

University of Alberta

Leadership in Online Curriculum Delivery

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore how university department chairs, or equivalent, perceive leadership as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery in higher education. Three research areas guided the study: (a) nature and context of online environment and how it impacts the leadership, (b) the ways in which leaders conceptualize leadership, and (c) challenges and tensions for leadership. The sample included four participants (chair, director, coordinator, and associate dean) from three Western-Canadian universities.

Findings in this study revealed four salient themes and sub-themes: (a) Context – The Setting (*technology, model of learning, faculty categories, cost-recovery versus cost-sharing*); (b) Leadership Preparation (*removing barriers and improving leadership preparation*); (c) Leadership in General (*relational-oriented, vision and direction setting, organizational culture and cultural diversity, ethics*); and (d) Challenges and Tensions (*past, present, future, organizational realities*).

The study concludes with a discussion of the implications for practice that include: balance between administrator and scholar, leadership preparation, and degree proposals. Implications for theory include: leadership in the context of online curriculum delivery, cost-recovery, technology, cultural diversity, ethics and equity, as well as organizational change. Finally, based on the findings, conclusions, and implications, several questions that warrant future research into the phenomenon of leadership in higher education are shared.

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Chapter 1

Introduction to the Study

“Determine that the thing can and shall be done, and then we shall find a way”.

(Abraham Lincoln)

Background of the Study

What is leadership? Attempts to define leadership can generate long-drawn out discussions, which are broad and narrow in scope, depending on the particular analysis (Bass, 2008). After a thorough review of the literature pertaining to leadership, Stogdill (1974) concluded, “there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept” (p. 259). In his survey involving definitions of leadership, Yukl (2006), proclaimed “most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person over the other people to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organization” (p. 3). Similarly, Northouse (2007) stipulated that there are four central components to the phenomenon: (a) leadership is a process; (b) leadership involves influence; (c) leadership occurs in a group context; and (d) leadership involves goal attainment; in other words, “leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (p. 3).

In general, the study of leadership and leaders is coterminous with the rise of civilization (Bass, 2008). Although leadership has been discussed from many different lenses throughout the ages, scientific research on the phenomenon did not commence until the turn of the twentieth century. Definitions may provide a veneer of intrigue and mystery into the phenomenon of leadership; however, research over the past hundred years has provided a steady stream of landmarks into the complexities and numerous ways of conceptualizing the many sophisticated types and taxonomies of leadership. For instance, some scholars conceptualize leadership as a set of traits or innate qualities that differentiate leaders from nonleaders; others conceive that it is an act or a particular set of behaviors that can be categorized, while some suggest that it is the focus of group processes and is charismatic, visionary leadership. Further, some perceive leadership in terms of power or position that commands influence, others proffer it is a set of skills that can be learned, while others proclaim that certain aspects of the situation and context will

determine the most appropriate or effective leadership style in an attempt to influence followers and assist leaders to accomplish group objectives. In his words of caution, Yukl (2006) posited:

when leadership is defined in a restrictive way by researchers, they are likely to take a narrower perspective on the process to be studied, and it is less likely they will discover things unrelated to or inconsistent with their initial assumptions about effective leadership. (p. 3)

The position of university department chair is one of leadership, which is arraigned with the challenges of developing and setting the direction for the department's future and socially engineering faculty vitality. In the words of Gmlech and Miskin (1993), "[c]haning student clientele, disintegrating [university and] college curricula, growing technological changes and shifting attitude and practices of faculty represent some the many forces currently shaping higher education" (p. 3). Although change is inevitable, the primary concern is how well chairs and departments or areas of specialization "prepare for it and position themselves to survive and succeed" (p. 3). Succinctly stated, Gmelch and Miskin (1993) posited that "success in these changing times requires a clear sense of the future (a focus on what your department can become) and the personal leadership skills to shape the future (what type of leader you can become)[parentheses in original]" (p. 3).

Numerous scholars and researchers have articulated the importance of leadership and that the intellectual capital of curriculum is in the purview of department-level leaders (Chu 2006; Gmelch & Miskin, 1993; Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, and Tucker, 1999; Leaming, 1998, 2007; Lucas, 1994; Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler, 1993; Stark, Briggs, & Rowland-Poplowski, 2002; Tucker, 1981, 1984, 1993). As the primary content provider, university departments and specialization areas retain control of the curriculum and department chairs take on the role of change agent, such that, they are tasked with the issue of leading and championing the changing of curriculum to meet today's needs in order to avoid ossification. According to Tucker (1993), curriculum represents an area of change whereby it "should be consistent with the department's goals and responsive to the needs of students, the discipline or profession, the community, and the institution" (p. 75). Similarly, Leaming (2007) stated that "[t]he department is where programs and

curricula are designed, developed, and assessed, and where resources are allocated” (p. xi).

Furthermore, the World Wide Web brings a kaleidoscope of challenges and opportunities as it pertains to the landscape of higher education, in particular, leadership and the delivery of curriculum. Since the inception of the World Wide Web by Tim Berners-Lee in 1992, we have witnessed a rapid explosion and evolution in how interlinked hypertext documents are accessed via the Internet. Concomitantly, online learning is an omnipresent fact of life in higher education. According to Bates (2005), the big breakthrough for online curriculum delivery “came with the development of the World Wide Web, and the consequent rapid spread of the Internet into many homes, offices, and higher education institutions” (p. 129). Our world is continually changing as a result of the impact of World Wide Web and the Internet; and this applies to higher education as well.

In order to discern the context of online learning, it is necessary to chronicle the history of the changes in the nature and use of educational technology and the associated impacts in the world of delivering online learning. Similar to software version numbers, the World Wide Web has experienced similar generational changes. The first evolutionary stage of the World Wide Web has been characterized as Web 1.0 (Caladine, 2008). Web 1.0 primarily consisted of static pages instead of dynamic user-generated content through various websites which contained read-only or text material. Consequently, the advent of the World Wide Web, specifically Web 1.0, gave rise to websites in the early stages, which were predominately read-only, text-based applications whereby the user cannot interact or generate content. Learning Management Systems (LMS's), which are used in online learning, are considered by many to be Web 1.0 technology (Caladine, 2008). With advances in technology, specifically the World Wide Web we now have what has been termed as Web 2.0, in what many consider the “second generation” of the Internet (Caladine, 2008). Examples abound of Web 2.0 applications include some of the following: podcasting, wikis, blogs, social software, MySpace, FaceBook, YouTube, TeacherTube, Twitter, Del.icio.us., Flickr, Google docs, and SharePoint to mention a few. Web 3.0, which is sometimes referred to as the “Semantic Web”, is “[a]nother force that has the potential to change the way the Web operates” (p.

4). The Semantic Web is concerned with connecting data from different places and “that data can be machine readable, that searching the Web will become automated, and that communications in audio and video will be created, stored, and analyzed, and otherwise processed” (p. 4). In the words of Caladine (2008), “[e]ducators began to notice something different happening when they began to use tools like wikis and blogs in the classroom.. [a]ll of a sudden, instead of discussing pre-assigned topics with their classmates, students found themselves discussing a wide range of topics with peers worldwide” (p. 6). As the World Wide Web continues to change, how does this impact leadership in higher education?

In their words, Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, and Tucker (1999) posited the following:

[t]he explosion of the World Wide Web is swiftly introducing changes in the process of teaching... [and] that the long-term probability is that technology will result in a reconfiguration of the relationship between teacher and student that will effect profound changes in the process of teaching (p. 148)... [and] that departments [will] need to think together about issues of pedagogy... [and] [e]ffecting these changes in a department will require conscious, consistent leadership from chairs. (p. 152)

In times of challenge and change in higher education, Kezar, Carducci, and Contreras-McGavin (2006) stated “the type of leadership required in this new context of globalization, demographic changes, technological advancement, and questioning of social authority may require different skills” (p. ix).

This kaleidoscopic challenge is further reinforced by Petty’s (2007) study as he found that over 90% of 116 department chairs strongly agreed or agreed:

that they are likely to encounter the following eight job challenges in the next five years: maintaining a high quality faculty, increasing the use of computers in the classroom, changing the curriculum in response to technological development, maintaining program quality, strengthening the curriculum, employing new teaching techniques, securing and maintaining state-of-the-art technical equipment, and responding to the needs of a wider range of students. (p. 4)

More importantly, “changing curriculum in response to technological development” was ranked as the third highest job challenge awaiting the department chair (p. 6).

Although the research regarding responsibilities and tasks of academic department chairs in universities is well established; research regarding leadership in online curriculum

delivery is extremely scant. More importantly and at the time of writing, most of the previous literature only began to gloss, at best with the implications posed by technology and leadership. With the continued development of the World Wide Web, educational leadership will continue to witness the blurring of face-to-face (FTF) and online curriculum delivery. Regarding the notion of leading change, Yukl (2006) averred that “one of the most important and difficult leadership responsibilities is to [lead], guide and facilitate the process of making a major change in an organization” (p. 313). However, research needs to be conducted into leadership perceptions as a means to build and add to this new knowledge base in educational administration.

The imperative role of leadership in education is succinctly stated in the following quote from Bass (2008): “in educational settings... leadership plays a critical, if not the most critical, role, and is therefore an important subject for study and research” (p. 25). Therefore, this would seem to provide a logical path for conducting a qualitative study by exploring how university department chairs’ perceive leadership as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery.

Purpose of the Study

The major purpose of this thesis research is to explore how university department chairs, or equivalent, perceive leadership as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery. In total, three separate research questions will be studied to address the purpose of this study.

Research Questions

To address the purpose of this study, the following questions will guide and focus the research:

1. What is the nature and context of the online environment in higher education and how does it impact the leadership of a department chair?
2. How do department chairs who work in an online higher education environment conceptualize leadership?
3. What are the challenges or tensions for the department chair’s leadership as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery?

Theoretical and Practical Significance of the Study

From a theoretical stance, this research is significant because it adds to the knowledge base of educational administration; in particular, leadership in higher education. Although much of the literature in educational administration and leadership focuses on K-12 (English, 2000, 2002, 2004, 2006, 2008; Glatter, 2006; Greenfield, 1979, 1980; Heck & Hallinger, 1999, 2005; Rassool & Morley, 2000; Ribbins, 2006; Sergiovanni, 1994, 1996; Willower, 1996, 2001) it needs to either extend to acknowledge and include the knowledge cluster of higher education or create a separate field of its own. Educational administration poses certain challenges that are fundamentally different in higher education as compared to primary and secondary education. Funding models, for example, in various post-secondary institutions will affect the choices that department chairs will make. The bureaucratic and organizational makeup in higher education is more stratified, which, in turn, compounds our understanding of educational administration. Issues that a principal or superintendent may face in K-12 can be fundamentally different than those presented to a department chair, director, coordinator, associate dean, vice-president or provost. Further, the degree of autonomy and the notion of accountability are different in higher education than K-12. This suggests that there is a lacuna in educational administration pertaining to higher education; thus, this research can add to educational administration literature; specifically, leadership in higher education.

The literature pertaining to leadership in higher education, is limited to a western North American, predominantly, a United States perspective. Given the research findings, voices of participants, and the relationship between globalization and online curriculum delivery, this study begins to add to the scholarship for a more comprehensive foundation that includes Canadian voices on educational administration. Further, findings pertaining to cultural diversity were enunciated to suggest a need for further research on how culture influences one's leadership approach. As Levin (1999) posited, "perspectives from other countries and cultures could enrich our [understanding]" (p. 555).

Politics and policy, such as the Alberta government's targets of a technology plan and associated initiatives are key driving forces that not only provide directions and

targets for both K-12 and higher education but also challenge leaders' abilities to strategize in achieving these targets. This evidence suggests that policy and politics will determine what we do in the classroom and who gets what and why. Furthermore, the field of educational administration is left deliberating about: Who governs? For what purpose? and What process? That being said, publicly funded universities operate on a cost-sharing (*provincial government + tuition*) basis; however, how does the fiscal operation change when cost-recovery is added to the overall formula? Thus, the finding related to funding, particularly, cost-recovery funding in higher education will affect the choices that leaders need to make.

The findings in this study add to the knowledge base in educational administration by creating an awareness of the marriage between leadership and technology in higher education. Although the spirit of the times in educational administration reflects a historical and deep-rooted epistemological divide, the knowledge base does very little to provide scholars and practitioners with any understanding regarding the evolving knowledge cluster of leading technological change amidst this digital age. Hoy's (1994) article, *Foundations of Educational Administration: Traditional and Emerging Perspectives*, collectively aggregates essential voices by succinctly stating the seven primary topics in educational administration in education that include: societal and cultural influences on schooling, teaching and learning processes, organizational studies, leadership and management processes, policy and political studies, legal and ethical dimensions of schooling and finally, the economic and financial dimensions of schooling. Although the collective scholarship in educational administration addresses many topics, such as those presented in Hoy's article, it does not address or discuss technology and the implications for administrators. Upon wider review of literature related to educational administration, I would posit that there is a deficiency in the literature as it relates to the knowledge base of educational administration and the implications of emerging technologies for educational leaders (Chu, 2006; English, 2000, 2002, 2004, 2006, 2008; Glatter, 2006; Gmelch & Miskin, 1993, 2004; Greenfield, 1979, 1980; Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch & Tucker, 1999; Heck & Hallinger, 1999, 2005; Leaming, 1998, 2007; Petty, 2007; Rassool & Morley, 2000; Ribbins, 2006; Sergiovanni, 1994, 1996; Willower, 1996, 2001). If the current scholarship does not focus on implications associated with

technology, how can educational administrators be expected to lead in this digital age? Ostensibly, there is paucity in the literature but this study begins to add to the knowledge base of educational administration pertaining to the leadership challenges and tensions associated with technology. Thus, the Internet revolution and technology in educational administration must not be underestimated as it delineates the enormous challenges as identified in this study for the constituency of leadership. The digital age and its associated new tools are creating new schools of thought for the field of educational administration and that further research is required.

This study is of practical significance because it addresses some of the required leadership preparation for leaders in higher education. This research can contribute to the literature that also reports a lack of professional development opportunities for educators in online learning, which, in turn, is challenging the leadership abilities of educational leaders (Cradler, Freeman, Cradler, & McNabb, 2002; Nolan, Friesen, Maeer, & Couros, 2005; Zhou, Varnhagen, Sears, Kasprzak, & Shervey, 2007). Furthermore, this research can begin to construct and add to the knowledge base of educational administration by understanding how different disciplines of leadership strategize and create a vision in an online environment while attempting to ensure stakeholder buy in. Concomitantly, if the current scholarship does not focus on implications associated with leadership in higher education, how can educational administrators be expected to lead or manage technological change? This study provides a rich account into the challenges and tensions as to how leaders in higher education create and facilitate a shared, communal vision in the context of online curriculum delivery. Further, the findings in this study share practical concerns and a conceptual framework of understandings, which has the potential benefit of assisting in the preparation of leaders as they attempt to mobilize faculty. Therefore, this research can address and potentially remedy some of the shortcomings in the existing knowledge base and practice of educational leadership in higher education.

Definition of Terms

The following terms and their associated definitions, which were developed from the literature, are used in this study:

Blended Learning - Learning events that combine aspects of online and face-to-face instruction (ASTD, 2009).

Cybersapce – The nebulous “place” where humans interact over computer networks (ASTD, 2009).

Department Chair or Equivalent – position held within higher education that is responsible for overseeing an entire department or specialization area, which demonstrates different and specific behaviors than those held as a faculty member. There are four different roles that define this position: (a) leader; (b) scholar; (c) faculty developer; and (d) manager (Gmelch & Miskin, 1993).

Face-to-Face (FTF) – term used to describe the traditional classroom environment (ASTD, 2009).

Generations X (Gen X) – those born between 1965 – 1979 (McCrindle Research Study, 2009).

Generation Y (Gen Y) – those born between 1980 – 1994 (McCrindle Research Study, 2009).

Generation Z (Gen Z) – also referred to as the “Internet Generation” which are individuals born between 1995 – 2009 (McCrindle Research Study, 2009).

Internet – an international network first used to connect education and research networks, begun by the United States government. The Internet now provides communication and application services to an international base of businesses, consumers, educational institutions, governments, and research organizations (ASTD, 2009).

Learning Management System (LMS) – Software that automates the administration of training. The LMS registers users, tracks courses in a catalog, records data from learners; and provides reports to management. An LMS is typically designed to handle courses by multiple publishers and providers. It usually doesn’t include its own authoring capabilities; instead, it focuses on managing course created by a variety of other sources (ASTD, 2009).

Online Learning – Learning delivered by Web-based or Internet-based technologies. This term covers a technology-base continuum that involves: no technology, augmentation, blended learning, and fully online learning. It also covers a wide set of applications and processes, such as Web-based learning, computer-based learning, virtual classrooms, and digital collaboration. It includes delivery and communication via audio, video, satellite, broadcast, interactive TV, CD-ROM and more (ASTD, 2009).

Podcast - A series of digital-media files which are distributed over the Internet using syndication feeds for playback on portable media players and computers. The term *podcast*, like broadcast, can refer either to the series of content itself or to the method by which it is syndicated; the latter is also called podcasting. The term derives from the words "iPod" and "broadcast," the Apple iPod being the brand of portable media player for which the first podcasting scripts were developed (ASTD, 2009).

Social Networking - Uses software to build online communities of people who share interests and activities or who are interested in exploring the interests and activities of others. Most services are primarily web-based and provide a collection of various ways for users to interact, such as chat, messaging, email, video, chat, file sharing, blogging, and discussion groups (ASTD, 2009).

Videoconferencing – Using video and audio signals to link participants at different and remote locations (ASTD, 2009).

Web 1.0 – first generation of Internet. Primarily concerned with text, reading, client-server, html, home pages, advertising; movement that took place during the beginning of the internet; primary use of the internet was taking print media and posting it online. Web 1.0 saw books, news, music and everything else being moved into a digital format (Caladine, 2008).

Web 2.0 – second generation of the Internet. The use of Internet technology and web design to enhance information sharing and, most notably, collaboration among users. These concepts have led to the development and evolution of web-based communities and hosted services, such as social-networking sites, wikis, blogs, and podcasting (ASTD, 2009).

Web 3.0 – third generation of the Internet and also known as the “semantic web”. A concept proposed by World Wide Web inventor Tim Berners-Lee. States that the Web can be made more useful by using methods such as content tags to enable computers to understand what they’re displaying and to communicate effectively with each other. That says Berners-Lee, will increase users’ ability to find the information they see (ASTD, 2009).

World Wide Web (WWW) – A graphical hypertext-based Internet tool that provides access to Webpages created by individuals, businesses, and other organizations (ASTD, 2009).

Assumptions of the Study

The following assumptions have been made for this study:

1. The methodological procedures were deemed appropriate to satisfy the requirements and purpose of this study.
2. The use of online technologies was a feasible means for conducting interviews and collecting data.
3. Given the novelty of online curriculum delivery, the position of department chair is also applicable to the following equivalent positions: directors, coordinators or associate deans in higher education.

Delimitations of This Study

This study recognizes that there are other various leadership positions in higher education, such as president, CEO, provost, vice-presidents, associate vice-presidents, and deans. However, this study is confined to those persons designated in the leadership position of department chair, or equivalent, in higher education. Moreover, the study was delimited to the context of an online learning environment in higher education.

Furthermore, this study was delimited to an anglo-western, North American perspective; specifically, three higher education universities within Canada.

Limitations of This Study

A limitation associated with this study is the extent to which the summary of findings can be generalized to other populations. Appreciating the novelty of leadership as designated to the role of university department chair, or equivalent, in the context of online learning, this study is limited to years of experience of participants functioning in the leadership role of department chair; specifically in the context of online learning. Furthermore, this study is limited by participants' willingness to participate, discuss, recollect, and share their knowledge, even though they have been assured confidentiality and anonymity. The data collected are self-reported and subject to biases. Individuals, for example, might discern what the principal researcher is attempting to establish or they may have implicit theories with respect to relationships among the research variables; thus, responding in ways that confirm those theories. Finally, data collection occurred during the spring and summer of 2009 and the findings in this study reflect that time period.

Organization of Thesis

This thesis is organized into six chapters. The initial thrust of this thesis outlines the theoretical foundation for discerning the meaning of leadership, the nature of online learning and the role of department chair in higher education. The subsequent part of this thesis details the interviews, findings, analysis, implications, and recommendations generated.

Chapter One provides a broad overview of the thesis by discussing the background, identifying the purpose and research questions as well as highlighting the significance of this study. In addition, assumptions, delimitations and limitations and terminology are discussed as they relate to this thesis.

Chapter Two explores the literature related to this study in three separate sections. First, the context of online curriculum delivery is discussed in order to situate the study. Second, the literature reviews a general understanding of leadership, in particular, various leadership theories and approaches. Further, it also explores various leadership approaches in higher education. The second section also includes a critique of the various leadership approaches in higher education. The third section, then targets and discusses the leadership role of the department chair in the context of a professional bureaucracy, role typologies, tasks and responsibilities, and finally leadership preparation. The chapter concludes with a summary and a conceptual framework that serves as the guide for this study.

Chapter Three chronicles the qualitative methodology and research design used for this thesis. As such, this chapter describes the philosophical stance of interpretivism and the methodology of case-study research. As well, selection of participants, data gathering methods and instruments, procedures and trustworthiness, such as validity and validity, and ethics were explored.

Chapter Four introduces a description of the interview findings that were conducted with participants. In addition, eight initial themes are presented to provide a more categorical understanding of the data collected. The initial eight themes are as follows: (a) context and setting, (b) leadership, (c) vision, (d) ethics and personal leadership values, (e) motivation, (f) culture and individual consideration, (g) leadership preparation, and (h) challenges and tensions.

