from all academic backgrounds, including the MBTI, Strong Interest Inventory, and DISCOVER
- Developed marketing campaigns via print and social media to boost attendance at career events and programs
- Represented the Hotel College and university as a first point of contact with prospective students and families to answer questions and distribute recruitment materials
- Coordinated up to 15 employer events per week during peak recruitment, including outreach tables, information sessions, and fairs so operations and employer experience ran smoothly

University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Jan. 2008 – June 2009

Graduate Research & Teaching Assistant, Career Counselor - College of Education & Career Services Office

CAREER SERVICES

- Interpreted career assessment results, including the MBTI, Strong Interest Inventory, and DISCOVER, with undergraduate and graduate students from all academic backgrounds
- Provided career counseling and job search assistance in person and in groups with students from all majors and degree levels
- Developed social media marketing efforts with colleague to enhance online presence and increase attendance at events

TEACHING

- Graded Higher Education Finance budget assignments for class of up to 15
- Answered questions from students taking Higher Education Finance course to increase understanding of material

RESEARCH

- Provided qualitative research assistance with two professors in reviewing content analysis project for faculty productivity
- Examined student affairs literature for journal article submissions

Loyola University Chicago Career Development Center

Oct. 2005 – July 2007

Assistant Director and Career Counselor

Supervisor, practicum students in Psychology and Social Work

- Provided individual and group career counseling with students of liberal arts majors resulting in up to 30 students served per week
- Supervised two to three practicum students per semester as teaching assistants and in the process of career counseling and assessment tools, including the MBTI, Strong Interest Inventory, values and skills exercises
- Managed all-campus, large-scale career fair when coordinator left office resulting in more than 100 attending employers
- Implemented first-ever nursing career fair through outreach to employers and coordinating with student group and more than 100 student attendees
- Planned and led daily events for “Discover Yourself in Science Week,” including employer panel and student recruitment, marketing, and logistics
- Liaised with science department faculty and chairs to assess and implement career events

**Mental Health Center of Champaign County
Crisis Team**

Nov. 2002 – Jan. 2005

Crisis Services Supervisor

Jan. 2005 – Aug. 2005

Crisis Line Coordinator, Recruiter and Clinical Specialist

Nov. 2002 – Jan. 2005

After-hours Crisis Clinician, University of Illinois

Nov. 2002 – Jan. 2005

- Provided crisis intervention with persons of all ages and presenting problems in person and via phone
- Supervised college students during practicum classes in psychology and social work programs to increase counseling skills
- Managed and evaluated performance of 110 volunteers and four crisis clinicians in providing telephone crisis services and documentation with situations from social support to suicide prevention
- Increased Crisis Line volunteer pool by 100 percent, totaling 110 program participants by increasing community volunteers
- Developed agency website by visiting contractors and obtaining feedback from internal and external constituencies resulting in first website to market agency services
- Audited more than three client charts per month for compliance with Medicaid and local grant funding standards
- Created on-the-job training process for new volunteers to have an easier transition to taking crisis calls independently

TEACHING EXPERIENCE – INSTRUCTOR

Boston University School of Management

Charting Your Career Path

January 2010 – present

- Instructed two to three sections each semester with 35-60 students per section to enhance career development and job search skills of School of Management students

Nevada State College

Aug. 2008 – May 2009

Introduction to the College Experience

Enhancing Academic Success

- Taught two to three sections each semester with 25-40 students to acclimate students to college life and have a foundation of academic and social skills for success
- Revised curriculum for required career courses with team of four to provide more active learning

Loyola University Chicago

Oct. 2005 – July 2007

Career and Life Planning

- Taught one section of career course with 20-35 students per semester to enhance aspects of job search and search for a career calling

Argosy University Chicago

June 2006 – June 2007

The Illinois School of Professional Psychology

Career Assessment and Counseling (graduate course)

Lifestyle and Career Development (graduate course with online campus)

Group Counseling (graduate course)

- Taught up to three sections total per semester both in person, online, and in hybrid format so graduate students were more familiar with career assessment tools and counseling process individually and in groups

RESEARCH PROJECTS

Dissertation. The leadership and effectiveness of college and university career services directors. (2012) University of Nevada, Las Vegas.

The Use of Facebook Groups with Admitted College Students. (2012).

Plan to submit to *The Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*

Accountability with University Career Service Offices: Challenges and Strategies (2012).

Plan to submit to *The Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*

CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

Nehls, K. & Livengood, J.A. (2011). OMG, is anyone else like me? Incoming student Facebook group use. Presentation at the NASPA Annual Conference, Philadelphia, PA.

Livengood, J.A. & Helkowski, C. (2009). Learning millennial style: Best practices for connecting through media. Presentation at American College Personnel Association Annual Conference, Washington, D.C.

Livengood, J.S. & Livengood, J.A. (2009). Utilizing YouTube and related technology to dazzle the new generation of college students. Paper presented at the 2009 Christian Society for Kinesiology and Leisure Studies Summer Conference, Ottawa, Canada.

Snyder, D., Livengood, J. A., Lynn, J., Wharton, S., & Nichols, D., (2009). Utilizing Facebook for student affairs. Panel Discussion at University of Nevada, Las Vegas Student Affairs Conference.

Helkowski, C. & Livengood, J.A. (2008) Aloha adulthood: Special challenges in counseling millenials. Presentation at American Counseling Association Annual Conference. Honolulu, HI

INTERNSHIP, PRACTICUM, & TEACHING ASSISTANT SUPERVISION

Boston University School of Management 2011-present
Teaching Assistants – Charting Your Career Path

Loyola University Chicago 2006-2007
Multiple masters students in psychology with multiple institutions

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign 2003-2005
Utah State University
At Crisis Line, Mental Health Center of Champaign County

COMMITTEES and SERVICE

Boston University School of Management 2011-present
Mentor Program Liaison

University of Nevada, Las Vegas
The Rebel Connection - Ask Me Program 2010
Volunteer at Ask Me Orientation Booth

Journal of Unconventional Parks, Tourism & Recreation Research
Reviewer (doctoral student and professional category) 2008-2012

University of Nevada, Las Vegas Department of Recreation and Sport Management Volunteer budget board panelist for graduate management course	2008-2010
Loyola University Chicago Office of Disability Services Social work licensing supervisor with office director	2006-2007
Argosy University Chicago Community Psychology Program Advisory Board	2006
American Red Cross Illini Prairie Chapter Board Member & Marketing Committee	2004-2005