Chapter Five presents the discussion and analysis of the findings from this study. After deep reflection and interpretation of the data, the researcher presents the following four salient themes and sub-themes: (a) Context – The Setting (*technology, model of learning, faculty categories, cost-recovery versus cost-sharing*); (b) Leadership Preparation (*removing barriers and improving leadership preparation*); (c) Leadership in General (*relational-oriented, vision and direction setting, organizational culture and cultural diversity, ethics*); and (d) Challenges and Tensions (*past, present, future, organizational realities*). The chapter concludes with a summary of emanating themes from the collected data as compared to the themes and gaps inaugurated in the literature.

Finally, Chapter Six concludes this research study by presenting conclusions and revisiting the purpose of this study by addressing each of the supporting research questions by way of respective conclusions. The chapter brings this study to a close by articulating implications for practice, theory, and future research.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature and Conceptual Framework

“Management is efficiency in climbing the ladder of success; leadership determines whether the ladder is leaning against the right wall”. (Stephen R. Covey)

Introduction

This chapter provides a review of the literature that was surveyed in the field of leadership and specifically those that relate to the university department chair. In addition, this review provides a background to understanding and interpreting key features of the data collected for this research study. Since the primary focus of this study was based on the perceptions of department chairs' leadership as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery, an integral part of this study's methodological design included a comprehensive review of the nature of university department chair. Consequently, this review is organized into three main sections: (a) *“context of online environment”*; (b) a comprehensive *“discussion on leadership”* which includes: *a distinction between leadership and management; leadership theories and approaches; leadership approaches in higher education; and a critique of leadership approaches in higher education*; and (c) an intense and thorough discussion addressing the *“anatomy of the department chair in higher education”* which includes: *bureaucratic organizational structure; role typologies; responsibilities and tasks and leadership preparation*.

Context of Online Environment

The context and environment of online curriculum delivery can be seen as a continuum of technology-based learning – please refer to *Figure 2.1*. That being said, it is critical to provide clarity and chronicle exactly what kind of online curriculum delivery is being discussed, especially when undertaking a study of this nature. There are four elements along the continuum of technology-based learning that include: (a) face-to-face (FTF) teaching – traditional form of teaching and learning that occurs in the context of a FTF classroom and there is no use of computer technology whatsoever, (b) classroom aids (*augmentation*) – the teacher utilizes the computer and the World Wide Web to augment his or her lectures and classroom teaching. This can involve the use of learning management systems (LMS) such as WebCT, Blackboard, Moodle or some designated web space that can some of the following resources available on the Web: PowerPoint

presentations, course reading lists, selected website links for reading, course schedules, discussion forums, assignments, and exams to mention a few. The key distinction with classroom aids in a FTF setting, is there is no reduction of classroom time, (c) blended learning (*FTF + online*) – a combination of FTF teaching and online learning where the FTF classroom time is reduced but not eliminated. With blended learning, there is no formula that suggests 70% is online and 30% is FTF or vice versa; this variation is dependent on the nature of the curriculum, and (d) fully online learning – all learning takes place at a distance such that students can complete the entire course online without having to attend any FTF classes. The figure below is a graphical representation of the continuum of technology-based learning. This study is primarily concerned with any of the three elements on the right, classroom aid, blended and fully online learning.

Figure 2.1. Continuum of Technology-Based Learning

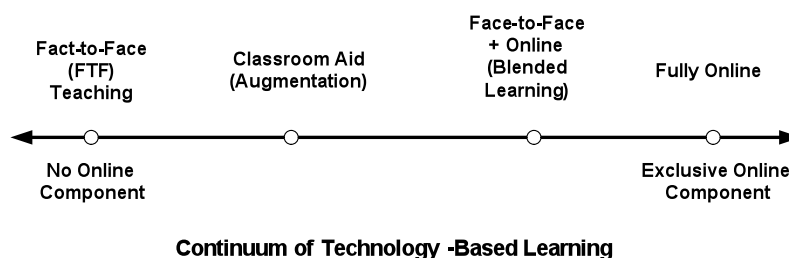


Figure 2.1. Adapted from “Effective Teaching With Technology in Higher Education: Foundations for Success,” by Bates and Poole, 2003, p. 127.

Leadership Discussion

The following section of this literature review engages with a discussion on leadership. First, I will explain the distinction between management and leadership. Second, a review of the major leadership approaches and theories will be employed. Third, the review will focus more exclusively at leadership approaches in higher education, particularly, those surrounding the position of chair or middle line position. Finally, this section will include a critique of the leadership approaches in higher education.

Leadership and management. Before undertaking a study involving leadership, it is imperative to articulate the distinction between leadership and management and the relationship that exists. Through time, the concepts of leadership and management have

been used interchangeably and in concert; thus, giving individuals the impression that these terms are synonymous. Although the literature teases out the differences between these terms, managers can exhibit leadership and vice versa; thus, not only giving the impression that they are one of the same but also suggesting a relationship between the two terms. John Kotter (1990), author of *A Force for Change: How Leadership Differs From Management*, reminds us of some of the differences. Management activities, for example, produce order and consistency through: planning and budgeting, organizing and staffing, and controlling and problem solving. In contrast, leadership activities produce change and movement by: establishing direction, aligning people, and motivating and inspiring people. Although the major activities of management and leadership may be different; both are essential for an organization to prosper. Sometimes referred to as the “father of modern management”, Peter Drucker (1994) succinctly condenses the perennial and dichotomous debate as follows: “Management is doing things right; leadership is doing the right things” (p. 126).

Management. Intricately connected to leadership and the philosophy of influence is management. Over the years literature associated with management can be seen as having five main functions: (a) planning, (b) organizing, (c) commanding (*interpreted as leading*), (d) coordinating, and (e) controlling (*interpreted as evaluating*) (Bolman & Deal, 2008; English, 2008; Fayol, 1916; Northouse, 2007; Owens & Valesky, 2007). In relation to the field of educational administration, Sergiovanni (1996) defined management as having responsibility for “ensuring the necessary day-to-day support (planning, organizing, setting, mobilizing resources, providing procedures, record keeping, and so on) that keeps the school running effectively and efficiently” (p. 89).

Before clearly understanding leadership, the following will explain how the constituency of “[l]eadership is often confused with management... [and] there is confusion and disagreement about what leadership means and how much difference it can make” (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 343). According to Northouse (2007), management’s *raison d’être* “is to provide order and consistency to organizations, whereas the primary function of leadership is to produce change and movement. Management is about seeking order and stability; leadership is about seeking adaptive and constructive change” (p. 10). Scholars, such as Bennis and Nanus (1985), English (2008), and Kotter (1990),

posited that management involves accomplishing activities and mastering routines, such as planning, budgeting, organizing, staffing, controlling and problem solving where as leadership involves influencing and creating visions for change, such as establishing direction, aligning people, motivating, and inspiring. In analyzing this perennial debate, Zaleznik (1977) articulated that managers rely upon unidirectional authority, they are reactive, and have low emotional involvement when solving problems with people. In comparison with this, leaders rely upon multidirectional influence and are emotionally active and involved, they prefer to shape ideas rather than reacting to them, leaders think “*outside the box*” and act to expand available options; consequently, changing the way individuals conceive what is possible. Metaphorically, Stephen Covey (1989) perceived management as “efficiency in climbing the ladder of success” whereas leadership is “determining whether the ladder is leaning against the right wall” (p. 101). In the words of Johnson and Johnson (1994), “[l]eadership begins where management ends, where the system of rewards and punishments, control and scrutiny give way to innovative, individual character and the courage of convictions” (p. 96). Professing the importance of both, English (2008) stated “if schools are not well managed, they cannot be well led either” (p. 24). Although the argument can be made that leadership and management are different, both “are essential if an organization is to prosper” (Northouse, 2007, p. 11). Although leadership and management are intricately connected and operate in concert, in brief, this evidence suggests there is a distinct dichotomy between management and leadership, which, in turn, provides insight to this study in understanding leadership.

Leadership theories and approaches. In recognition of the duty to situate the current thinking of leadership, this section begins by providing a brief account with respect to the myriad of the more influential approaches and theories regarding the study of leadership. To define and conceptualize the phenomenon of what leadership is, I will review the scholarship pertaining to leadership, specifically, the possible classification systems definitions will illustrate how complex and sophisticated the task really is.

Trait theory. The research of trait theories from the 1920s to the 1950s was one of the earliest forms and systematic attempts to study leadership that identified the traits, characteristics and innate qualities possessed by great social, political, and military leaders. Numerous studies (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Lord, Devader & Alliger, 1986;

Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1948, 1974) over the past century have identified a plethora of traits that include: intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, sociability, extroversion, dominance, and sense of humor as characteristics of effective leaders (Johnson & Johnson, 1994; Northouse, 2007). Further, this approach focuses exclusively on what traits the leader possesses such that, organizations today utilize personality assessments such as Meyers Briggs and Leadership Trait Questionnaire (LTQ) with the assumption “that selecting the right people will increase organizational effectiveness”(Northouse, 2007, p. 23).

Skills approach. The next approach in leadership studies is the skills approach that was proposed by Robert Katz in 1955, while the latter was proposed by Mumford and colleagues in 2000. The skills approach is also leader-centered with emphasis on skills and abilities that can be learned and developed. The underlying assumption is that leadership is available to everyone, such that, a leader can developed by acquiring the necessary skills and learning to use one’s knowledge and competencies to accomplish a set of goals and objectives. In particular, Katz (1955) recognized that a leader required the following three abilities: (a) technical skill, (b) human skill, and (c) conceptual skill. Based on his observations, Katz (1955) concluded that leaders require all three skills; however, the importance of each skill (*technical, human, and conceptual*) varies depending on the level of management position within an organization (ie. *top, middle, or supervisory*). More recently, Mumford, Zaccaro, Connely, and Marks (2000) expanded on the necessary skills that a leader should have whereby their model encompasses five components: (a) individual attributes, (b) competencies, (c) leadership outcomes, (d) career experiences, and (e) environmental influences. In comparison with Katz’s initial skills approach, Mumford, Zaccaro, Connely, and Marks (2000) proffered that leadership outcomes are a direct result of a leader’s skilled competency in problem solving, social judgment and knowledge.

Behavioral approach. In response to the criticisms of trait theories, behavioral theorists embarked on new research in the 1950s and 1960s by studying the leadership behavior of managers in work groups. Behaviorists (Blake & Mouton; 1964; Cartwright & Zander, 1960; Stogdill, 1963) began to evaluate and identify the number of times leaders engaged in specific behaviors which resulted in producing particular clusters of

behaviors and broad leadership styles. By using the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), two general types of leader behaviors were identified: (a) tasks-oriented leader behaviors which focus more on organizing, managing, and completing assigned tasks; and (b) relationship-oriented leader behaviors that concentrate on nurturing subordinates and placing concern for people. As an example, Blake and Mouton's (1964) managerial grid is based on behavioral theory. This model provides five different leadership styles (*authority compliance, country club, impoverished, middle-of-the-road, and team*) whereby the manager may have a preference for one style or the other based on their concern for people and their concern for achieving organizational tasks. However, it is important to note that managers would unlikely use one of the five styles; instead, specific tendencies would allow manager to use other styles as the need arises.

Situation and contingency approach. Also reacting to trait theories, social researchers began to espouse situational and contingency theories as a way of explaining leadership. The situational leadership model, for example, proposed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969) conveys four distinct adaptive leadership styles (*telling, selling, participating, and delegating*). As leaders evaluate their employees to assess their level of competence and commitment to perform a given task, the situational leader then responds by matching their leadership style in accordance to the developmental level of their subordinates. This model is two-dimensional in that it includes directive (*task*) behaviors and supportive (*relationship*) behaviors of the leader that simultaneously operate in conjunction with the developmental level characteristics of followers also.

Similarly, Fiedler's (1964) contingency theory is concerned with matching a leader's style to the appropriate setting. Leadership style orientations are described as either task-motivated (*leaders are concerned primarily with reaching a goal*) and relationship-motivated (*leaders are concerned with developing close interpersonal relationships*) and either style can be effective if their leadership orientation conforms to the particular situation.

House's (1971) path-goal theory is based on expectancy theory and focuses on how leaders motivate their subordinates to accomplish designed goals. In brief, leadership generates motivation by engaging in behaviors that laud a subordinate's level

of satisfaction. In particular, leadership is effective when it increases the number and types of payoffs, makes the path to the goal clear through coaching and direction, removes obstacles to attaining the goal, and makes the work personally satisfying. Path-goal theory also espouses four leader behaviors or models: (a) “*directive leadership*,” (b) “*supportive leadership*,” (c) “*participative leadership*,” and (d) “*achievement oriented leadership*” that are dependent on the work context and the subordinate characteristics.

Other scholars, such as Dansereau, Graen, and Haga, (1975); Graen and Cashman, (1975); Graen and Uhl-Bien, (1995) professed their understanding of situational leadership as a leader-member exchange theory. This theory conceptualizes leadership as a process that is centered on the interactions and dyadic relationship between a leader and subordinates. In short, leadership making evolves in time over three progressive phases: (a) “*stranger phase*” – dyad interactions are rule bound and scripted; (b) “*acquaintance phase*” – dyad interactions are tested to determine if the subordinate is interested in an increased level of roles and responsibilities and if the leader is supportive of providing new opportunities for subordinates; and (c) “*mature partnership phase*” – dyad interactions experience a high degree of mutual trust, respect, and obligation for one another.


Transformational approach. More recently, other researchers and scholars (Bass, 1985, 1990; Burns, 1978; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1987, 2002) lauded a transformational approach to understanding leadership. Transformational leadership is concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long term goals while assessing followers’ motives and satisfying their needs to accomplish more than what is regularly expected of them. According to Bass (1985) authentic transformational leadership is influenced and grounded by four factors: (a) “*idealized influence*” – describes charismatic leaders as strong role models that provide a vision with a sense of mission; (b) “*inspirational motivation*” – leaders utilize symbols and emotional appeals to communicate high expectations to followers to achieve more than self-interest; (c) “*intellectual stimulation*” – leaders support followers to try and develop new and innovative ways of dealing with organizational issues; and (d) “*individualized consideration*” – leaders provide a supportive climate by exercising strong listening skills in addressing the needs of followers.

Table 1 summarizes a continuum as to how leadership theories have evolved and progressed from “**great man**” or “**trait theories**” to “**transformational theories**” of leadership.

Table 1

Summary of Leadership Theories and Approaches

(Arrow denotes a continuum of evolving “**Schools of Thought**” ranging from Trait to Transformational)



Approach	Scholars	Definition
Trait Approach	Stogdill (1948), (1974); Mann (1959); Lord, Devader, & Alliger (1986)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exclusively focused on leader and what traits leaders exhibit and who has these traits • Primary focus is on leader
Skills Approach	Katz (1955); Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman (2000)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ability to use one’s knowledge and competencies to accomplish a set of goals and objectives • Emphasizes that skills and abilities can be learned • Primary focus is on leader
Style Approach	Stogdill (1963); Cartwright & Znader (1960); Blake & Mouton (1964)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comprised of task (facilitate goal accomplishment) and relationship (help subordinates feel comfortable with themselves, each other and situation) behaviors • Emphasizes behavior of leader, what they do and how they act • Primary focus is on leader
Situational Approach	Hersey & Blanchard (1969)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consists of a directive task behaviors and supportive relationship behaviors dimension • Each dimension must be applied appropriately in a given situation • Leaders assess employees competence and commitment to perform a given task • Adapting style, different situations demand different kinds of leadership • Primary focus on follower and context
Contingency Theory	Fiedler (1964)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership is contingent on matching a leader’s style to the correct setting • Assessment based on leadership style and situational variables • Leader effectiveness depends on how well the leader’s style fits the context and positional power • Primary focus on follower and context
Path-Goal Theory	Evans (1970); House (1971); House & Dessler (1974); House and Mitchell (1974)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on how leaders motivate subordinates to accomplish designated goals, based on expectancy theory • Emphasizes the relationship between leaders’ style, characteristics of subordinates and work setting • Primary focus on follower and context
Leader-Member Exchange Theory	Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975); Graen & Cashman (1975); Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conceptualize leadership as a process, specifically on the interactions and linkages between a leader and subordinates • Primary focus on differences between leader and follower
Transformational Leadership	Burns (1978); Bass (1985); Bennis & Nanus (1985); Kouzes & Posner (1987, 2002)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership is a process that involves an exceptional form of influence that moves followers to accomplish more than what is expected • Incorporates charismatic and visionary leadership • Concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards • Primary focus ranges from specific (one-to-one with followers) and broad (entire cultures)

Leadership approaches in higher education. The following is a summary of the literature that relates how researchers, scholars, and practitioners perceive leadership at the department chair level.

According to Tucker (1993), department chairs that function as effective leaders, possess certain characteristics and skills. In analyzing the characteristics and skills required of an effective department chair, Tucker (1993) proffered the following list:

Good interpersonal skills; ability to work well with faculty members, staff, students, deans and other chairpersons... Ability to identify problems and resolve them in a manner acceptable to faculty members... Ability to adapt leadership styles to fit different situations... Ability to set department goals and make satisfactory progress in moving the department toward the goals... Ability to search for and discover optimum power available to them as chairpersons; ability to maximize that power in motivating faculty members to achieve departmental goals and objectives... Active participation in their profession; respect of their professional colleagues. (p. 40)

Similarly, Lumpkin (2004) also reported that many of the experts claimed and suggested the following traits and characteristics of successful leaders:

Take risks by creating a shared vision... Empower others to translate this shared vision into reality... Are honest, trustworthy, and responsible... Demonstrate the highest personal integrity... Model strong, collaborative human relations and interpersonal skills... Nurture open and effective communication... Demonstrate organizational skills... Make timely and effective decisions... Develop a culture of mutual trust and respect. (p. 45)

Based on his experiences as a department chair at four different universities coupled with best practices literature from leading scholars, Leaming (2007) articulated various theories of leadership as a means to understand the phenomenon of leadership.

According to Leaming (2007), leadership is:

the ability to motivate others to take certain course of action, to persuade others that prescribed tasks must be done on time and in a particular way, and to gain and retain the respect of others, especially those with whom one works or associates. (p. 31)

Consistent with other researchers and scholars (Lumpkin 2004; Mann, 1959, Lord, Devader, & Alliger, 1986; Stogdill, 1948, 1974; Tucker, 1981, 1984, 1993), Leaming (2007) also advocated trait leadership theory as a way to understand “that leadership possesses certain common qualities” (p. 32). As a caveat, however, Leaming (2007)

averred “that the existence of certain traits is likely to increase a leader’s effectiveness, by no means is strong leadership certain” (p. 32). That being said, Leaming (2007) emphasized some of the following traits as being helpful for department chairs: decisiveness, self-confidence, responsibility, integrity, visionary, humility, to name a few.

In an attempt to further understand leadership, Leaming (2007) also asserted that department chairs can benefit from determining their strengths. In doing so, he suggested that department chairs can utilize some of the following inventories and instruments: Implicit Association Test (IAT), Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory 2 (MMPI2), Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI), and Myers-Briggs’ Type Indicator, and 360-Degree Instruments. This explanation of identifying strengths is consistent with conclusions in the literature (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Northouse, 2007) and more recently advocated by Rath and Conchie’s (2008), *Strength’s Based Leadership*, which focuses on working exclusively with one’s strengths, looking at one’s personality and how we use perception and judgment. Once again as a caveat, Leaming (2007) warned “that even the best [instruments] can only assist...[and help chairs] become more self-aware” (p. 42).

In a more general sense, Leaming (2007) went on to propose various leadership models that seem to be prolific in higher education. Upon analysis of the numerous models averred by Leaming, one can collectively conceptualize them as a competency framework. As he reminds us, the competency framework consists of behaviorist theories, Fiedler’s contingency model, Hersey-Blanchard’s situational theory, House and Evan’s path-goal theory, and transformational theory. In turn, each theory presents a range of leadership frameworks to allow the leader to acknowledge the importance of responding to unique situations and contexts and how the leader’s role changes in relation to their followers. Similar to the literature review on leadership theories and approaches, Leaming (2007) perceived leadership as a buffet from these various approaches that “provide a framework [for leaders] on which to build” (p. 47).

In his view on educational leadership pertaining to the university chair, Tucker (1993) proclaimed “[t]he term leadership implies that where there is a leader, there must be one or more followers and a goal or objective toward which the followers are being led” (p. 56). He further articulated that it is possible:

to generalize about human nature and to categorize the types of leadership styles... [which can be] found to be the situation to some degree in many academic departments...[and] chairpersons will be able to identify completely or partly with one of the [models]. (p. 56)

In his book, *Chairing the Academic Department*, Tucker (1993) went on to proffer three leadership models, in particular, he advocated the directive-supportive behavior model, autocratic-democratic model and the gamesman model.

Among the first of Tucker's (1993) preferred leadership models is a directive-supportive behavior model. In this model, Tucker (1993) opined that "leadership styles may be categorized as directive or supportive (p.56)... [and] [a] chairperson's behavior is neither exclusively directive nor supportive; leadership style consists of a mix of both" (p. 57). The resultant mix of directive task behaviors and supportive relationship behaviors can be visualized as "four different mixes of behavior patterns by plotting directive [task] behavior on a horizontal axis and supportive [relationship] behavior on an intersecting vertical axis" (p. 57). Consequently, the result is a graph with four quadrants representing four leadership styles derived from two dimensions of leadership behavior, task and relationship. Moreover, tasks are the extent to which the department chair engages in one-way communication by explaining what each follower (*faculty member*) will do (*including where, when what, and how*) while relationships are the extent to which the department chair engages in two-communication by providing supportive and facilitative behavior (*to faculty member(s)*). Upon further investigation, Tucker's (1993) directive-supportive behavior model is actually Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) situational approach to leadership whereby leaders care for tasks or relationships and leaders evaluate employees to assess their competence and commitment to perform a given task and adapt accordingly. According to Tucker (1993), "we can visualize four different mixes of ... a chairperson's leadership style" as follows:

[directing] high directive and low supportive (a great deal of direction to the faculty members, not much personal and psychological support), [coaching] high directive and high supportive (a great deal of direction to the faculty members, a great deal of personal and psychological support), [supporting] low directive and high supportive (not much direction to the faculty members, a great deal of personal and psychological support), [delegating] low directive and low supportive (not much direction to the faculty members, some – but not much – personal or psychological support. (p. 57)

Similar to Hersey and Blanchard's notion of a subordinates development or readiness levels, that suggests the degree to which subordinates have the competence and commitment necessary to accomplish a task, Tucker (1993) went on to write:

[a]cademic departments, like other groups, vary in their levels of maturity... [however] maturity should not be confused with the maturity of the individual members who comprise the group... [instead] a group may perform maturely in achieving one objective and immaturity in trying to achieve another, it is neither mature nor immature all the time. (p. 58)

As such, this model conveys four distinct behaviors that coincide and accommodate to the respective maturity level of the faculty accordingly. As an example, a high directive and low supportive behavior, Tucker (1993) argued "exemplifies the best approach for dealing with an immature department... whereas [other behaviors] exemplify styles appropriate to a department as it progresses a higher degree of maturity" (p. 59).

According to Tucker (1993), department chairs who function as effective leaders possess the "[a]bility to adapt leadership styles to fit different situations... [and] set department goals and to make satisfactory progress in moving their departments toward these goals" (p. 40).

Tucker (1993) also opined that a department chair's leadership style may range across a continuum that is split more or less diametrically into an autocratic-democratic model. With the autocratic style, the department chair as leader is the boss. Although one's leadership style may be a matter of personal preference, Tucker (1993) posited, "an autocratic chairperson may be most appropriate for a young and relatively immature department... [whereby] an autocratic chairperson can set a course for the department and give it direction" (p. 59). As the department matures, Tucker (1993) posited that the department chair "may decide to adopt a less autocratic and more participatory style of leadership... as individual members may expect to become more involved in the governing process" (p. 60). However, Tucker (1993) concluded that in his experiences he has witnessed how some department chairs unfortunately "choose an autocratic style because it suits their personalities rather than because it is the style best suited to the needs of the department" (p. 60).

In stressing the need for flexible leadership behavior, Tucker (1993) also altered and advocated Michael Maccoby's Gamesman Model that proffers "four types of

leadership styles of corporation executives: the spectator, the technician, the jungle fighter, and the gamesman” (p. 60). Acknowledging the context of corporate affairs, Tucker (1993) altered the definitions of Maccoby’s Gamesman Model “to fit realities in the academic department” (p. 60). The spectator department chair is relatively passive, modest, acquiescent, and thrives in a mature department, is practical and ensures the department’s work is conducted in a timely manner. In acting as a spectator, Tucker (1993) posited that the department chair

functions best in a department that has just experienced a stormy period of reforms, leaving an exhausted faculty that needs serenity in order once again to focus its attention on the cardinal functions of teaching, research and service. The spectator should not, however, be left in place too long, lest the department slide into stagnation, and decline. (p. 60)

In comparison with this, Tucker (1993) proclaimed that the technician department chair is the ideal bureaucrat. Succinctly stated, the technician strives to:

maintain the status quo... does not turn power and authority to committees... [and] [b]y virtue of knowing the rules and regulations, the technician chairperson can inhibit the zealots and pilgrims among the faculty; by the same token, he or she can use that knowledge to prod a sluggish, lazy department. (p. 61)

In the case of jungle fighter department chairs, Tucker (1993) declared they are best suited as the best among all types of change agents. In his rationale, he proclaimed they relinquish little power and present the façade of acting on behalf of the faculty when they are actually speaking for personal aims or for the minority voices of faculty members in attempts to “make a weak department strong and lay the foundation for a great department” (p. 62). In describing the gamesman department chair, Tucker (1993) averred that they have a sense of humor, are cool and dedicated and they take “the job in order to improve the department... [and] likes to win, as much for the pleasure of winning as for any other reason, but remains a sportsman and knows how to accept defeat” (p. 63). Although Tucker’s (1993) descriptors of spectator, technician, jungle fighter, and gamesman suggest a particular leadership style, he argued that a department chair “generally does not exhibit only one type of behavior; rather, his or her personality more likely reflects a melding of all these types” (p. 62).

In 2007, Bryman conducted a review of the literature that was concerned with leadership effectiveness at the department chair level based on the available literature

from three countries: United Kingdom, United States, and Australia. Appreciating the discrepancy of how researchers regard leadership and for the purpose of his review, Bryman (2007) defined leadership “in terms of influencing and/or motivating others towards the accomplishment of departmental goals” (p. 696). After synthesizing his findings, Bryman (2007) summarized “13 aspects of leader behavior that were [consistently] found to be associated with effectiveness at the department level” (p. 696). In brief and in no particular order the leadership behaviors identified by Bryman were: (a) clear sense of direction/strategic vision, (b) preparing department arrangements to facilitate the direction set, (c) being considerate, (d) treating academic staff fairly and with integrity, (e) being trustworthy and having personal integrity, (f) allow the opportunity to participate in key decisions/encouraging open communication, (g) communicating well about the direction the department is going, (h) acting as a role model/having credibility, (i) creating a positive/collegial work atmosphere in the department, (j) advancing the department’s cause with respect to constituencies internal and external to the university and being proactive in doing so, (k) providing feedback on performance, (l) providing resources for and adjusting workloads to stimulate scholarship and research, and (m) making academic appointments that enhance department’s reputation (p. 697).

In a study by Whitsett (2007), department chairs’ perceptions about their own personal style of leadership was compared with perceptions that faculty had on their department chair’s style of leadership. The methodology was qualitative whereby university department chairs and faculty members were interviewed about their perceptions of leadership styles that exhibited by chairs. Whitsett’s research design utilized the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) instruments, which are used to evaluate leadership behaviors. Further, the results of the LEAD instrument are scored and analyzed to indicate a primary and secondary leadership style (*telling, selling, delegating, or participating*) as suggested by Hersey and Blanchard’s theory of situational leadership. In particular, the LEAD-self was used “to evaluate behaviors used by department chairs from their perspective...[while] [t]he LEAD-Other was used to evaluate behaviors used by department chairs from the perspective of faculty members” (p. 278). The sample in Whitsett’s study included 10 university department

chairs and 126 faculty members. In total, 7 department chairs and 64 faculty members completed the instruments, which represented 70% of the chairs and 51% of faculty members. Out of the four LEAD leadership styles, results from Whitsett's (2007) study revealed six out of seven department chairs (85%) perceived "*selling*" to be their primary method or style of leadership used most often. In this context, Whitsett (2007) indicated that department chairs considered faculty as being "unable to take responsibility for a task in the interim because of lack of skill, but willing or confident to do so" (p. 282). Conversely, 28 out of 64 faculty perceived their department chair's primary style to be "*selling*" while 20 out of 64 faculty saw their department chair's primary style to be "*participating*." In this regard, faculty viewed their "chairs as unable to take responsibility for a task in the interim, but willing or confident to determine to what extent their behaviors are a match to the needs of their group" (p. 283). Consequently, Whitsett (2007) concluded that "*selling*" was the main leadership category whereby,

chairs and faculty members see the chair as trying to get their faculty to accept and carry out the behaviors most wanted by the chair... [and] followers of this style are confident and willing to take responsibility but are unable to do so in the interim because of lack of expertise. (p. 285)

Appreciating the research findings over the last twenty years on the tasks required of the department chair and the challenges facing higher education, Filan and Seagren (2003) argued for "a systems approach to transformational leadership" (p. 23). Filan, who was part of a grassroots movement that began in 1992 by the Maricopa Community Colleges in Phoenix, helped to recognize the necessary leadership skills required for higher education. Eventually, the grassroots movement evolved into the Academy for Leadership Training and Development. Consequently, Filan and Seagren stated that the Academy Leadership Program "was designed to meet the specific knowledge and skills needed for people to be effective transformational leaders (p. 23)...[and] works to convert Covey's goal for training programs into a reality" (p. 24). In other words, the authors elucidated transformational leadership as a process of engaging with others to make connections that increases morality and motivation in both the leader and followers. In the words of Covey (1992), "[p]rograms should attempt to empower people to soar, to sail, to step forward bravely into the unknown" (p. 72). That being said, Filan and Seagren (2003) outlined their six critical components of transformational leadership in higher

education that “serve as the basis for academy training”: (a) understanding self, (b) understanding transformational leadership, (c) establishing and maintain relationships, (d) leading teams, (e) leading strategic planning and change, and (f) connecting through community (p. 24). In defense of transformational leadership, Filan and Seagren (2003) posited that “[i]ntegrating the roles and responsibilities of postsecondary leaders within the six critical issues... provides a framework for understanding the knowledge and skill competencies necessary for midlevel higher education... transformational leadership” (p. 29).

Critique of Leadership Approaches

This part of the literature review covers some of the critical approaches to understanding educational leadership in higher education. Based on the literature in this section, the knowledge base in educational leadership is critiqued for its continued reliance of nesting itself in the shadow of classical organizational theory and scientific management. In brief, this section summarizes important voices that critique the structuralist leadership approach that was primarily concerned with leader behaviors, structures, roles, and tasks.

In their critique of the literature regarding leadership in higher education, specifically related to the department chair, Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) stated that “[m]uch of the discussion and research on leadership comes from the application of theories derived from social psychology and business administration” (p. 17). Of the similar opinion, Sergiovanni (1994) also stated that current nature and practice of educational administration is “too receptive to influences from too many other areas of knowledge and too many other disciplines” (p. 214). Further, Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) also argued that most of the literature pertaining to leadership in higher education “is derived from the more general theories of leadership, usually emphasizing the behavior or traits of the leaders” (p. 20). In an attempt to define leadership, Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) questioned if it is “possible to apply [these] theories of leadership to the situations and challenges that department chairs face” (p. 18). This explanation is consistent with previously mentioned leadership approaches advocated by Bryman (2007), Chu (2006), Leaming (2007), Lumpkin (2004), Tucker (1993), and Whitsett (2007). In their book, *The Department Chair: New Roles, Responsibilities and*

Challenges, American researchers and scholars, Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) articulated three types of leadership theories: natural born leaders, organizational behavior, and organizational environment. The theory of natural leaders, for example, is one with lengthy tradition that “seeks to define leadership in terms of the... traits of those who are in positions of leadership, often mentioning qualities like ambition, assertiveness, the ability to make decisions, adaptability, self-confidence, vision, and the ability to articulate a vision” (p. 18). Although the existence of such mentioned “traits is likely to increase a leader’s effectiveness, no guarantees can be made” (p. 18). By deemphasizing the behavior or traits of leaders, a transformational lens of leadership stresses “the importance of the situation and the interaction between social, cultural, and political forces, and the leader and the organization” (p. 19).

Another important theme in the literature is the critique and distinction “to the ways in which higher education institutions differ from business and other organizations” (Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler, 1993, p. 20). The demands placed on department chairs in not-for-profit professional bureaucracies are exacerbated because these types of organizations “often have diverse and conflicting goals and leaders in higher education work within structures that are significantly different (p. 20)... than in most enterprises that focus on profit” (p. 21). This claim is consistent with other leading scholars in the field of educational administration and leadership. According to Sergiovanni (1994), should schools not abandon these business models and transform into models of community based upon values and rituals that provide people with continuity, tradition, identity, and meaning? Sergiovanni (1994) further argued that the current nature and practice of educational administration and leadership is “too receptive to influences from too many other areas of knowledge and too many other disciplines” (p. 214). According to Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) the literature mistakenly and dangerously “assumes the administration of a department is its leadership and that the appointment of a chair will automatically provide a leader” (p. 22).

Kezar, Carducci, and Contreras-McGavin’s (2006) book, *Rethinking the “L” Word in Higher Education*, summarizes a vast body of new research that provides an in-depth look and critique of leadership in higher education in hopes of providing new direction. The authors chastised previous research on leadership that “has been conducted

using traditional, empirical scientific methods and assumptions (positivist or functionalist paradigms)” (p. 15). Conversely, the authors declared that new interconnected theories and paradigms, such as social constructivism, critical, and postmodern epistemologies, have been recently used to contextualize the study of educational leadership, which, in turn, have challenged how leadership is studied and conceptualized in higher education. The authors ostracized previous functionalist and positivist approaches, such as trait, behavioral, and path-goal theory, for trying “to predict leadership outcomes and come up with verifiable principles for leadership...[while ignoring] people’s subjective experience [which] is too complex to be generalized in these ways” (p. 25). As an example, they noted how the functionalist paradigm of leadership does not account for ethics and spirituality (p. 29). According to Kezar, Carducci, and Contreras-McGavin (2006), other significant changes brought into the study of educational leadership by these new paradigms include:

moral, ethical, and value-based components... questioning hierarchy and unequal forms of power, the emphasis on developing a leader rather than being born as one, and the fact that leadership is shared and not seen in the purview of an elite few. (p. 28)

Instead of universal truths about leadership, the authors posited that “interpretation, multiple realities, meaning making, perception, and subjective experience (p. 20)... are the only thing we can come to know” (p. 23). Expressing their disdain for functionalist and positivist paradigms, the authors sternly warned that “[i]f researchers had continued to study leadership from a functionalist or positivist perspective, few of the new theories or concepts would have emerged” (p. 28).

In making sense of educational leadership in higher education, Kezar, Carducci, and Contreras-McGavin (2006) also criticized previous leadership approaches for their limitations and fallacies and posited the latest theories for reconceptualizing leadership. Mostly through a positivist and functionalist lens, according to Kezar, Carducci, and Contreras-McGavin (2006), they chastised the historical structure of leadership research that concentrated on searching for universal characteristics, examined power and hierarchy, studied leaders as individuals, primarily focused on leaders while emphasizing social control. However, influenced by the latest theories of transformational leadership and emerging theories, which include: chaos and complexity theories, social and cultural

theories, contingency theories, and relational-team based theories, Kezar, Carducci and Contreras-McGavin (2006) argued that leadership no longer lies within the individual leader. Consequently, they suggested that these new lenses of inquiry have attempted to facilitate a new vision of leadership that is “process centered, collective, context bound, nonhierarchical, and focused on mutual power and influence” (p. ix). However, these new lenses of leadership research have not gone unchallenged as the countermovements of “academic capitalism and managerialism – adopt... [n]ew views [that] are emerging from traditional, functionalist circles of leadership, competing as countertendencies that draw individuals back to top-down, command, and control... hierarchical leadership” (p. 4). In contrast, the last twenty years has focused on nonhierarchical forms of leadership as the revolution in leadership research is “[m]oving away from static, highly structured, and value-neutral leadership frameworks” (p. 2).

In his critique on leadership approaches, Greenfield (1979) asserted that structural-functionalist thinking leads to sterile research because theory often ignores or oversimplifies experience. Conversely, new epistemologies can validate blind spots in the field of educational administration. Greenfield’s postmodernist epistemological lens, for example, contributes to the field of educational administration and leadership in its understanding of issues that relate to culture, diversity, equity, humanities and emotional building of trust by drawing on our mental prisms, perceptions, insight, and experiences that are deemed to be human. As such, current postmodernist thought is reflected in the current spirit of the times by the following scholars: English (2008), Greenfield and Ribbins (1993), Heck and Hallinger (2005), Hoy (1994), and Rassool and Morley (2000), that seek to utilize qualitative research methods to provide scholarly direction to lead the field of educational administration away from a scientific, logical positivist lens towards “a humanistic and moral endeavour” (Heck & Hallinger, 2005, p. 229). As a process, for example, transformational leadership “allows an educational view of culture (pluralistic, constructivist and negotiated)... [i]n contrast to the managerial view of culture (unitary, functionalist and manipulative)” (Bates, 2006, p. 162). In his words, English (2004) averred that postmodernist and the use of “alternate theoretical and epistemological lenses [will] provide us with a more complete and comprehensive way for examining the field of educational administration and leadership” (p. 352).

As a critic of the various traditional and functionalist forms of leadership approaches, English (2008) criticized a large “list of largely popular business texts that are cited from time to time in educational leadership books... [because] very few are research based” (p. 160). In his book, *The Art of Educational Leadership*, English (2008) provides readers with over three pages of popular for-profit business texts that have surfaced over the past twenty years. Some examples of these texts include, *The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People*, *One-Minute Manager*, *Good to Great*, *Who Moved My Cheese?*, and *Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice, and Leadership*, which have surfaced around the world and into the managerial and leadership arenas of educational administration; however, not without some trepidation (English, 2008). Expressing his disdain for these for-profit business texts, English (2008) derided these texts by referring to them as “*kitsch management*,” a term first coined by Samier (2005), which “is a slang term that means rubbish or trash” (p. 160). Furthering his argument, English (2008) averred that these texts reflect positivist views of management and “the few that claim to be [research based] engage in a highly reductionist and oversimplified list of generalities that require complex organizational situations to be de-contextualized, that is “dumbed down” for them to fit” (p. 160). In a similar vein, Northouse (2007) reminds us that although the research findings on leadership provide us with a broad picture; however, leadership is “far more sophisticated and complex than the often-simplistic view presented in some of the popular books on leadership” (p. 1). Consequently, the nostrums prescribed in these texts are of little help to educational leaders “because the context in which their proffered simplicities don’t really exist in public school administration” (English, 2008, p. 164). English (2008) chastised “*kitsch management*” texts as standing in the epoch of structuralism proclaiming “oversimplified, watered-down solutions to the pressure-packed conundrums of contemporary educational leadership” (p. 166).

According to English (2008), Deal and Bolman’s “*frame theory*” and their notion of “choosing a frame to size things up” (p. 317), insinuates the frames as physical structures; thus lending to the argument that this leadership approach stands in the epoch of structural-functionalism. Collectively, the idea of reframing with the four individual frames represents a set of interrelated parts that constitute the whole, whereby “the leader

is to select the right frame for his or her organization and to ride the waves of change somewhat like surfers” (p. 155). English (2008) further posited that the frames are nested in organizational theory as they are more concerned with organizations as opposed to the people in them. Although Bolman and Deal’s (2008) frame theory presents itself as being selective, “it is in reality a rationale for knowing what structural lens will yield what results when imposing it on an organization [and] [t]he choices are limited to purely structural alternatives” (p. 155). That being said, English (2008) insinuated that we are continuing to see the “dominance of theoretical thought in the works of... Bolman and Deal’s (1991,[1997, 2003, 2008]) *Reframing Organizations*, which [is] simply the latest of the continuing ripples of the 1957 “theory movement” in educational administration” (p. 76).

English (2008) also argued that the current knowledge base in educational leadership stands in the long shadow of scientific management and classical organizational theory. English based his demarcation of classical organizational theory on the foundational writings of Fredrick Taylor’s (1911) *Principles of Scientific Management*, Henri Fayol’s (1916) *General and Industrial Management*, and Max Weber’s (1922) *Bureaucracy*. According to English (2008), these ideas “led the way to the present dominance of organizational theory as the contemporary theoretical umbrella for the study of educational leadership” (p. 76). Collectively, this classical view of scientific management contributes to our current understanding as to how modern universities function as professional bureaucracies that utilize the following ideas: division of labor and the factory system, one best way to organize for production, specialization and, systematic efficiency, rational management, strategic planning, goal setting, hierarchy, systems command and control as it relates to contemporary perceptions of leadership in higher education (English, 2008; Owens & Valesky, 2007). In his words, Bates (2006) posited that “the study of leadership in education was dominated for most of the 20th century by... functionalist accounts of the virtues of bureaucracy and hierarchy; and the quest for a ‘science’ of educational administration” (p. 155). Scientific management, specifically Taylor’s concepts of goal setting along with Fayol’s ideas of strategic planning are influential in our current understanding of key performance indicators (KPI’s) in the field of educational administration. KPI’s, for

example, are used as financial and non-financial metrics to measure budgeting goals, percentages of graduating students, student achievement and overall ranking in relation to other universities. That being said, English (2004) argued for the use of “alternate theoretical and epistemological lenses to provide us with a more complete and comprehensive way for examining the field of educational administration and leadership” (p. 352). Scholars, such as Bates (2006), Greenfield (1980), Heck and Hallinger (2005), and Hoy, (1994) opined that we need to fill these gaps left behind by the overreliance of positivism by drawing on insight, perception and humanity, which, in turn, cannot be controlled or measured by science. Although positivist and scientific views have dominated the last century of leadership research, these views “have been challenged and tempered by other views of leadership as an art, craft, or spiritual practice” (Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006, p. 3). Instead, scholars need to rely upon changing scholarly epistemologies that involve the humanities and the human condition in an attempt to lead educational leadership away from a scientific lens towards understanding this complex phenomenon as “a humanistic and moral endeavor” (Heck & Hallinger, 2005, p. 229).

In their critique of leadership and application of leadership theories, Owens and Valesky (2006) also argued that organizational theory and the writings of Max Weber’s (1922) critique of *Bureaucracy* or the “*factory model*” continue to influence leadership approaches. In 1922, Max Weber laid the essential groundwork for organizations by concentrating on the nature of bureaucracy, specifically the “*iron cage*,” hierarchical structures of power and rule-based, control ideologies. The danger, according to Owens and Valesky (2007), is that bureaucratic leaders assume they are “experts high in the hierarchy [and] are especially qualified to set the goals of the organization and determine how to reach them” (p. 285). Universities, for example, utilize organizational charts or responsibility structures to illustrate hierarchical structure, albeit vertical and horizontal, relative positions within the organization, authority, chain of command from top down, such as the president, vice-president or provost, associate vice president, dean, director, associate dean, department chair, coordinator, associate chair and professor (University of Alberta, 2009). From a bureaucratic science management perspective, university organizations take in “*inputs*” (*uneducated students = revenue*), “*process and*

manufacture” (*teach* = *fixed* + *variable costs*), and “*output the product*” (*educated students* = *profit* = *revenue* – *fixed and variable costs*). Despite the pitfalls of a bureaucracy, this comparative analysis demonstrates how certain aspects of Weber’s critique against the bureaucracy have survived over time and how it continues to influence leadership approaches. In their words, Owens and Valesky (2007) averred that “new knowledge has not been replaced by the old. Traditional concepts of organizations continue to compete with new knowledge and, indeed, are still dominant in the marketplace of ideas” (p. 84). Conversely, the authors posited that transformational leaders challenge traditional bureaucratic leadership practices by synthesizing and expressing ideas collaboratively with their followers in a more equalitarian way and “assume that those on the lower levels of the organization have valuable knowledge, good ideas, and insights as to what the organization is about” (p. 285).

Anatomy of Department Chair in Higher Education

Typically, in a university system or any other educational institution, there is a well-defined, hierarchical organizational structure that needs to be understood in attempting to discern the leadership position occupied by the university department chair. Therefore, as an introduction into the anatomy of the department chair in higher education, this section will articulate the unique and paradoxical position occupied by a department chair within the traditional, university structure. In particular, I will chronicle the following: (a) bureaucratic organizational structure, (b) expected role typologies, (c) responsibilities and tasks, and (d) leadership preparation.

Bureaucratic organizational structure. Henry Mintzberg’s (1979) book, *The Structuring of Organizations*, is the product of his survey on available literature associated with organizational theory in which he derived five major organizational sectors: (a) “*strategic apex*,” (b) “*middle line*,” (c) “*operating core*,” (d) “*technostructure*,” and (e) “*support staff*”. When the five parts in an organization are viewed in isolation, Mintzberg (1979) stated there are five pulls in different directions which give “rise to a structural configuration sometimes called *Professional Bureaucracy*, common in universities, ... [such that] the skills and knowledge of their operating professionals to function; all produce standard products or services” (p. 348). Please refer to *Figure 2.2. Five Parts and Pulls of an Organization*. The nature of a

university's professional bureaucracy reflects the features of Mintzberg's five sectors in the following ways: (a) strategic apex (i.e., *president, CEO, provost, and vice-presidents*); (b) technostructure (i.e., *strategic planning, finance, budgeting*); (c) support staff (i.e., *legal counsel, public relations, facilities, payroll, human resources, libraries, bookstore, computing centre, registrar*); (d) middle line (i.e., *deans, associate deans, directors, coordinators, department chairs*); and (e) operating core (i.e., *faculty professoriate*). With formal authority and through the chain of command, the middle line position (*directors, chairs, coordinators*) connects the operating core (*faculty professoriate*) to the strategic apex. The anatomy of this structure "is essentially bureaucratic, its coordination – like that of the Machine Bureaucracy – achieved by design, by standards that predetermine what is to be done" (p. 351). In this context, the university department chair "abhors administration, desiring only to be left alone to practice his [or her] profession. But that freedom is gained only at the price of administrative effort – raising funds, resolving conflicts, buffering the demands of outsiders" (p. 363). Within a professional bureaucracy, the chair is also faced with problems of coordination, discretion, and innovation. Similar to the machine bureaucracy, the "Professional Bureaucracy is an inflexible structure, well suited to producing standard outputs but ill-suited to adapting to the production of new ones" (p. 375).

Figure 2.2. Five Parts and Pulls of an Organization

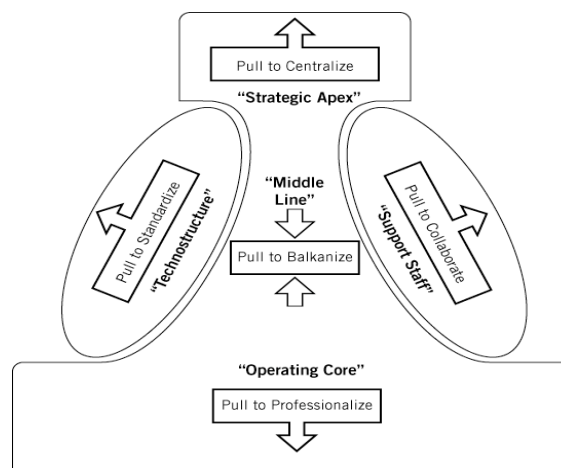


Figure 2.2. Adapted from "The Structuring of Organizations: The Synthesis of the Research," by Mintzberg, 1979, p. 302).

The ambiguity and paradoxical nature of the middle line position occupied by the chair is well documented (Aziz et al, 2005; Chu, 2006; Craig, 2005; Dyer & Miller, 1999; Hancock, 2007; Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, & Tucker; Leaming, 2007; Lumpkin, 2004; Seagrean, Creswell, & Wheeler, 1993; Tucker, 1981, 1984, 1993). According to Craig (2005),

[t]he leadership provided by a department chair is a critical factor for success, yet one that has been described as being one of the most complex and ambiguous of all leadership positions... [as] [t]he chair has the intricate challenge of connecting the basic organizational unit to the larger institution, requiring leadership that builds bridges, creates connections, and defuses tension. (p. 82)

Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, and Tucker (1999) further commented on the middle line position by stating the following: “departments are the heart and soul of our post-secondary institutions... [and] serve as the home of disciplinary knowledge and as the intellectual and social base for faculty” (p. 271). In his book, *Academic Leadership*, Leaming (2007) also reinforced the paradoxical position occupied by the department chair by stating on one hand,

[f]aculty view themselves as independent entrepreneurs with a great deal of autonomy – with their own goals, agendas, and expectations – while upper administration is responsible for implementing institutional goals, agendas, and expectations... [and] the chairperson is often caught in the middle trying to negotiate between faculty interests and institutional expectations, which can be very far apart and at times in conflict. (p. xi)

With respect to Mintzberg’s professional bureaucracy and the middle line position, Aziz et al. (2005) suggested “[t]he academic department chair occupies a central position within higher education, simultaneously functioning as faculty... and administrator, with responsibility for a wide variety of tasks and activities directed toward multiple constituencies” (p. 571). In explaining the nature and critical role of the department chair in higher education organizations, Aziz et al. (2005) further stated that “[t]he department chair is the glue [that serves] as the link between faculty and administration, between the discipline and the institution, and occasionally between faculty and parents” (p. 571). In a similar opinion, Hancock (2007) proffered the middle line position reflects a convergence of activity, such that, “[t]he mission of universities, the vision of upper administrators, the aspirations of faculty all intersect at the office of

department chair” (p. 306). Similarly in their book, *The Department Chair: New Roles, Responsibilities and Challenges*, Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) metaphorically summarize many scholarly voices by referring to the middle line position occupied by the chair as,

a block of wood held in a vise for shaping seems appropriate to describe the situation of an academic chair. The chair is squeezed between the demands of upper administration and institutional expectations [strategic apex] on the one side and the expectations of faculty, staff, and students [operating core] on the other, with both attempting to influence and shape the chair. The chair is caught in the middle, required to provide the most sophisticated leadership and statesmanship to avoid being crushed by these two opposing forces. (p. iii)

The fulcrum position of chair lacks a distinct pivot point whereby it suffers “from role ambiguity because they have no clear mandate for their position. They seldom are supplied with clear job descriptions or clear criteria for performing their jobs. They come to the position without training... [and] any formal orientation” (Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler, 1993, p. 11). In a similar vein, Dyer and Miller (1999) averred that “the chair often has the responsibility of conveying upper-level administrative decisions to faculty while at the same time conveying faculty concerns to senior administrators” (p. 4). Succinctly stated, “the department chair serves two masters - the departmental faculty and the dean or administrator who supervises the position” (Dyer & Miller, 1999, p. 44).

In understanding the bureaucratic nature and middle line position of department chair, Chu (2006), Lumpkin (2004), Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) referenced Bolman and Deal’s structural frame as a tool to emphasize the importance of the chair’s position in relation to navigating through the responsibility structure in a higher education organization. By using the structural frame, Lumpkin (2004) suggested that the department chair “must gain a clear understanding of how institutions of higher education operate – in ways they may never have understood while faculty members” (p. 45). As Chu (2006) stated, chairs need to know which “groups, positions, and policies [are] of most importance to the department... [and how] [t]hese rules provide the parameters within which the department and its leaders are expected to operate” (p. 8). For example, is it the central executive arm, students, faculty, accrediting agencies, alumni, professional bodies, faculty associations, or support staff? If department chairs are to assist their units and negotiate with allies and opponents in hopes of achieving

departmental goals, Chu (2006) argued that they must “ make sense of the bureaucracy and the internal and external constituent groups that will affect the department’s performance” (p. 9).

Role typologies. This section of the literature review will articulate the various role typologies occupied by the university department chair. In brief, a role is the dynamic aspect and “set of behavioral expectations associated with a given status” (Kendall, Murray, & Linden, 2000, p. 138). In using the lens of role theory, the literature reviewed in this section reports a myriad of role expectations, which, in turn creates a sense of role ambiguity as some of the expectations with the role of department chair are unclear. Consequently, the various expected role typologies can lead to role conflict, “[a] situation in which incompatible role demands are placed on a person by two or more status held at the same time” (p. 673).

In a review of the literature from three countries that included the United Kingdom, United States, and Australia, which was concerned with leadership effectiveness at the department chair level, Bryman (2007) reported role ambiguity between the roles of manager and administrator. Even though many writers seek to distinguish leadership from kindred terms like administration and management, Bryman (2007) noted that:

it became apparent early on that the terms were being used in ways that did not distinguish them in a precise or consistent way. In part, this is because it can be very difficult to distinguish activities that are distinctively associated with leadership from managerial or administrative activities. (p. 694)

In a broad view, Bowman (2002), Chu (2006), Craig (2005), and Hancock (2007), drew the conclusion that department chairs simultaneously function as managers and leaders. Although the scholars have identified them as two separate roles, they also indicated that the two (leader and manager) are intricately connected and in concert with each other. In teasing out the two roles, Bowman (2002) averred that “[f]raming challenges, identifying opportunities, and managing resources constitute the primary work of academic chairs as managers [whereas] [s]olving problems and enabling others to solve problems is the real work of academic chairs as leaders” (p. 159). In other words, the managerial work of an academic department chair is reflected in the mission of the department, its purpose and reason for being. However, the vision of the

department symbolizes its aspirations and what it strives to be, based upon the leadership of the academic chair. Speaking from the position of assistant Dean, Craig (2005) asserted that the managerial role of the department chair is crucial for day-to-day operations, departmental planning, and execution of university policies and outcomes. Correspondingly, Craig (2005) declared that the leadership role occupied by the department chair requires setting the department direction and vision, cultivating internal and external relationships and “developing collaborative initiatives on many levels” (p. 84). Although Bowman (2002) noted differences between leaders and managers, he also proffered that they:

share one common trait: they do not try to help colleagues overcome their weaknesses. Rather, great managers build on colleagues’ unique strengths (p. 160)... [and] [i]n concert, the real work of academic chairs as leaders is to make colleagues’ strengths effective and their weaknesses irrelevant... [which] demands a diverse set of leadership capabilities: well-honed communication skills, problem solving skills, conflict-resolution skills, cultural-management skills, coaching skills, and transition-management skills. (p. 161)

Although the two roles may operate in concert, Chu clearly reminds us of the demarcation. According to Chu (2006), management is the effective use of already allocated resources to efficiently achieve an established departmental mission within a prescribed set of policies and procedures. In fulfilling the role of manager, the department chair must be able to:

plan, organize, and control all available resources such as capital, plant, materials, and labor to achieve defined objectives with maximum efficiency and... [familiarize themselves with] institution’s important policies, significant data sources, and the documents that contain information used for planning and assessment... [and] what they have available in the way of resources (budget allocations, personnel and their competencies, facilities and equipment, curriculum and schedule). (p. 114)

As a caveat, however, he posited that department chairs need to be competent managers with what they have prior to leading their departments to significant and positive change. In concert with management, Chu (2006) succinctly summarized the voices of a few (Bowman, 2002; Bryman, 2007; Craig, 2005), such that, the essence in exercising a leadership role, can be found in the following quotation:

[leadership] is the art of creating an environment and influencing people to willingly follow a chosen direction...[whereby leaders are] less bound by

prescribed circumstances of resources and existent operationalizations of the department mission...[and they] shoot for some place better than where they are... [and espouse] a clear vision, visible values, and high expectations that guide members of the organization along a path that realizes the vision. Leaders have the skill to help people do a better job through coaching, facilitating, and by creating environments that serve the organization's members. Chairs as leaders understand critical institutional processes, they know the key institutional players, they are able to remove organizational roadblocks that hinder the faculty's natural tendency to produce quality, and they empower faculty and staff to achieve organizational goals consistent with their own talents and motivations. (p. 115)

These words posited by Chu, are similar to the advice professed by Covey (1989), "[leaders] begin with the end in mind" (p. 95), such that, a leaders most critical task is to consistently convey an image of what the organization should look like by influencing group members on the importance of the end.

In a similar vein, other researchers such as Tucker (1993), who is the author of a widely used text on the department chair entitled, *Chairing the Academic Department: Leadership Among Peers*, distills the department chair's roles down further while remaining relatively broad in his delineation. According to Tucker (1993), the "role indicates how or in what capacity the chairperson relates to an individual or a group in performing an activity" (p. 32). In total, Tucker (1993) listed 28 potential roles that a department chair assumes "to some degree at one time or another" such as, advocator, motivator, manager, leader, and researcher (and the list continues) (p. 32). Among the myriad of roles occupied by the department chair, there is one distinct characteristic – its paradoxical nature. In the words of Tucker (1993),

[t]he dean may have certain expectations about the chairperson's role, the faculty may have others, and the chairperson may have yet others that do not correspond to those of the dean or the faculty. Such a dilemma may have no easy or satisfactory solution. The chairperson must become accustomed to being in an atmosphere beset by contradiction. (p. 39)

In summarizing this paradoxical position, he stated that the department chair "is both a manager and faculty colleague, an advisor and an advisee, a soldier and a captain, a drudge and a boss" (p. 33).

In their scheme, leading researchers in the study of department chairs in higher education, Gmelch and Miskin (1993), condensed the complex dimension of a department chair's roles down to the following four: faculty developer, manager, leader,

and scholar. According to Gmlech and Miskin (1993) these roles were drawn from their extensive experiences and from national surveys in the United States conducted by the National Centre for the Study of Department Chairs at Washington State University. As faculty developers, department chairs engage in “recruitment, selection, and evaluation of faculty as well as providing informal faculty leadership to enhance faculty morale and professional development” (p. 10). Chairs who assume the role of manager undertake maintenance activities such as preparing budgets, keeping records, assigning teaching duties to faculty, supervising non-academic staff, maintaining finances, facilities, and equipment. Acting as leader, the department chair serves as an advocate for the department both internally and externally as well as providing “long-term direction and vision for the department, solicit[ing] ideas to improve the department, plan[ning] and evaluat[ing] curriculum development, plan[ning] and conduct[ing] departmental meetings” (p. 10). Occupying the role of scholar, the department chair strives to continue to teach while conducting research to keep current within their discipline.

Research conducted by Wolverton, Gmelch, Wolverton, and Sarros (1999), sought to clarify how Australian and U.S. department chairs defined their tasks within their respective roles. In the U.S. phase of the study, eight hundred department chairs were randomly sampled with a 66% response rate to the survey. In comparison, the Australian phase of the study surveyed all 40 Australian universities and a total of 1680 department chairs were surveyed with a 51% response rate. The survey instrument used the “Chair Tasks Inventory (Carroll & Gmelch 1994)” and asked department chairs “to assess the importance of, and their effectiveness in each of 26 chair duties” (p. 336). Collectively, U.S. and Australian “department chairs delineated their tasks along six themes – administrative tasks, resource management, scholarship, leadership, faculty development, and resource development” (p. 335). With the exception that Australian department chairs “were almost as productive as [their U.S. counterparts] in writing books and articles” (p. 347); for the most part, department chairs in the U.S. and Australia perceive their roles similarly.

In their study, Stark, Briggs, and Rowland-Poplowski (2002) explored the curriculum leadership roles of department chairs in randomly selected institutions in the United States. Similarly, many other recent researchers and authors have also

emphasized the importance of curriculum leadership ascribed to the position of a university department chair (Chu, 2006; Gmelch & Miskin, 1993; Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, & Tucker, 1999; Leaming, 2007; Tucker, 1993). In their sample of 50 departments, Stark, Briggs, and Rowland-Poplowski (2002) utilized a qualitative research design and obtained 44 usable interviews of department chairs plus 83 interviews from some of their faculty members. Upon coding the interviews, the authors determined the following curriculum leadership roles of a university department chair: sensor, facilitator, agenda setter, coordinator, advocate, and standard setter. Of particular interest, the role of agenda setter “demonstrates concern with developing curriculum proposals... [and] development of specific ideas or proposals for faculty members to consider” (p. 334). Contrary to previous research studies that concentrated on the department chair in general, Stark, Briggs, and Rowland-Poplowski (2002) suggested that when researchers study the leadership roles of a university department chair “it is important for them to recognize that chairpersons may exercise different leadership roles in the curriculum planning process” (p. 353).

In their study, Benoit and Graham (2007) explored how department chairs perceived their roles. Using a qualitative research design, Benoit and Graham (2007) interviewed 13 department chairs in a four-campus university system: Columbian, Rolla, St. Louis, and Kansas City as part of a larger study involving 28 interviews with department chairs. Upon analyzing their collected data, Benoit and Graham (2007) stated that “department chairs described four major roles: administrative, leadership, interpersonal, and resource development and that each role also constituted specific responsibilities” (p. 1). Implications of their study raise questions if universities are using resources efficiently and if chairs are afforded formal leadership opportunities prior to assuming a myriad of roles.

Responsibilities and tasks. The position of department chair has experienced an intensive amount of examination and research, “with special attention provided to the roles, functions, and responsibilities of the chair position” (Dyer & Miller, 1999, p. 5). Although much of the literature concerning the university department chair has concentrated on tasks and responsibilities performed by the chair; the important or frequently used tasks that are identified will be used as a vehicle to understand how they

perceive leadership. Regarding the taxonomies of leaders according to their functions, responsibilities and tasks, Bass (2008) reminds us of the following: “many attempts have been made to categorize organizational leaders and managers specifically according to the kind of functions they perform, the roles they play, [and] of the behaviors they display” (p. 37). The review of the literature presented in this section provides an overview of the contemporary research as it relates to the responsibilities and tasks of the department chair. It should be noted that the terms, responsibilities, tasks, and functions are used interchangeably to mean one in the same.

The precedent for this task and responsibility oriented focus was set by Tucker (1981, 1984, 1993) as one of the first researchers instrumental in articulating a list of these activities performed by the university department chair. Tucker (1993) presented findings in his book, *Chairing the Academic Department: Leadership Among Peers*, based on his research and existing literature on the numerous tasks, duties, and responsibilities of the university department chair. Tucker (1993) opined that the ever-expanding role of department chair is characterized by a myriad of responsibilities and duties that include: department governance, instruction, faculty and student affairs, external communication, budget and resources, office management, and professional development. In no particular order, the following is a list of categories detailing the variety of some 54 tasks and responsibilities the department chair is faced with:

1. Department Governance – conduct department meetings, develop and implement long range department programs, prepare the department for accreditation and evaluation, monitor library acquisitions, delegate some department administrative responsibilities to individuals and committees, (and the tasks continue).
2. Instruction – schedule classes, supervise programs, monitor dissertations and programs of study for graduate students, update curriculum, courses, and programs.
3. Faculty Affairs – recruit and select faculty members, assign faculty responsibilities that include teaching, research, and committee work, monitor faculty contributions, evaluate faculty performance, deal with unsatisfactory faculty and staff performance (and the tasks continue).
4. Student Affairs – recruit and select students, advise and counsel students, work with student government.
5. External Communication – communicate department needs and interact with upper level administrators, improve and maintain departments image and reputation, coordinate activities with outside groups, maintain liaison with external agencies and institutions.

6. Budget and Resources – prepare and propose department budgets, seek outside funding, administer the department budget, prepare annual reports, set priorities for use of travel funds.
7. Office Management – manage department facilities and equipment, including maintenance and control of inventory, supervise and evaluate clerical staff in the departments, maintain essential department records.
8. Professional Development – foster the development of each faculty members' special talents and interests, foster good teaching in the department, stimulate faculty research and publication, encourage faculty members to participate in regional and national professional meetings.

In their exploration on the international body of literature, Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) reported that “[n]umerous studies have been conducted on the tasks, activities, roles, and responsibilities of departmental chairs” (p. iii). This explanation is consistent with conclusions reached in several studies. Since 1965, Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) reported that “at least 12 studies have attempted to map... the tasks, duties, responsibilities, activities, and roles of chairs” (p. 5). Upon examination of these studies, which include: Norton (1980), Bragg (1981), Jennerich (1981), Tucker (1984, 1992), Moses and Roe (1990), and Seagren and Filan (1992), there are a plethora of specific tasks, duties, and responsibilities associated with the department chair. More importantly, the focus of each study varied. For example, Norton (1980) focused on department chair responsibilities, Bragg (1981) studied subroles emphasized by chairs, Tucker (1984, 1992) examined the diversity of roles, Moses and Roe (1990) investigated headship functions, and Seagren and Filan (1992) scrutinized roles, task, and competencies of department chairs. In their summary of the research findings, which included anecdotal accounts, perceptions from workshops, case-studies, and empirical analyses; Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) concluded that “[a] complex role emerges from these portraits, yet these role typologies seldom build on each other or provide a definitive list of areas of responsibility” (p. 5). That being said, this evidence presents a picture that suggests the position of department chair is one of diverse roles and responsibilities.

More recent taxonomies, such as those proffered by Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, and Tucker (1999), have expanded on Tucker's (1981, 1984, 1993) list to include a wide range of distinct tasks and activities that vary in different levels of specificity. By drawing on the authors extensive experiences as university academic leaders and

researchers, Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, and Tucker (1999) chronicled the perspective of a department chair as someone who has had to confront the myriad of complexities of how universities function while chairing a department. In brief, the authors captured and elucidated the ever-expanding nature of chairing a university academic department that continues to experience significant change. In their book, *The Department Chair as Academic Leader*, Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, and Tucker (1999) created seven categories to summarize and describe the lengthy list of tasks and responsibilities required of a university department chair as follows:

1. Department governance and office management – shape the department mission, build consensus around departmental goals, conduct department meetings, implement long-range programs, plans, goals, and policies, lead faculty in determining what services the department should provide; supervise and evaluate the clerical and technical staff, maintain essential department records, determine departments' equipment needs.
2. Curriculum and program development – initiate curricular and program review, implement new curriculum, manage department assessment program, assist faculty secure necessary resources to conduct research.
3. Faculty matters – recruit and select new faculty, manage faculty teaching assignments, promote professional development, evaluate faculty performance.
4. Student matters – recruit and retain students.
5. Communication with external audiences – communicate with external publics (alumni, governing boards, accrediting agencies, granting agencies, government), communicate department needs and achievements to central administration.
6. Financial and facilities management – prepare, propose, and administer department budgets, seek outside funding, set priorities for new infrastructure, manage department's physical facility.
7. Data management – manage the department's record keeping system, control the flow of information.
8. Institutional support - promote and advance welfare of the institution.

A common result found in the literature, according to Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, and Tucker (1999) is that it “is the chair's job to collect, interpret, and present to the department, data relevant to discussions about curriculum” (p. 29). Further, the authors expanded on the growing importance of solid and strong leadership at the department level by creating a strong academic team and the imperative role in developing curriculum with a purpose.

Research conducted by Wolverton, Gmelch, Wolverton, and Sarros (1999), reported six dimensional themes including administrative, resource management, leadership,

personal scholarship, external liaison, resource development, and faculty development responsibilities and tasks. The researchers decided to regroup Carroll and Gmelch's (1994) list of 26 duties along six themes "to provide a cleaner view of chair responsibilities" (p. 335). As such, Wolverton, Gmelch, Wolverton, and Sarros (1999) delineated department chair tasks along the following six themes:

1. Department administrative – assign teaching, research and other related duties to faculty, plan and conduct department meetings, plan and evaluate curriculum development, coordinate departmental activities with constituents, inform faculty of university concerns, solicit ideas to improve department.
2. Personal scholarship – maintain research program and associated professional activities, obtain resources for personal research, remain current with academic discipline, select and supervise graduate students.
3. Leadership – provide faculty leadership, develop and initiate long-range departmental goals, encourage professional development efforts of faculty, maintain a conducive work climate, encourage faculty research and publication.
4. Resource Management – assure the maintenance of accurate department records, prepare and propose budgets, manage non-academic staff, manage department resources (finances, facilities, equipment).
5. External Liaison – represent the department at professional meetings, participate in university committee work, represent department to upper administration, obtain and manage grants and contracts.
6. Faculty Development – recruit and select faculty, evaluate faculty performance.

Leadership Preparation

Although there are special workshops to prepare presidents, vice presidents, and deans for their new leadership roles and responsibilities, Tucker (1993) indicated "few such opportunities are available to department chairpersons, who outnumber all other types of university administrators combined" (p. 28). Similarly, Dyer and Miller (1999) also reported, "a vast amount of research exists on the roles and responsibilities of chairpersons [while] there is a gap of knowledge on how to train for this middle management position" (p. 21). In their book, *The Department Chair: New Roles, Responsibilities and Challenges*, Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) reported that among the many challenges expected of a department chair, none are greater than "the fact that chairs come out of the ranks of faculty in disciplines that might be far afield from management or leadership" (p. 14). The need for leadership preparation cannot be

underestimated, according to Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993), who went on to say that the department chair is expected to:

change from the work that is solitary (as a faculty member) to more social (as a chair), from focused activities to fragmented ones, from being autonomous to being accountable to others, from being manuscript oriented to being meme-oriented, from being private to being public, from being professional to being conscious of public relations, from being stable within a discipline and circle of professional associations to being mobile within the university structure among and at other universities and colleges, from requesting resources to being a custodian of and dispensing resources, and from practicing austerity with little control over one's resources to enjoying more control. (p. 14)

Various researchers and scholars strongly agree on the lack of leadership preparation to ready the university department chair for their new positions. In his landmark book, *Chairing the Academic Department*, Tucker (1993) reported “most department chairpersons are drawn from faculty ranks and have had, at best, very little administrative experience” (p. 27). In a similar vein, Lumpkin (2004) stated that:

department chairs have been plucked from among faculty and thrust into a role for which they are ill-suited... [and] there are few opportunities for professional development. Instead, this position usually requires learning on the job, rather than systematically learning the skills and abilities that could lead to success. (p. 44)

Ostensibly, Lumpkin (2004) drew the conclusion that “[l]earning to lead may be one of the most difficult challenges awaiting the new department chair during the transition from a faculty role” (p. 44). More recently, Craig (2005) declared that although effective leadership in the chair position is critical to institutional success, she also indicated that department chairs “generally receive little or no formal training for the job” (p. 86).

Similarly, Whitsett (2007) posited that,

[d]epartment chairs have the authority to make most department decisions, but rarely does formal training or instruction for this position exist [consequently] [t]his can put the department chair in charge of a unit without really knowing how to manage people or how to accomplish group goals. They are left, so to speak, without an instruction manual, and some people may flounder in this situation. (p. 274)

As one of the leading researchers in the study of academic leadership in higher education, Gmelch (1991) probed the price of academic leadership and associated

tradeoffs by surveying 808 department chairs. In total, 576 (71.3%) department chairs responded. According to Gmelch (1991), respondents indicated that they

come to the position without leadership training; without prior administrative experience; without a clear understanding of the ambiguity and complexity of their role; without recognition of the metamorphic changes that occur as one transforms from a professor to a chair; and without an awareness of the cost to their academic careers and personal lives. (p. 45)

Utilizing case study research, Aziz et al. (2005) attempted to identify the training needs of department chairs and school directors at Bowling Green State University. In their structured interviews, the researchers utilized the critical incident method to ask the 18 participants (*department chairs and school directors*) to identify the knowledge, skills, and abilities (*KSA's*) required of their position. The researchers also mailed out 92 surveys, with 56 responding (62% response rate) to further identify the KSA's required. Findings from this six-step case study “revealed that budgets and funding, faculty issues, legal issues and professional development of chairs and directors were rated as the highest priority training needs” (p. 571). Out of all of these areas, professional development of chairs and directors was rated most important. In particular, the researchers identified leadership skills and the “[s]kill in adopting different leadership styles to fit varying situations” (p. 583) as the most important component of professional development for a department chair and school director.

As a response to the lack of leadership preparation, there are a plethora of books on what exactly department chairs do, such as the tasks and responsibilities (Chu, 2006; Gmelch & Miskin, 1993, 2004; Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, & Tucker, 1999; Leaming, 2007; Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler, 1993; Tucker, 1981, 1984, 1993). The finding is striking because the implication is that departmental leaders are selected because they are viewed as having excelled as academics, rather than because of previous leadership or managerial experience. In pondering much of a department chair's frustration, Hancock (2007) opined that much of it is “borne [out] of inexperience, perhaps even inaptitude [which] could be countered with specific training, faculty development programs targeting an administrative path” (p. 307). Hancock (2007) further articulated that “[t]hose with real affinity for leadership may by not be naturally drawn to academia. Those that are typically drawn have a different skill set” (p. 307). Ostensibly, Hancock

(2007) further hypothesized that the lack of training opportunities could be understood by posing the following question: “[i]f the chair’s role requires special training, does it make sense to invest in someone already highly and successfully trained to do something else?” (p. 308).

In concert with other scholars (Leaming, 2007; Lumpkin, 2004; Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler, 1993, Tucker, 1993), Filan (1999) explained that department chairs are thrust into these leadership positions that require them to make adjustments in the following three aspects of their new job:

learning how to shift one’s loyalty from a specific discipline to the institution as a whole, developing the skills to resolve conflicts, and knowing how to build an effective team whose members respect one another and appreciate differences. (p. 2)

Filan (1999) further stated, “few community and technical colleges provide any kind of formalized training to assist either their new or experienced chairs to develop these academic and administrative skills” (p. 2). However, Filan (1999, 2003) described one such leadership preparation program for midlevel managers that was initiated by the Maricopa Community College department chairs as a grassroots movement in 1992 that has evolved into the current Chair Academy. In recognizing the need for preparing midlevel managers, he also proffered that the Chair Academy developed the Academy Leadership Program as a response for preparing “community and technical college department chairs, who outnumber all other administrators” (p. 2). According to Filan (1999, 2003), the Academy Leadership Program takes a transformational leadership approach that is “skillfully developed to introduce key leadership theory, research, and best practices” (p. 23).

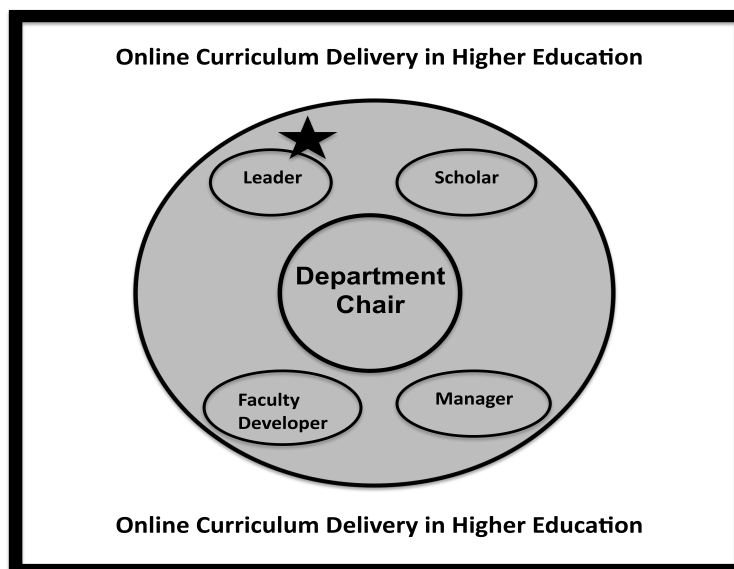
Conceptual Framework

This conceptual framework will outline the course of action, specifically the methodology that will guide this study. Given the breadth and depth undertaken in the literature review of this study, it is apparent that the explosion of technology, specifically the Internet and the World Wide Web, as it relates to the leadership role of department chair is relatively novel. Although the department chair is an admittedly critical position, much of the literature reported here has only embraced the veneer of leadership as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery. Consequently, this lacuna suggests

there is a need to undertake research regarding the perplexing concern of leadership as it relates to the department chair in online curriculum delivery and critically assess the data to come to a deeper understanding.

As discussed in the literature review, this study will adopt the four-role typology advocated by Gmlech and Miskin (1993), which is critical for department chairs to achieve results. Although the authors declare four main roles as being: faculty developer, manager, leader, and scholar; this study will focus exclusively on the identity of leadership; “since it is the most critical role to achieve success” (p. 11). Please refer to *Figure 2.3 Conceptual Framework for Leadership Perceptions in This Study* for a visual representation.

Figure 2.3. Conceptual Framework for Leadership Perceptions in This Study



In comparison to what is known about department chair leadership in general, I sought to conceptualize the perceptions of how university department chairs, or equivalent, perceive leadership as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery. This conceptual framework will draw upon the evidence garnered through interviews and qualitatively explore leadership perceptions held by department chairs or equivalent. Consequently, I will engage documentation of participants' individual stories along with scholarly literature, which, in turn, will be used to respond to the research questions posed in Chapter One of this study to gain a deeper understanding into the phenomenon of leadership as it pertains to online curriculum delivery.

Summary

This literature review was organized into three main sections. The first part of this chapter provided the context of an online environment by referencing the continuum of technology-based learning.

The second part of this first chapter began with a comprehensive discussion on leadership. In particular, I shared a caveat involving leadership and management by way of a brief account of how leadership is sometimes mistakenly perceived as management, even though both are intricately connected. Then, the chapter provided a comparative overview of some of the major leadership theories and approaches over the past 100 years. Further, the literature provided some useful but limited inquiry and insight into, for example, how higher education leaders might adopt common leadership practices from their counterparts in business and industry. Conversely, newer postmodernist epistemologies have only recently attempted to critique and challenge these business approaches to leadership in higher education by contextualizing the research within the academic arena.

The third part of this chapter began by articulating the professional bureaucratic organizational structure in which the paradoxical position of university department chair is situated and the many associated organizational pulls. It is apparent from the literature that describing the role of the university department chair is a task that is not easily realized. For instance, the various role typologies (*leader, manager, politician, advocate, etc.*) as outlined in this chapter are diverse and simultaneously at times conflicting. In contrast with this, leadership has been given less attention; instead, there is a corpus amount of literature dealing with the myriad of tasks and responsibilities (*ranging from 26 to 92*) of the department chair. That said, leadership poses specific challenges in the academic community; however, the literature revealed that leadership preparation to properly equip academic leaders in their transition from faculty to assuming the position of university department chair is lacking.

Despite the efforts of various scholars and researchers, collectively, the leadership perceptions of university departments chairs as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery seems to be neglected in this body of literature.

Chapter 3

Research Design and Methodology

“Imagination is more important than knowledge. Knowledge is limited. Imagination encircles the world”. (Albert Einstein)

Introduction

The focus of this chapter is on the research design and methodology employed in conducting this study. The research design consists of essentially eight specific areas: (a) philosophical stance, (b) methodology, (c) method - case study, (d) sample and selection of participants, (e) data collection methods, (f) data analysis, (g) validity and trustworthiness (*credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability*), and (h) ethical considerations.

Philosophical Stance

The qualitative educational researcher is part philosopher who comes to know the world by combining the beliefs about ontology, epistemology, and methodology. Ontology is centered on the following questions: “What kind of being is the human being? What is the nature of reality?” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. 31). Epistemology canvasses, how do we know what we know?, What is or should be regarded as acceptable knowledge?, “What is the relationship between the inquirer and the known?” (p. 31). And, methodology investigates “How do we know the world, or gain knowledge of it” (p. 31). When entwined together, Denzin & Lincoln (2008) posited “the researcher’s epistemological, ontological, and methodological premises may be termed a paradigm, or an interpretive framework, a basic set of beliefs that guides action” (p. 31). In brief, these beliefs influence how the qualitative social researcher interprets the world, acts in it, and how it should be discerned and understood.

Interpretivism respects the differences between people; thus, requiring the social researcher to grasp and interpret the participants subjective meaning. Further, interpretivism rejects hypotheses and theoretical generalizations with the intent of formulating a set of generalizations about a particular context in which human social action and meaning occur. By rejecting the objectivist ontological position, interpretivism seeks to provide a portrayal a participant’s personal experience of a

particular phenomenon in order gain a deeper understanding of how it is understood by those who are directly involved.

Interpretivism and the concept of empathetic understanding in social research can also be found in its intellectual heritage of *Verstehen*. When translated, Max Weber's notion of *Verstehen* suggests that in the human social sciences we are concerned with "*understanding*" whereas the natural sciences are concerned with *Erklaren* "*explaining*" (Crotty, 1998; Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Unlike quantitative research, which utilizes standardized instruments or measuring devices to explain experiences of the world, qualitative research relies upon the researcher as the "instrument of data collection" to constantly understand participants viewpoints and experiences (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 36). In contrasting *Verstehen* and *Erklaren* simultaneously, Crotty (1998) argued "science is looking for consistencies, regularities, the law (nomos) that obtains. In the case of human affairs... we are concerned with the individual (idios) case" (p. 67). In brief, interpretivism does not chase after and report an objective reality; instead, it views the world as waiting to be discovered while attempting to understand the meaning participants attach to events they experience in a given situation.

Methodology

To come to a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study, I employed a qualitative research design; that explored how university department chairs' perceived leadership as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery through interviews and the analysis of related documents. According to Creswell (2005), qualitative research is best suited for "problems [that] need to be explored to obtain a deeper understanding (p.54)...[where] the researcher relies on the views of participants, asks broad, general questions, collects data consisting largely of words (or text) from participants, describes and analyzes these words for themes" (p. 39). Lincoln and Guba (1985) expanded on this idea, by explaining in their view, qualitative research was within the "interpretivist paradigm which portrays a world in which reality is socially constructed, complex, and ever-changing"(p. 6).

It would have been possible to use quantitative methodology to gain some information about the participants' perceptions regarding leadership using survey instruments or highly structured interviews; however, to come to a deeper understanding,

it was imperative to enter the participants' world of subjective reality. Thus, in order to generate the accumulation of rich data that was adequate and accurate enough to generate theory, it was vital to interview participants and permit responses from their own perspectives. Therefore, the most appropriate methodology to discern the phenomenon being investigated in this study incorporated qualitative research while employing the philosophical stance of interpretivism. Qualitative research as a process allows the researcher to approach "the world with a set of ideas, a framework (theory, ontology) that specifies a set of questions (epistemology) that he or she then examines in specific ways (methodology, analysis)" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. 28).

The relationship between the research design and interpretive paradigm is where the "research design describes a flexible set of guidelines that connect theoretical paradigms first to strategies of inquiry and second to methods for collecting empirical methods" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. 33). In this study, the qualitative research design connects the philosophical stance of interpretivism to the case study method, in particular, the method of data collection - namely interviewing. The qualitative research design, according to Denzin and Lincoln (2008), "situates the researcher in the empirical world and connects him or her to specific sites, persons, groups, institutions, and bodies of relevant interpretive material, including documents and archives" (p. 34).

Method – Case Study

A multisite case study strategy was chosen given that the purposes of this study were descriptive and exploratory in nature. As Yin (1981) reminds us, a case study is a study in which: (a) a phenomenon is investigated in its natural context, (b) the phenomenon is not easily separated from its context, and (c) many sources of evidence are used. Sturman (1999) articulated multisite case studies as studies in which "researchers... usually spend much less time in each site. They trade in-depth inquiry for comparisons across a number of sites" (p. 109). The intention of this study was to explore how university chairs' perceive leadership as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery. Correspondingly, Baumard (1999) proffered that "the choice of multiple cases allows us to establish theoretical oppositions, to study contradictory situations in different locations" (p. 110). He also posited that by sampling a number of organizations for multisite case study, there resulted "the construction of a new theory... partly facilitated

by the maximization of difference in the data obtained” (p. 109). Further, the selection of multiple sites facilitated for capacious differences to be identified, which, in turn, provided a more vigorous picture into the phenomenon of leadership.

Case study as a strategy of inquiry puts the paradigm of interpretation into action and “[a]t the same time, strategies of inquiry also connect the researcher to specific methods of collecting and analyzing empirical materials” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. 34). For instance, case study as a method in this study relied upon the strategies of interviewing and reviewing field notes. According to Wellington (2000), the strength of case study reaches after “perceptiveness, the capacity to interpret situations rapidly and at depth and to revise interpretations in the light of experience” (p. 91).

A key feature and research strength of the case study, is that it is concerned with how and why contemporary things happened, in other words *Verstehen*, and it does not attempt to control events or intervene (Creswell, 2005; Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Wellington, 2000; Yin, 2009). Instead of identifying patterns of behavior by a particular group, case study method allows the researcher to develop an in-depth understanding of the bounded system in attempt to figure out what complex things are taking place within that system (Creswell, 2005; Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Wellington, 2000; Yin, 2009). Therefore, given the criteria (limitations and delimitations) set forth in Chapter One of this study, “[a] case study is a good approach when the inquirer has clearly identifiable cases within boundaries and seeks to provide an in-depth understanding” (Creswell, 2007, p. 74).

Sample and Selection of Participants

The first part of the data collection circle involved locating sites and gaining access to key participants that fit the inclusion criteria as mentioned in Chapter One of this study. All participants were initially contacted verbally by telephone and the purpose of the study as well as my interest in their involvement was explained. Once participants agreed to participate in this study, I sent an introductory follow-up letter formally requesting their participation. In brief, the introductory letter to participate explained the purpose of the study, arrangements for the interview, and my commitment to providing confidentiality. For greater detail of the introductory letter to participate, please refer to Appendix “A”. In total, three university sites and four participants were recruited and

part of a random purposeful sample. In the words of Creswell (2007), “the inquirer selects individuals and sites for study because they can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study” (p. 125). As it pertains to case study research, Creswell (2007) also stated that “the researcher needs to select a site or sites to study, such as programs, events, processes, activities, individuals, or several individuals” (p. 122).

After identifying study site locations and key participants, it was imperative to build trust and rapport with the participants in the data collection process. Glesne and Peshkin (1992) explained that the nature of relationships in qualitative research “depends on two factors: the quality of interactions to support our research – or rapport – and the quality of our self-awareness to manage the impact of self on our research – or subjectivity” (p. 93). Succinctly stated, building rapport is a trust-building mechanism that is necessary to allow participants to share their experiences and perceptions as freely as possible. In my attempt to develop a positive rapport with participants, I began by discussing my interest in the phenomenon of leadership in education and how it relates to the pressures posed by technology; specifically the Internet and World Wide Web. The rapport building process was also accompanied by way of an introductory letter to participate and a letter of consent for interview participants. As Creswell (2007) suggested, “[s]tudy participants should be appraised of the motivation of the researcher for their selection, granted anonymity (if they desire it), and told by the researcher about the purpose of the study [because] this disclosure helps build rapport” (p. 124). Conversely, Glesne and Peshkin (1992) warned that the behavior, speech, and appearance of the researcher could potentially influence the quality of rapport that is established and stressed that

[t]he contribution of rapport to all modes of qualitative research remains essential. It is not separate from other aspects of doing good research, but an integral part of collecting data. Research could not succeed without the trust that rapport engenders. (p. 100)

Denzin and Lincoln (2008) also stressed that “[g]aining trust is essential to the success of the interviews... [and] [b]ecause the goal of unstructured interviewing is understanding, it is paramount to establish rapport with respondents” (p. 132).

Data Collection Methods

Another aspect of qualitative data collection, according to Yin (2009), Lincoln and Guba (1985), Creswell (2005, 2007), and Johnson and Christensen (2008) is that there is a compendium of data collection methods that can be utilized to gather data; however, the qualitative researcher needs to carefully identify the types of data that will address the research problem. In regards to case study research, there is consensus among the researchers that interviewing is the method of data collection that seems to dominate. That being said, I utilized electronic audio-recorded interviews, which were later transcribed, as the main instrument and source of data collection. In their words, Denzin and Lincoln and Denzin (2008) “[s]trategies of inquiry put paradigms of interpretation into motion” (p. 34).

Four qualitative open-ended interviews with university department chairs were employed to gain a deeper and fuller understanding of their subjective perceptions as it relates to the phenomenon of leadership. In congruence with Johnson and Christensen (2008), qualitative interviews are

used to obtain in-depth information about a participant’s thoughts, beliefs, knowledge, reasoning, motivations and feelings about a topic. Qualitative interviewing allows a researcher to enter into the inner world of another person and to gain an understanding of that person’s perspective. (p. 207)

Interview procedural logistics and preparation prior to interviewing ensured due diligence, preparedness, and reliability. For instance, mutually determining a time and place for conducting interviews was scheduled via phone, email, or through Skype (an Internet software application which allowed for synchronous audio and video communication; essentially a videoconference). Prior to each interview, participants received an electronic copy of the interview questions. Also in advance, an interview protocol form was created and contained the following information: (a) introduction to the case study and purpose of protocol, (b) data collection procedures, (c) outline of case study report, (d) case study question set, (e) approximate length of time for interview, and (f) readiness of appropriate recording equipment (Yin, 2009). The interview protocol form served as my log for recording information collected during the interview as well as for documenting field notes during observations. As Creswell (2007) stated, the protocol form “helps a researcher organize thoughts on items such as headings, information about

starting the interview, concluding ideas, information on ending the interview, and thanking the respondent” (p. 135).

Prior to conducting the interviews, the researcher piloted the interview questions to establish whether or not the participants would understand the questions and interview protocol. The pilot test resulted in a few minor changes in wording and order of questions, case study protocol, and troubleshooting of the electronic audio-recording equipment.

The average interview duration was between 1 to 1 ¾ hours. Please refer to *Table 2* for a summary of the interview schedule. Interviews were conducted electronically using the Internet and a software application called Skype and Elluminate. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2008), “[t]his mode of [electronic] interviewing will obviously increase during the new millennium as people rely increasingly on electronic modes of communication” (p. 151). However, in order to appease and accommodate the comfort for each participant, one face-to-face interview was conducted as requested. All interviews began with my explanation and reason for conducting the study, amount of time required to complete the interview, and intended plans for using the results from the interview. This was followed by obtaining signed consent from the interviewee to participate in the study. Afterwards, I then proceeded to request the interviewee’s permission to electronically audio-record the interview, promising the interviewee complete confidentiality as well as offering assurance that we could turn off the audio-recording device at any time.

During the interview, according to Johnson and Christensen (2008), the “interviewer should listen carefully and be the repository of detailed information” (p. 207). In order to obtain a deeper understanding, the researcher needs to exercise patience and self-control long enough to listen before intervening and engaging in bias free observation. Expanding on this, Wellington (2000), averred that there are other important issues that need to be considered: “the use of leading questions, open and closed questioning, ambiguity, and the distinction between probing and prompting” (p. 78). The objective of the interview was to explore how department chairs’, or equivalent, perceived leadership through the use of in-depth, open-ended questions. Questions that could be answered “yes” or “no” were avoided. For a detailed account of the topics and

questions that were asked during the interview, please refer to Appendix “C”. In circumstances that required greater clarity of depth and understanding or if responses seemed ambiguous, I relied upon the use of interview probes. For instance, “tell me more” or “what do you mean” was used to seek further elaboration and more precise detail on certain viewpoints. In doing so, however, I was also cognizant not to threaten or taint the original response proffered by the interviewee; instead, probes were used in a polite and courteous manner to encourage participants to talk freely. Consequently, this open-ended tactic produced a significant number of clues pertaining to the phenomenon of leadership. In addition, I was attentive and recorded “[n]onverbal techniques [which] are also important in interviewing”; the four methods observed were: (a) proxemic; (b) chronemic; (c) kinesic; and (d) paralinguistic (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. 139). Although all necessary interview precautions were exercised, Denzin and Lincoln (2008) cautioned that

[t]he spoken or written word always has a residue of ambiguity, no matter how carefully we word the questions and how carefully we report or code the answers... [but] interviewing in one of the most common and powerful ways in which we try to understand our fellow humans. (p. 118)

Table 2

Overview of Interview Schedule

Participant Name	# of Interviews	Total Length (hrs.)	Type of Interview (Skype, Elluminate, FTF, Telephone)
Doug	1	1hr & 45 min	Skype
Donna	1	1hr & 30 min	Face-to-Face (FTF)
Jenni	1	1hr & 10 min	Elluminate
Pam	1	1hr & 33 min	Skype

All audio-recorded interviews were then professionally transcribed into text and reviewed for accuracy by myself within one week of the interview to ensure accuracy of the data. Afterwards, member checking was employed as I emailed an electronic copy of the transcript to each respective participant allowing them an opportunity to review and verify the data that was captured or make necessary changes deemed appropriate. However, after reading the interview transcripts, no additional suggestions were made by any of the participants. Following this, a data transcript release form was used for

participants to sign and authorize the release of the transcript to be used in the manner described in the letter of consents. For a description of the data transcript form, please refer to Appendix “D”. Following this, electronic backup copies of all data included one working copy and one master copy that were kept in a secure location at all times by the researcher. Furthermore, portions of the interview responses in the findings and conclusions of this study have either been paraphrased and in the case of quotations, are verbatim. The names of participants and universities mentioned in the findings of this study have been replaced by pseudonyms to protect all participants.

Data Analysis

Due to the rich descriptions and volume of data collected, data analysis in qualitative research can be a daunting task for the qualitative researcher. After completing all of the transcriptions, I reviewed, interpreted, and analyzed the data with the intent of finding common themes and explanation building. Yin (2009) recommended, “your analysis should show that you attended to all the evidence... and your interpretations should account for all of this evidence and leave no loose ends” (p. 160). Expanding and adding to this, Creswell (2007) stated that the art of interpretation, “involves making sense of the data, lessons learned... [and] [i]n the process of interpretation, researchers step back and from larger meanings of what is going on in the situations or sites” (p. 154).

During my interpretation of the data, I initially color coded interview responses according to the key questions that were posed. Following this, I grouped responses according to their color, which, in turn was separated and organized into categories. From this grouping of information, salient themes eventually emerged which are presented in Chapter Five of this study. Among the many analysis strategies proffered in the education research literature, I followed the central steps of coding the data as suggested by Creswell (2007), which include: “reducing the data into meaningful segments and assigning names for the segments, combining the codes into broader categories or themes, and displaying and making comparisons in the data graphs, tables, and charts” (p 148).

Validity and Trustworthiness

Considering the complex and expanding nature of qualitative research, the criteria for validating the quality is varied among researchers (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2009). However, to ensure the validity of the data and of my interpretations in this study, I utilized trustworthiness as the conventional benchmark of rigor for judging the quality of my research design as proffered by Lincoln and Guba (1985). The primary question regarding trustworthiness in a naturalistic/qualitative method of inquiry is: “How can an inquirer persuade his or her audience that the findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to, worth taking account of?” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 301). In response to this question, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested the following four criteria: (a) “*credibility*” (*parallels internal validity and true value*); (b) “*transferability*” (*parallels external validity and applicability*); (c) “*dependability*” (*parallels reliability and consistency*); and (d) “*confirmability*” (*parallels objectivity and neutrality*) (Mertens, 1998; Yin, 2009). In this research study, trustworthiness was augmented by the descriptive strategies that follow.

Credibility. The construct of credibility, according to Lincoln and Guba (1985), is the extent to which the findings and interpretations correspond between the way participants perceived their social constructs and how the principal researcher interprets their original viewpoints. To address this concern, Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommended it is incumbent that qualitative researchers demonstrate credibility through a variety of strategies. The following three strategies were employed: (a) member checks, (b) peer debriefing, and (c) triangulation. Member checks allowed respondents an opportunity to verify the accuracy of my understandings and interpretations of the data. As part of the member checking process, each participant received an emailed electronic soft-copy of our interview transcripts for review, clarification, and suggestions. Suggested changes were made where required and transcripts were emailed again for verification of my interpretation. The second strategy built into this study invoked peer debriefing which is “a process of exposing oneself to a disinterested peer in a manner paralleling an analytic session and for the purpose of exploring aspects of the inquiry that might otherwise remain only implicit within the inquirer’s mind” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 308). With the assistance of a competent and disinterested peer, I was able to canvass

my methodology, methods, ethics, analysis, interpretations of the collected data, and other research issues. Essentially, the peer posed as the “*Devil’s Advocate*” throughout the process. With the third strategy, I used data triangulation which is “a major strength of case study data collection... to collect information from multiple sources but aimed at corroborating the same fact or phenomenon involved data triangulation” (Yin, 2009, pp. 114-116). In particular, interviews from multiple participants were used to construct validity by “provid[ing] multiple measures of the same phenomenon” (Yin, 2009, p. 117).

Transferability. Transferability is the degree to which the findings in a particular study can be applied to other contexts. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), unlike

Conventional researchers [who] are expected to make relatively precise statements about external validity (expressed, for example, in the form of statistical confidence limits), the naturalist can only set out working hypotheses together with a description of them and context in which they were found to hold. (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 316)

Yin (2009) is of a similar opinion when it comes to external validity, in that “generalization is not automatic...[and only after] direct replications have been made, the results might be accepted as providing strong support for theory” (p. 44).

Dependability. Dependability refers to assessing the quality of the data collection procedures and to see if the same procedures were repeated, would they produce similar findings. In addressing the issue of dependability, I relied upon a competent peer to conduct a thorough and independent audit of my research methods and whether I had applied them consistently. As it pertains to case-study research, Yin (2009) described this process as maintaining a case study protocol and case study database, which is “a formal assembly of evidence distinct from the final case study report” (p. 98) that chronicles each step of the research process as a way to “minimize the errors and biases in a study” (p. 45) so that “other investigators can review the evidence directly and not be limited to the written case study report”(p. 119).

Confirmability. Confirmability is the final criterion of trustworthiness. In brief, confirmability is a measure of how well the researchers’ findings are supported by the data collected and not by the biases or motivations of the researcher. To assure confirmability, Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommended a confirmability audit as its

primary strategy. In verification of confirmability, I have maintained a detailed case study database and audit trail of the following: electronic soft-copies of all documents, interviews, and observations, (including time, place, and protocols) collected throughout the inquiry process, electronic recorded copies of all digitally-recorded interviews, field notes, journals, and hard copies of interview transcripts which are in a secure place and available for review upon request. Yin (2009) referred to this principle of data collection for a case study as providing a “*chain of evidence*”, which are “explicit links among the questions asked, the data collected, and the conclusions drawn” (p. 98).

Ethical Considerations

Research involving human subjects requires an obligation to respect human dignity. In discussing ethical concerns, this study adhered to the *Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans*. By following the provision set forth by the council, the researcher in this study: protected anonymity and confidentiality of all participants; provided participants with the free right to choose not participate or withdraw from the study at any given time; obtained informed consent; ensured there were no physical or psychological risks or discomforts; and reflected upon foreseeable repercussions and benefits of the research.

All participants were informed that the Faculties of Education, Extension, Augustana, and Campus Saint-Jean (EEASJ REB) Research Ethics Board at the University of Alberta have approved the plan for conducting research associated with this study on ethical grounds. For questions regarding participation rights and ethical conduct or research, participants were provided with the necessary contact information the EEASJ REB as well as names of people participants may contact with specific questions about this study.

Furthermore, the researcher ensured participants that their names and study site locations would not be identified in the final report of the study, publications, and scholarly presentations; instead, they would be replaced with pseudonyms. As well, all participants were provided with the opportunity to review the final document prior to submission to ensure accuracy of information and that anonymity and confidentiality was maintained. All participants were assured that all collected data was stored in a secure environment and at the conclusion of this study, all data collected would be stored for a

minimum of five years at the Department of Educational Policy Studies (as required by University of Alberta guidelines). For an entire description of the following documents that were accorded to each participant: *Introductory Letter to Participate*; *Letter of Consent for Interview Participants*; and the *Data/Transcript Release Form for Interview Participants*, please refer to Appendix “A”, “B”, and “D” respectively.

Summary

This chapter provided a description of and rationale for the method of inquiry chosen for this thesis research study. An overview of the philosophical stance was conferred with the purpose of reinforcing the researcher’s choice of an interpretivist paradigm based on the assumptions and postures of the phenomenon being studied; leadership in higher education. For this reason, it was compelling to employ an interpretivist stance along with a qualitative case-study methodology to understand how leaders in higher education perceive their individual experiences.

Further, this chapter also discussed the sample and selection of participants as well as a comparative overview on the data collection of interviewing as a research method. The significance of ensuring validity and trustworthiness of the data collected was presented because of its importance when working within an interpretivist paradigm. Finally, ethical considerations were explained to ensure that this research study respected human subjects and their dignity.

Chapter 4

Findings

“Before you are a leader, success is all about growing yourself. When you become a leader, success is all about growing others”. (Jack Welch)

Introduction

In this chapter, I sought to explore how university department chairs perceive leadership in higher education as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery. In total, four individuals from three different universities were interviewed for this study. The respondent group in this study consisted of three females and one male. The individuals that were interviewed either held the position of chair, coordinator, director, or associate dean at their respective university. Given the novelty of research associated with leadership in online curriculum delivery, the above-mentioned positions were indicated by the participants in this study to be comparable to that of a traditional university department chair. As the interview transcriptions were considered, analyzed, and reflected upon, leadership perceptions of the interviewees resulted in eight initial emergent themes: (a) context and setting, (b) leadership, (c) vision, (d) ethics and personal leadership values, (e) motivation, (f) culture and individual consideration, (g) leadership preparation, and (h) challenges and tensions.

Context and Setting

In describing the leadership perceptions of chairs, coordinators, directors, and associate deans, it is imperative to understand the context in which they were exhibiting leadership. The four participants, Doug, Donna, Jenni, and Pam (*pseudonyms*) varied in their educational background and leadership experience. Pam is a coordinator of the Higher Education Leadership program at University A. Doug is the director of the Higher Education Leadership Program at University A. Donna is the Director and Chair of the MBA and DBA programs at University B. At University C, Jenni occupies the position of Associate Dean in a recently and newly created faculty structure. Collectively, all participants in this study occupy leadership positions in a Western Canadian University setting while maintaining scholarly research activity. Furthermore, the four participants were differentiated based on their area of curriculum and programming responsibility. Each participant, for example, was responsible for

providing leadership in different levels of graduate and doctoral specialization, such as MEd, PhD, MBA, and / or DBA.

In order to provide a quick overview of the participants and their respective contexts in this study, please refer to *Table 3* below.

Table 3

Summary of Interview Participants

Participant Name	Academic Credentials	Position	Instructional Mode	Program Specialization	Years in Position
Doug	BA in English Romance Literature, BEd after degree in English Literature, MEd in Adult Community and Higher Education, PhD in Post Secondary Policy Studies	Director	Face-to-Face (FTF), Blended, and Fully Online	PhD Higher Education Leadership	Four
Donna	Undergraduate, Graduate, and PhD in Organizational Psychology	Chair / Director	Blended	Executive Masters in Business Administration (MBA) and Doctorate in Business Administration (DBA)	One
Jenni	Bachelor of General Studies and a Master of Arts, Certified Accountant, PhD Candidate	Associate Dean	Face-to-Face (FTF) and Blended	BCom in Entrepreneurial Management and Masters in Business Administration (MBA)	One
Pam	BA, MA Developmental Psychology, EdD in Higher Education	Coordinator	Face-to-Face (FTF), Blended, and Fully Online	MEd, MA, EdD, PhD Higher Education Leadership	Three

All participants reported being responsible for varying forms of instructional delivery such as: face-to-face, blended, and / or fully online environments. Moreover, the type of online technologies employed at each University differed. Learning management systems, for instance, included Blackboard, Moodle, and Lotus Notes. Asynchronous supportive technologies included the use of videoconferencing as well as Elluminate.

All respondents indicated that the leaders and tenured faculty were located physically within the same building. Further, some leaders in this study reported being responsible for having to work with faculty off-campus, “*virtually*” through means of

sessional contracts. The following findings outline the contexts in which each of these leaders worked.

Pam. At University A, Pam is both “a professor and coordinator of the Higher Education Leadership Specialization...[and has] been in this position since 2006” (June 22, 2009, p. 1). Pam’s educational background includes a BA and MA in Developmental Psychology and an EdD in Higher Education. In providing an overview of her area, Pam stated that “there are three divisions... division of teacher preparation, the division of applied psychology and then the division that [she] is part of... the graduate division of educational research... [which] is responsible for all the graduate programs for the Faculty of Education” (June 22, 2009, p. 2). In particular, Pam oversees the Higher Education Leadership specialization that confers degrees in both campus face-to-face and online offerings of masters and doctoral levels of programming as well as graduate diploma and certificate programming.

In comparing and contrasting online versus face-to-face modes of delivery, Pam said “there isn’t much difference from online or face-to-face. The biggest challenge... is orienting the students who were online learners” (June 22, 2009, p. 2). Pam contrasted her online curriculum experience with a traditional face-to-face setting by stating the following:

I think their experiences are fundamentally different in that there is a cohort of them who study at the same point where as on campus students tend to be more individualistic. The online people come to campus in the summer for two weeks for each of two summers and many of them live in residence, they come from all over the world and so they do develop a sense of camaraderie. (June 22, 2009, p. 3)

Regarding the context of online curriculum delivery at University A, Pam stated that “the doctoral program is now more blended... all graduate courses have some component of online so even the face to face ones would have online components... [however the] MED is online only” (June 22, 2009, p. 3).

Doug. At University A, Doug is the Director of the Higher Education Leadership Program, which is an online doctoral program, and he has been in this position since July of 2005. Further, he indicated that he sits on the Graduate Division “committee, where the various other chairs responsible for each of the programs sit and then [they] have

meetings to coordinate curriculum, programs, resources amongst the various divisions” (May 20, 2009, p. 2). In addition, Doug’s role involves scholarly research as well as performing duties of as assistant professor in the specialization of Higher Education. Doug’s educational background includes a BA in English Romance Literature, BEd after degree in English Literature, Masters Degree in Adult Community and Higher Education, and a PhD in Post Secondary Policy Studies.

Furthermore, Doug reported that all faculty are physically located at [University A]. Doug went on to say:

Although one of the realities is that because we’re all working in a online environment many of us tend to work at home... as long as we have internet access we can basically get all our work done other than you know meetings that we have to attend to. And so that creates an interesting dynamic where you have a lot of faculty who do work at home and so that building [of] culture [and] community and creating a learning environment when people are sitting at their home office creates a different kind of work environment. And so we try to be aware of that and to try and have opportunities to bring people, bring faculty back to the campus and to be engaged in positive experiences while they’re here. (May 20, 2009, p. 11)

Upon further elaboration, Doug articulated that there are some fundamental differences when comparing face-to-face and online modes of educational delivery. According to Doug:

one of the realities that come forward with offering an online program is the support infrastructure that has to be in place for both, acquiring new students into the program, making contacts with them, handling all their registration which all has to be done at a distance. And then, the support infrastructures that have to be in place in terms of dealing with technological issues. We have a much larger support staff that’s in place to handle all the various student issues and as well the technical issues... mainly Blackboard and Elluminate... that go along with making sure that those resources are in place to support both faculty and students. There’s those complexities of running an online program that you don’t have in a face to face program... So they don’t have any of that need for that strong support staff infrastructure to deal with the realities of administering their program. (May 20, 2009, p. 3)

Donna. At University B, Donna’s official job title “is the MBA Program Director/Chair and Chair of the Graduate Management Programs Council... [and she has] been in this specific position for one year” (May 22, 2009, p. 1). Donna’s educational background includes “a PhD in Organizational Sociology” as well as graduate and

undergraduate degrees. However, Donna professed that “the combination of experience and education has to be there in order to deal with [and] deliver the program” (May 22, 2009, p. 2). Upon further elaboration Donna perceived that her educational background is only part of the qualifications required to perform her job, in addition she stated: “I also have extensive work experience in private and public sectors... [that allow me] to come prepared to speak, to teach, to do research, [and] to develop programming” (May 22, 2009, p. 2).

At University B, Donna is responsible for graduate level program in business education, specifically The Centre for Innovative Management, which offers a Masters of Business Administration (MBA) and a Doctorate in Business Administration (DBA). The Centre specializes in curriculum offerings “like project management, leadership and change management, and energy and sustainable development” (May 22, 2009, p. 6). In providing a general overview of her department, Donna averred:

we’re so different in the online world. We have a small core faculty of 12 academics or senior academics. Predominantly delivering masters level program[ming] but we also have a cadre of 50 contracted academics that work for other universities who do work for us as academic coaches, professors that we call academic coaches... And this allows us to ramp up and down depending on [demand] (p. 2)... [faculty] bring... doctoral level qualifications as well as the experience married together... [and] this is how academic knowledge is created for the program we deliver. (May 22, 2009, p. 3)

Further, the Centre for Innovative Management at University B is “a cost-recovery unit... set up as an entrepreneurial unit to create and deliver an MBA program without [any] government funding... [whereby they] have to create the revenue to support the system” (May 22, 2009, p. 3). In addition to having their own help desk, production and instructional design staff, Donna further indicated they have their “own marketing department... [that] go out and sell and promote and encourage intake and so on” (May 22, 2009, p. 3). Although the Centre for Innovative Management is a “self-contained business unit” (May 22, 2009, p.3), Donna explained that the work environment operates as a distributed model. In particular, the support staff and the core faculty are located in a traditional face-to-face university department; however, they also have contracted “faculty working out of Calgary, British Columbia, Saskatchewan, Europe and wherever” (May 22, 2009, p. 4).

With respect to the mode of online curriculum delivery, Donna said “about 90% [of the curriculum] is online. There is one residency requirement and even that requirement is a blended option for this program” (May 22, 2009, p. 5). According to Donna, they use the Lotus Notes platform as the online learning management system for curriculum delivery.

Jenni. At University C, Jenni stated that the university has recently created “a new faculty structure”. That being said, Jenni’s official job title is “the Associate Dean in the Faculty of Management Internal... [as well as] School Director for the School of Business” (June 4, 2009, p. 1). Jenni first occupied the position of Associate Dean in April 2008. Jenni’s educational background includes a teaching certificate from the United Kingdom, Bachelors of General Studies and a Masters of Arts, Certified General Accountant; as well, she is “currently studying for a PhD” (June 4, 2009, p. 2).

The organizational structure of the “Faculty Management” at University C reflects that of a school. At the top, there is a Dean, followed by “two Associate Deans [and] three program managers” (June 4, 2009, p. 2). Upon further elaboration, Jenni reported that the program managers are equivalent to an APO (Administrative Professional Officer) and the Associate Deans are equivalent to the traditional position of a University Chair. Jenni went on to say:

Within that, we have twelve core faculty and, core faculty are full time faculty members, I’m not sure how else you would say it. And then we have fifty plus associate faculty members, it fluctuates fifty to a hundred at any given time and those associate faculty members are external, they are on contract [and] come in on a as needed basis to teach courses. So core faculty have a different role than associate faculty. Core faculty have teaching commitments, they have service responsibilities and they also have research as part of their work plan. (June 4, 2009, p. 2)

In describing the mode of curriculum delivery, Jenni said:

we actually have face to face courses. So, we have full-time on campus courses in addition to the online courses that we run. The online programs all have a face to face component so our faculty will teach in both areas... in the classroom, on campus... [and] online or in a blended environment. (June 4, 2009, p. 2)

In brief, the Faculty of Management at University C offers two different programs, a Bachelor of Commerce in Entrepreneurial Management (BCom) and a Master of Business Administration (MBA). Further, each program proffers a different type of

technology-based paradigm. The BCom, for instance, is “purely on campus although [the students] use online tools for those courses, so they will have access to Moodle” (June 4, 2009, p. 3). In comparison, the MBA program is a purely “blended model [in] which [the students] come to residency, they leave residency and go online, they come back into residency, they go back online, they go back into residency and finally, they go off and do their final project” (June 4, 2009, p. 3). In particular, students in the MBA program interact with curriculum that is of the blended nature, such that, they are accessing Moodle as a means of augmenting their course materials during their face-to-face pending residency, then, they go online and complete “courses that are 100% [online]... through the Moodle platform” (June 4, 2009, p. 3).

In comparing a face-to-face and online environment, Jenni had this to say:

I believe we're different probably than the... [traditional] face-to-face University. We have a lot more flexibility I believe, and we don't have to be in the classroom at a particular time so it allows people to work from home perhaps more than they would in a normal University and again the associate faculty structure creates an environment where we have people who can have a full time job and they will go online for the evenings and weekends to do their instruction. (June 4, 2009, p. 4)

Further, Jenni stated they “have a cohort-based model... so students don't come and just take one course... [and] it creates a very strong bond between students... [as] we use a lot of teamwork” (June 4, 2009, p. 5). In comparison to a single-modality University, Jenni posited “there's a technique to teaching the team... we don't lecture as much as the traditional universities... it's a different skill set from somebody who stands in front of the classroom lecturing” (June 4, 2009, p. 5). One of the most salient differences, according to Jenni,

is making sure that faculty members feel as though they are safe and [have a place] to go if they have a question. If you're working on campus you have the coffee room or you have the lunchroom, you have the water cooler. When you're in online, you don't have those things, so that opportunity for the casual part of conversations... doesn't take place. (June 4, 2009, p. 7)

Leadership

This section reflects a thematic grouping. In particular, the findings were grouped based on perceptions of (a) leadership definitions; (b) leadership characteristics; (c) effective leadership; and (d) ineffective leadership. Responses from participants

indicated varying perceptions on their definition of leadership. Further, participants shared some similarities and differences in their description of the characteristics that an effective leader should have as well as when leadership is considered effective and ineffective.

Leadership definitions. In defining leadership, Pam reported a number of components or constructs that she rolled into one definition. In her words, Pam defined leadership as:

looking at organizational results, values are evident through their actions, consistently achieves results in partnerships with others, makes tough decisions... The ability to motivate others, to meet the goals of the organization and the needs of their clients through the development of their staff who they lead and inspire. (June 22, 2009, p. 3)

One of the challenges in defining leadership, according to Doug, “is that there’s so many definitions... and spectrums... out there, of what leadership is” (May 20, 2009, p. 3). That being said, Doug referenced the literature on leadership and said:

is it a body of characteristics that if you learn these characteristics, if you learn these skills, you can become an effective leader. Or, is it more of a social psychological thing, where it’s an innate thing that somebody’s just naturally born to be a leader and then exudes those qualities. [However], I think it’s a blending of those things, but I think one of the really important concepts that I’ve come to understand about leadership is that it really takes an articulate person to be a leader. It’s somebody that has to be read and be educated in what it means to be a leader. So, I think education plays a really key role in terms of understanding the variety of leadership theories that are available. (May 20, 2009, p. 4)

In his critique of leadership definitions, Doug proffered that when leaders identify themselves as “a transactional leader... [or] transformational leader... or manager leader... [you] tend to pigeonhole yourself into one approach of leadership and hinder yourself from being a more flexible leader because different contexts and different situations demand a different kind of leadership” (May 20, 2009, p. 4). Based upon this claim, Doug explained:

this is why I think that the educated leader who is aware of educational theory and literature can have a larger repertoire of leadership practices, knowledge’s, theories, abilities that an individual can apply to a variety of contexts... And by understanding that spectrum of leadership theory, they can choose the one that’s the most appropriate for that given context and that given situation. (May 20, 2009, p. 4)

For instance, Doug highlighted how certain decisions need to be made more quickly than others and that it may be more conducive to be more of “an authoritarian leader because of the context [and] the demands of the situation” (May 20, 2009, p. 4).

Among the many definitions and theories of leadership, Donna perceived leadership as:

inspiring other people to carve a path, to reduce barriers, to support, to encourage, to coach, to collaborate, to see something in everyone and to try to transform... [similar] to transformational and servant leadership to some extent... its about making a difference... being respect worthy, change worthy, trust worthy, people worthy... [and] recognize the opportunities and remove the barriers that can help that person. (May 22, 2009, p. 8)

In defining leadership, Jenni subscribed “to the leadership definition of servant leader, which is somebody who stands behind and supports. People feel that they can achieve the things they want to achieve” (June 4, 2009, p. 4). Unlike an authoritarian leader, Jenni described herself as never being:

someone who stands up and say follow me, follow me, [instead she] prefer[s] to let people identify the things that they want to do and try to support them as they’re doing them. Somebody that would guide them as they’re going through the process and will help contribute by ways of making things happen that they want to have happen. (June 4, 2009, p. 4)

Leadership characteristics. Given the context in this study, Pam identified the following characteristics of an effective leader: (a) motivation, “the notion of motivation and motivating others to meet the goals of the organization”; (b) respect, “respecting the needs of those learners are especially relative to on-campus learners or any learners and the fiscal realities of how you go about that”; (c) transparency, “leaders are learning at the same time as they are leading, so I think that kind of transparency is very valuable”; (d) goal-oriented, “have a goal in mind, whatever that goal is. The goal for the organization, the goal for how the organization fits within the context of the institution and the culture”; (e) anticipation, “leaders can’t just be leading in the now, leaders actually have to anticipate what the future needs are going to be” (June 22, 2009, p. 4). Elaborating on the notion of anticipation, Pam went on to say:

leaders have to actually see out several terms so that you can see what are the technology things that are going to be needed, what are the content issues, what’s

the organizational context to which I'm operating, how are budget cuts going to be effecting us do we have enough staff to be able to do it. (June 22, 2009, p. 4)

In pinpointing characteristics that an effective leader should have, Doug mentioned that they have "to understand relational models of governance... you have to understand relationships, how people interact, how people get along. So, I think that is really important" (May 20, 2009, p. 4). In particular, Doug identified three important characteristics: (a) relationships, "we've gone from scientific management theory under [the] Fredrick Taylor model... into the more human resources approach where people understand the humanness of workers... as a more complete individual"; (b) awareness of power and politics; and (c) organizational learning, "somebody who understands the concept of learning... and [is] aware of how learning can really be used as a creative [and] stabilizing force within a particular given work environment" (May 20, 2009, p. 5). Upon probing for clarification on the "awareness of power and politics", Doug went on to say the following:

There is always going to be power and politics that exist in any work environment and... an effective leader is somebody who understands how power and politics can influence and both impact in positive and negative ways with the work that goes on in a particular environment. (May 20, 2009, p. 5)

Some of the characteristics that an effective leader should possess in online curriculum delivery, according to Donna, include being "open-minded, able to create and execute a vision... collaborative and courageous... authentic and real... [and] able to figure out the balance" (May 22, 2009, pp. 8 - 9). In addition, Donna referenced the cliché of "walking the talk" and the importance of integrity. In her words, Donna said "you have to do what you say you're going to do and you have to stand up when it is hard to do and say the hard thing... instead of letting the very politics influence [you]" (May 22, 2009).

In identifying the characteristics that an effective leader should have, Jenni suggested that they need to do the following:

empower people to do the things that they want to do... accept responsibility [when] there are challenges they are faced with,... be enthusiastic... communicate clearly... be support[ive] and collaborative... a clear thinker... [and] look forward... [and] put things on the table for other people to do their part. (June 4, 2009, p. 4)

Effective leadership. In her perception, Pam considered her leadership to be effective when there is a sense of balance through partnerships with others, which, in turn, “brings out the best in the staff that work with the leader but also achieves the goals that the organization sets for itself and that are set for it within a University” (June 22, 2009). In her view, Donna discerned leadership to be considered effective when leaders “remove barriers and inspire faculty to buy into a vision of the future” (May 22, 2009, p. 26), which in turn creates engagement so faculty are working at their highest capacity. According to Jenni, she perceived leadership to be effective when there is a high amount of trust. Jenni further explained that trust could be seen when faculty have confidence “to express concerns and discuss things that are challenging... I see people who are unafraid to talk to each other and talk to me and anybody else in the faculty, I think achieves our goal of [effective leadership]” (June, 4, 2009, p. 13).

When asked about his perceptions of effective leadership, Doug proffered that there are a couple of different elements. One element is “when workers are doing what they’re doing, what they’re supposed to do... the leader has set the direction, set the course and you know the faculty members are meeting their responsibilities” (May 20, 2009, p. 21). Another element is when “creative things are happening within the institution and within your division or department... It’s when you see progress, when you see advancement, when you see things happening and it doesn’t always have to be at the quantitative measurable level” (May 20, 2009, p. 21). Creative examples include, course content changing and evolving, matching the needs of the environment and how the content is being taught, curriculum changes, new programs are being developed or existing programs are being refreshed and updated to meet the needs of the feedback (May 20, 2009, p. 21). Conversely, qualitative measures can be used to perceive leadership as being effective. For instance, knowing when:

people feel happy and satisfied with the environment they’re in... [and when] people are talking positively about their working environment, they’re talking positively about the opportunities they engage in... you get the sense that people are excited about the work that they’re involved with... I think those are ways that leadership can be effective. (May 20, 2009, p. 21)

Ineffective leadership. In contrast, Pam suggested leadership is considered ineffective when leaders become more myopic, and “their ego allows [them] to see that

there is only one way of doing things and that they cannot learn [from other faculty] and they feel they are the final version” (June 22, 2009, p. 22). In his assessment, Doug professed leadership is ineffective when leaders become stagnant and they revert to the proverbial phrase, “if it ain’t broke, don’t fix it... [and] when people are saying we’ve done it for twenty years... so don’t try to change things... all your doing is standing still, there’s no leadership going on there” (May 20, 2009, p. 21). Donna declared leadership ineffective when leaders limit, control, and make assumptions by using “stereotypes to pigeon-hole people and say that they can’t do anything else, when it’s just their perception of that individual [and] they see the glass as half empty... it hurts innovative cultures and it really makes people annoyed” (May 22, 2009, p. 14). Similarly, Jenni perceived leadership to be ineffective when “its much about how people judge each other without really getting down to the other person’s perspective and understand where that person is coming from” (June 4, 2009, p. 16). Further, Jenni elucidated that leadership can be measured as ineffective when “sharing isn’t happening, it probably speaks to a lack of trust and for lack of trust leadership is considered ineffective” (June 4, 2009, p. 16).

Vision

In order for people to support radical change, they need to have a compelling vision of a better and more attractive future so they can justify the necessary sacrifices required (Yukl, 2006). Pam declared that she brings faculty together to work towards a common vision in a couple different ways. The first way she indicated this is accomplished is through specialization meetings and collaboration whereby she brings faculty together and “connects with the other specialization coordinators and faculty members who teach courses within the program that aren’t in Higher Education Leadership” (June 22, 2009). When probed about the medium of communication if it is face-to-face or through online technologies, Pam indicated:

I bring them together in face-to-face meetings and I find that actually that’s more powerful because one of the challenges of teaching in a online program is that people sometimes don’t go to the office so because they teach from home or they teach from wherever... [and] part of the challenge is, it’s hard to get [an] educational community of online faculty [together]. So I set a face-to-face meeting and usually involve food and they like cookies so bringing food helps. (June 22, 2009, p. 7)

Second, is the importance of building relationships and trust to achieve a common vision, Pam said the following:

I can do it better face to face because you can actually see the connection with each person and there is a different feel, there's a visceralness to it and you can't give your cookies online... it's really a sense of community and things always happen that we couldn't anticipate. We've also invited visitors to come and meet with us, other specialization coordinators or the Associate Dean or the Dean so that we can get a vision of where we fit into the whole organization of the graduate division. (June 22, 2009, p. 8)

Ironically, Pam stated that “technology... felt colder to [her] and education isn't about that and [she] couldn't see how we could use [technology] to build relationships [but admitted] the educational technology people are doing lots of things better” (June 22, 2009, p. 8). Third, carefully crafted meeting agendas with her own specialization are instrumental in establishing vision. Agenda topics include: strategic business planning, cost benefits of the program, the need to blend with another program, needs analysis to determine if there are courses leaders need now, and sequence of the content and linkages among the courses that were revealed as part of the vision planning process. As Pam denoted, it is “key to make the ‘*Lego Links*’ between the courses so the students see this as a program and not as a series of courses” (June 22, 2009, p. 7).

With respect to bringing faculty together to work towards a common vision, Doug revealed there are a few elements that go into creating a common vision. One of the first elements, according to Doug, involves getting “faculty together [and] talk about what are our needs, where do we see ourselves going... and create a vision for what is happening” (May 20, 2009, p. 7). Then, the next element involves creating a new culture.

Elaborating on this, Doug proffered that he then attempts to create a “new culture for this vision, because things have to operate in a different way... this culture says OK, this is how we're gonna operate in the future” (May 20, 2009, p. 7). Following this, Doug suggested it is imperative to share information that is accurate and truthful, because:

people change behaviors and actions and thoughts when they have accurate and truthful information. The more that you give faculty accurate and truthful information, the more likely they are to change behavior, to change thought, to change action... so that, they can have that information to make their own decisions about how it works. (May 20, 2009, p. 7)

One of the challenges in online curriculum delivery, “as you embark on this new vision [is that] people often forget the concept of infrastructure and you have to build a new infrastructure” (May 20, 2009, p. 7). Interestingly, Doug reported that this new technological infrastructure of delivering online curriculum interacts and “butts up against vision and culture” (May 20, 2009, p. 7) within a traditional university bureaucratic structure. When probed for further reflection on the relationship between infrastructure and vision, Doug went on to explain:

you have to make sure that you link those three things together... vision, culture and infrastructure to create a consistent picture. Then you can help faculty to move towards a common vision of what needs to happen in a particular program or division. (May 20, 2009, p. 7)

In bringing faculty together to work towards a common vision, Donna shared a collage of ideas. The avenues used to execute a common vision included: (a) periodic face-to-face meetings; (b) annual coaches conference where faculty, which includes core and contract faculty, are brought together to talk about vision building; (c) monthly core faculty meetings; (d) central operations group meetings which is comprised of core faculty and operational management; (e) annual curriculum-building meetings where core faculty meet to renew, reinvent, and update curriculum; and (f) orienting new faculty. In working together toward a common vision, Donna attributes the strength of the orientation process as an instrumental part of the vision-building process. Donna had this to say about the orientation process:

we have an extensive orientation program for people that we recruit as coaching faculty... we have CVs, we have evidence of their publication, we have letters of reference from colleagues and then we decide whether or not to bring them in and give them a shot. We'll bring them in for a full day orientation where we outline our learning method; we give them a really keen sense of how we work. We then partner them so that they can shadow a course to see how the coaching is, how it plays out within a course. And then we'll put them in their own first group to coach and we'll mentor them closely as they work their way through... Even at that point some people don't work out because this isn't for everyone, not everyone can cope with online, they need to be the sage on the stage or whatever. It's just not for everyone. So we are very careful about who we put in front of our students and we really prepare them stringently and the values come out in terms of excellence and quality and expectations... by the time you get to the faculty staff meetings... people know each other pretty well and they know what the expectations are. (May 22, 2009, p. 15)

When probed about the technological medium of communication when meeting, Donna declared in order of preference and frequency (a) face-to-face, (b) teleconference, and (c) videoconference. With the various avenues used to build a common vision, Donna proffered it is important to keep in mind that the numerous discussions create a living document where the strategy and vision are part of an iterative process, so “you adjust as you go along” (May 22, 2009, p. 14).

When it comes to bringing faculty together to work towards a common vision at University C, Jenni indicated “there’s two different pieces to this puzzle” (June 4, 2009, p. 7). In this case, the Dean is primarily responsible for core faculty and the Associate Dean is responsible for associate faculty; however, the Dean along with the Associate Dean work together to achieve vision setting.

Regarding particular strategies employed to achieve the vision, Jenni went on to describe three strategies, of which, one involves core faculty and two involve associate faculty. There are regular face-to-face meetings held with core faculty on campus where they have collaborative discussions “about technology... [and they] try to make sure that they are involved in the process... [of] a common vision” (June 4, 2009, p. 7). With respect to vision setting, however, “in this context, definitely, core faculty are relied on more” (June 4, 2009, p. 10).

According to Jenni, there are a couple of strategies that she champions in an attempt to engage associate faculty to work towards the vision. Associate faculty are provided the opportunity of “ ‘lunch ‘n learn’ sessions where faculty members can logon if they want to and they can engage in a different type of meeting, so if they’re not here physically... [they are] here virtually” (June 4, 2009, p. 6). Mentoring is another strategy that is used with associate faculty. Upon probing for further reflection, Jenni described the mentoring process at University C as follows:

connections of core faculty are very key in keeping our associate faculty engaged. So, each core faculty will do special groups in particular areas.... [core faculty] have a number of associate faculty that they work with that teach the courses in their area, so there’s quite a lot of dialogue, phone conversations, emailing, [and] faculty reports. (June 4, 2009, p. 6)

In her words, Jenni stated, “it’s almost a trickle down [effect]... because we’ll have meetings with core faculty, our core faculty will then have discussions with the associate

faculty and the associate faculty are welcome to come into many of the meetings” (June 4, 2009, p. 7).

Relationship building. An important part of vision, is the importance of building relationships. Doug posited that face-to-face meetings versus Skype or Elluminate sessions are an important part of building relationships. According to Doug, it is vital to “talk about that community experience, having opportunities to go down for a coffee or a pop or a juice and just sit and talk about the issues we face. We have to create those opportunities” (May 20, 2009, p. 11). At the same time, Doug also believed that it is important to at least “try that through different online environments. There’s a lot of emailing among faculty when we’re trying to arrange things or talk about particular issues” (May 20, 2009, p. 11).

The importance of building relationships is a key component in the vision building process at University C. In particular, Jenni reported that relationships establish trust, which, in turn, allow her area to work towards achieving their vision. With respect to working with associate and core faculty and relationship building, Jenni had this to say:

I think the core faculty, themselves, actually are key components in building that relationship because it’s often time something that they already are aware of, they already know them or if not in person by reputation. (June 4, 2009, p. 8)

Ethics and Personal Leadership Values

Ethics. Pam reported a few issues pertaining to ethics and leadership. The first issue is related to integrity and the belief that leaders who “*walk the talk*” get better results. Pam confirmed this belief by noting,

if people quickly see if it’s just the talk but not the walking it and because of the dynamic nature of the environment they need to walk the talk in all audiences. So, I’ve seen leaders who say one thing but when they go to the Dean or when the Vice Provost asks or something, then the story changes. So, you think you have a commitment and then away it goes. So yes, some consistency and the walking of the talk does seem important. (June 22, 2009, p. 10)

The second issue, according to Pam, “is truth in advertising. What do we offer, do we actually offer what we say we offer?” (June 22, 2009, p. 9). The third ethical issue she identified involved cost-service ratios. These words from Pam capture the essence of ethics and leadership:

I think some institutions and some faculties see online learning especially since it's sometimes funded differently as a potential revenue source. I don't because you teach larger classes generally than are taught face to face and then how are those funds distributed?... I have some concerns that online students are still paying tuition and yet they don't have access to some of the student services that one would anticipate for on-campus students... [such as] health services and other forms of support. So, the ethical issue is, are we actually using the students to subsidize some of the on-campus students or some of the other programs in the faculty or some of the other services? And that to me is an ethical question. So, how are those funds used and do we select the best students or do we select enough students so they make the money that we need for the program or for the faculty? And I think, actually, those questions are going to become more challenging as the budgets start to dry up a bit more. (June 22, 2009, p. 9)

Doug voiced his concern about leadership and ethics by stating "ethics [is] a growing thing" (May, 20, 2009, p. 8). When probed for further reflection, Doug proclaimed it is imperative to utilize the skills that are available within the faculty, including the support staff. Doug stressed his ethical concern as follows:

As leaders we have a responsibility to push people forward and to challenge them to really utilize the skills and abilities that they have that can be used as a benefit for a particular division. I think when leaders fail to really grab onto utilizing what's available in the faculty and what's available in the support staff, I think you're being ethically unsound in your practice. (Doug, May 20, 2009, p. 9)

As an example, Doug highlighted how some department chairs "sabotage the efforts... [of] a new, young, up and coming faculty member... [and] maybe not give them information they need, maybe not include them in meetings where they could share information" (May 20, 2009, p. 9). In brief, Doug summarized his view on ethics by succinctly stating "I think that's one of the big ethical things, in that, we're not really utilizing the people that are around us... [and] that leaders are inundated with responsibilities of just running the day to day programs" (May 20, 2009, p.9).

With respect to leadership and ethical issues, Donna insisted in "making sure that people who do the work get the credit for it. Instead of having somebody overseeing the unit and taking credit for the peoples' work. I think that is not ethical" (May 22, 2009, p. 15). The other ethical issue, according to Donna, involves "thinking through a decision and doing what you think is right... and explaining your position... even if it's the hard thing [to do]... You have to be real-authentic... [and] whether or not people like you, you have to grow a thick skin" (May 22, 2009, p. 15).

Although there was some hesitation, the only ethical issue pertaining to leadership proclaimed by Jenni:

is making sure that the assignments are made without prejudice so that we're not hiring somebody purely because they're somebody's best friend or they're related to them or they have some side relationship or something, it's trying to make sure that when we assign our faculty and associate faculty to courses that it's done in an open and transparent way. (June 4, 2009, p. 8)

Institutional and personal leadership values. In response to being asked if there are tensions between the institution and her leadership values, Pam revealed that tension(s) exist when she attempts to change things. The wave of change is met by resistance and is succinctly stated as follows:

Why are you always trying to change things? Why don't you leave things alone? Everything is working fine, you are always trying to fix it up. But the reality is, that is what leaders do. You are constantly looking for ways of improving. (June 22, 2009, p. 10)

Conversely, Doug is of the belief that:

there should be a tension between the institution and your leadership values... that tension keeps people on their toes, keeps people thinking, keeps people moving forward, keeps people being creative... I think that's just a natural part of what goes on... as a leader I have values as a person... Because I have that personal element that is going to create tension between demands of the institution and [my] leadership. (May 20, 2009, p. 9, 10)

However, Doug noted that the education literature provides the false impression that:

there shouldn't be tension [and] that things are working well when there is no tension. When we look at the concept of education... [and] leadership, we learn to avoid the concept of conflict... What tends to happen is that we tend to view the site of education as an emotionally neutral location... [and] we get the impression that things are working well when everybody is on the same page. (May 20, 2009, p. 10)

Donna perceived minimal tension between the institution and her own leadership values. In her response, Donna compared the values of University B to the one's she held when she was a graduate student; in particular, as trying "to figure out the wiggle room around the rules" (May 22, 2009, p. 16). Succinctly stated, Donna said:

I love the values [of University B], its about trying to remove barriers to access, to allow people to have access to education... so to me, that fits with who I am... [and this] University is really in tune with the values that I think are important in

terms of education. Making it accessible, valuing diversity of opinion and allowing access across the spectrum. (May 22, 2009, p. 16)

Although Donna's values resonate with those of University B, she admitted to also having "some difficulties with bureaucracy in politics" (May 22, 2009, p. 16).

Jenni identified several tensions between her personal leadership values and University C. In brief, Jenni reported that the tensions pertain to the following: (a) education and pedagogy; (b) cost-recovery and making University C financially viable; (c) responding to market pressures; and (d) resource issues involving money and budgets. An example of tension included not having the resources available, such as an instructor wanting a marker for a course, and being told "sorry but that's not in the budget we can't do that [or] how many field trips we can do or how many dinners we could have for the MBA's" (June 4, 2009, p. 9). Another example, is with University C's mandate, which "is to try and become financially self-sufficient from any government funding. We've always had a financial pressure to encourage us to try and become independent" (June 4, 2009, p. 9).

Motivation

There were several components identified by respondents that supported the thematic notion of motivation, in particular: faculty perceptions, motivation of faculty, creativity, and empowerment.

Faculty perceptions. Although Pam believed that her faculty is pleased with her leadership style, she did profess her approach to be anomalous of university tradition by stating: "my world view is somewhat different, so I'm sometimes perceived as annoying and disrespectful of the academic tradition... [and] I'm less concerned about the preserving of those organizational silos" (June 22, 2009, p. 10). In an attempt to measure the perceptions held by faculty of her leadership, Donna has heard from faculty that she is collaborative, inclusive, a good listener, apologetic, and willing to accept responsibility for the errors that she makes.

In gauging the perceptions held by faculty of his leadership, Doug referred to leadership theory and said "I think it falls into the relational mode. I'm very big into building positive relationships... I think they would look at me as somebody who tries to be aware of who they are as a person" (May 20, 2009, p. 10). Examples of Doug's

relational mode of leadership include: “trying to operate on the boundaries of kindness... treating people with respect... talk[ing] to [faculty] about their family life, their work life, things that they are working on, things they are excited about, things they are frustrated with” (May 20, 2009, p. 10). In referencing Malcom Knowles and adult learning theory, Doug indicated that he tries “to look at what are the needs of the people that [he] works with and what can [they] do [together] to create an environment that will meet the needs that they have” (May 20, 2009, p. 10).

Motivation of faculty. In motivating faculty, Pam identified four key elements: (a) partly through meetings; (b) celebrating the success of students is a collective with faculty; (c) communicating and partnering with others, such as the specialization of Educational Technology; and (d) collaboration with faculty on research projects.

Regarding how Doug motivates faculty, he proffered that “you have to have that shared vision, then you can motivate people towards that” (May 20, 2009, p. 12). That said, Doug referred back to the notion of stability, if “faculty had a sense of this is who we are and this is where we’re going... [and] who’s running the show... that really becomes a big motivating force right now for our faculty” (May 20, 2009, p. 12).

The key to motivating faculty, according to Donna, is good dialogue. She said the key is to continually “invite participation and critique... keep talking to them and I invite them to give their feedback. Sometimes I don’t really enjoy some of the feedback but the fact that they feel free... and safe... to complain and tell exactly what they think is positive to me” (May 22, 2009, p. 16).

For Jenni, she firmly believes that in order to motivate faculty, you have “to make sure stakeholders [are involved] in the process... [and] the way the vision is developed has to be shared” (June 4, 2009, p. 10). Getting faculty involved is accomplished by “try[ing] to show them different things, phone them with information about what’s going on, [sending] newsletters, [and] a quarterly update” (June 4, 2009, p. 10). However, motivating associate faculty is a bit more challenging, “because they’re not here all the time” (June 4, 2009, p. 10). Essentially, Jenni proffered it is important to give associate faculty “the power of insight” (June 4, 2009, p. 10). This is accomplished by providing associate faculty with a questionnaire for them to fill out at the end of each course that:

asks them key questions about the types of instruction, what happened in the classroom, what were the things that they think they could change. So, we're trying to get them involved in that process because it's not very motivating for us to say deliver a package and here you go, go teach... If there are changes to be made, how can they be involved in the process. (June 4, 2009, p. 10)

Creativity. In relation to stimulating creativity and new ways of doing things, Pam elucidated that she does it in many ways. Relying on the Internet, Pam belongs to a number of listservs, which, in turn, allow her to ensure that her content is dynamic and “not just text”. In addition, she will source out YouTube content and incorporate as needed. Frequently, Pam solicits feedback and communicates with her cohort and “asks them ‘how’s it going?’ and keeps the communication flow open” (June 22, 2009, p. 12). In her explanation of trying to constantly reshape the context of the course, she stated “it’s just not the content, but maybe, we need to introduce a course here and there because the field of Higher Education is changing. I try to understand the context more and then the courses [will] fit naturally” (June 22, 2009, p. 13).

In an attempt to articulate how he stimulates creativity for new ways of doing things, Doug shared two ideas. First, Doug said “I really try to espouse the principles of the learning organization... [and] we’re into what is classified as the Knowledge Era” (May 20, 2009, p. 12). In terms of inspiring creativity, Doug allows “people to be learners not workers... as people learn about their positions, as people learn about their responsibilities, they will naturally instill creativity to the responsibilities that they have” (May 20, 2009, p. 13). Second, Doug mentioned that he applies the work of Donald Schon’s *‘reflection in action and reflection on action’*.

Reflection in action talks about the concept of being able to think on your toes and make decisions immediately based on the situation you’re in. Reflection on action is learning to step back, think about what’s happened and then use that as a means to make change in the program in the future. (May 20, 2009, p. 13)

Third, Doug subscribes to the concept of self-directed learning. In particular, Doug stated that self-directed learning helps “people to really think about what’s going on around them, making decisions about the problem that I have, how can I solve this problem... Can I do this on my own?” (May 20, 2009, p. 13).

When it comes to stimulating creativity for new ways of doing things, Donna stated it is “the incubation of ideas... you gather and gather and then suddenly it

happens” (May 22, 2009, p. 19). In no particular order, Donna described the following sources of creativity: brainstorming, flashes of insight, talking to people, watching TV, talking to her kids, reading, experimenting, little meditative moments, and in general, “thinking outside the box, always trying something new” (May 22, 2009, p. 19).

Stimulating creativity and “*thinking outside the box*” for Jenni is accomplished in a few different ways. A collaborative impetus is a key ingredient for Jenni which is accomplished by “bringing people together. I think that it’s easy to be creative when there are more people around to bounce ideas off... so I think that’s an important thing, to try and get people together” (June 4, 2009, p. 11). Another means of achieving creativity is through experimentation, “if you see something new happening that you’ve seen somewhere else and you like to try it” (June 4, 2009, p. 11). Lastly, is the importance of sharing. In particular, Jenni announced the sharing of weblinks and journal articles in an attempt to “get those juices flowing so that people have some ideas... [where there is] a sounding board where there [is] something that would shoot them off in different directions” (June 4, 2009, p. 11).

Empowerment. In creating empowerment with her faculty, Pam reported empowerment is imperative to celebrate success. Also, Pam stressed it is equally important to utilize electronic online surveys to “collect feedback from learners [and] communicate that back to the faculty... you don’t get a good feel for what some of the good things that have happened unless somebody asks” (June 22, 2009, p. 13). However, Pam indicated:

that there are some teaching awards in the faculty [but] nobody that’s taught an online course has ever gotten one. They still privilege face-to-face from the rewards structure. So, one of my creative ideas has been to see if I can find a donor who might be able to fund some minor award ... [or] some named award that would be for online instruction... But I think our systems haven’t caught up with the reality. (June 22, 2009, p. 13)

Although educators often think about empowering the learner, Doug stressed “we also have to make sure that we’re creating opportunities to empower the individual worker... the faculty member” (May 20, 2009, p. 13). In brief, Doug attempts to make certain “that people are utilized in a way that they feel that they’re meaningfully contributing to what’s going on in the day to day work and the progress of a particular division or department” (May 20, 2009, p. 13). For example, Doug illustrated how a

faculty member, whose expertise was in student affairs, was recruited to help the Higher Education Leadership program and create a better environment for the students.

Succinctly stated, Doug said he tries “to create an environment of empowerment [by] looking at who’s here, what skills, what knowledge base, what expertise do they have and how can we use that within our program as a means to help it to continue to progress” (May 20, 2009, p. 14).

When it comes to creating an environment of empowerment, Donna had this to say, “we focus on outcomes, we allow people to do their job, we give them what they need and at times... we ask questions to try to mentor them so they’re not so dependent on you” (May 22, 2009, p. 19). An important element in creating a sense of empowerment involves recruiting the right people, “so you’re minimizing the amount of directive tasks that you’re issuing, so you can move them more towards delegation as soon as you can, which is the empowerment piece” (May 22, 2009, p. 20). In brief, Donna creates empowerment by “saying this is the outcome that we want, this is what you’ve got, tell me what you need [and] tell me how I can help you to get what you need so you can go and do this and I don’t want to know every little step” (May 22, 2009, p. 20). The other important element to empowerment, according to Donna, is ensuring faculty are “ask[ed] to collaborate in the decision... and that’s how [they] create empowerment” (May 22, 2009, p. 20).

The keys to empowerment for Jenni include: (a) listening, “provide an open door when people can have an idea, you will listen to it, you’ll help them try and act on it, providing them with the support”; (b) being non-judgmental when someone comes and says they have a great idea “you don’t go and say that sounds lousy, I’m not going to try that... wait until you have given some thought “; and (c) resourcing, being able “to allocate time and look into what they have to say” (June 4, 2009, p. 12).

Culture and Individual Consideration

Intertwined in this theme is culture, individual differences, and developing strengths and potential. Together these elements focus on how faculty and leaders provide support to staff or students, and how their particular needs impact the particular approach to leadership.

Culture. Pam shared that there is the “administrative culture and the academic culture” that influences her leadership (June 22, 2009, p. 15). In brief, Pam stated “the academic culture is pretty rigid and closed and individualistic” (June 22, 2009, p. 23). However, Pam also addressed the concern of ethnic minorities, in particular, the students and how they have influenced her leadership. For instance, Pam described how the culture and location of students in Russia, Kuwait, Japan, Korea, Northwest Territories, and other various places in Canada from the east to west coast have altered her leadership approach. Concomitantly, Pam indicated that the breadth of international and cultural interaction has cultivated rich, academic dialogue concerning notions of North American centrality. In brief, “there is a sense in which North America is the standard to emulate. [Therefore], one of the things [Pam has] been pushing on, is what we can learn from these cultures and [she has] been bringing in some aboriginal discussions” (June 22, 2009, p. 15). In the Northwest Territories, for example, fetal alcohol syndrome “is a real issue that they’re having to grapple with [and] it’s effects... [and] the residential school system” (June 22, 2009, p. 15). Interestingly, Pam declared:

there is an opportunity to do more with online than face-to-face because we’ve got the people in their own contexts... I think education can be a linking force and online learning actually has that potential more than [any] other, but in order to create that sense of community you have to work pretty hard at it. And, actually dig out, so what can we learn from this? So, when I start probing, gee, this feels like bringing the North American values to Russia who’s to say that they are the best, what can we learn from Russia? (Pam, June 22, 2009, p. 15)

In response to how cultural expectations influence his leadership approach, Doug articulated the following:

the work culture is how you get things done, how you have your meetings and how often you have your meetings. The interactions that you have with your colleagues, the opportunities that you have to share information, to share research efforts that are going on, all [those] things build that spirit of culture. (May, 20, 2009, p. 8)

Although there are different cultural expectations, Doug referenced how the “collegial model of governance” influences his leadership approach. Specifically, Doug stated:

the collegial model of governance creates its own culture in terms of how we believe things should happen and operate. Collaboration [and] discourse are two really big elements of the collegial model. People have to talk through things,

everything has to be open and transparent so that people can make the decisions that... need to be made and that they can be involved in the decision making process as well. And so, that creates a really big cultural expectation on how a program should be administered and run that then should influence the way I perceive my leadership approach. (May 20, 2009, p. 14)

In turn, the cultural expectation proffered by the collegial model of governance also “places a lot of... hindrance into it because people expect things to operate in a certain way. When you don’t operate that way that creates conflict between faculty and leadership so you have to be really careful of those things” (May 20, 2009, p. 14). The importance of transparency is one such example. For instance, Doug discussed how there are certain situations when he has to send out an email and say “this was a budgetary decision... It’s nothing that really is impacting you at a personal work level, it’s just a decision that had to be made... [and] I want you to know this is what went on” (May 20, 2009, p. 14).

Cultural expectations are not that much of a factor for how Donna approaches leadership; instead, her view is that “it’s not about culture so much as about emotional intelligence. It’s about trying to figure out who you are dealing with and adjusting to what they need” (May 22, 2009, p. 21). Donna expressed her concern of how the cultural understanding of ethnic minorities impacts her leadership as follows:

[it is] more rooted in trying to figure out who a person is and trying to be a professional, trying to accommodate their differences, trying to work with them... it’s not about culture diversity so much... it’s about being respectful, respect worthy, trust worthy... flexible, open-minded... emotionally intelligent [and] incorporating people... It’s being able to understand where they’re coming from and adjusting to that in a way that you can collaborate and communicate effectively... its being able to adjust your approach depending on what is needed at the time. (May 22, 2009, p. 21)

Similarly, Jenni stated “I’m just not sure what cultural expectations I have or the students have or the faculty... I’m not really sure” (June 4, 2009, p. 12).

Individual differences. In an attempt to establish a supportive climate where individual differences are recognized, Pam opined that “by listening, by learning, by being open to changing my mind... try[ing] to create relationships [by] connect[ing] to another faculty member and another specialization or to a student... [and] creating a shared product... [such as] our research project” (June 22, 2009, p. 16). The supportive

climate also included: “the care and feeding of [Pam’s] graduate program administrator and associate Dean... on a regular basis” (June 22, 2009, p. 16).

This is what Doug had to say about establishing a supportive climate where individual differences are respected, “one of the challenges of working in any environment is [recognizing] the status quo and... the marginalized voice... it’s really important that you’re aware of the marginalized voice and making sure that the status quo is recognized [also]” (May 20, 2009, p. 15). In an attempt to build this supportive climate, Doug said, he tries “to consciously think about: What’s the peripheral voice that’s happening in this particular situation? What are they thinking? Where are they coming from?... and trying to bring it into the discussion that’s happening” (May 20, 2009, p. 15).

Doug also spoke about the importance of recognizing “power and politics” when establishing a supportive climate. In brief, he suggested it is important to determine what is someone’s political agenda and what are they trying to bring forward or what is the decision that needs to be made on a specific issue. In an attempt to build this supportive climate, Doug had this to say:

I know this particular faculty member might come from a different perspective and I might give them an opportunity to talk and say ok, you know we’ve been talking about this issue in this certain way... and so, what are your thoughts on this particular issue, where do you see it coming from. And so to me, that’s how I try to build a supportive climate. (May, 20, 2009, p. 15)

In an attempt to create a supportive climate where individual differences are acknowledged, Donna believes in the idea of accommodation. In her explanation, Donna averred:

some people are more high touch and want to know everything that is going on. And so you try and help them understand and give them what they need. Other people want to be left alone and you try to give them what they need. I mean it just it varies each person, each day. (May 22, 2009, p. 21)

The other strategy involves the notion of reciprocity, such that, Donna believes if you allow faculty the “time to talk to them, to listen to their issues, then they’re more likely to give that to you when you need it” (May 22, 2009). Reliance on “self-talk” is another strategy that Donna utilizes to reflect on how her leadership behavior could be interpreted or perceived differently by different people. In brief, it’s learning “how to know when to

talk and when not to... [and] about understanding how you react in certain situations and what your hot buttons are” (May 22, 2009, p. 22).

Jenni attempts to respect individual differences and build a supportive climate by “bringing people together... [and] getting to know each other... I think there [are] a lot of challenges around people being a one off... and just wanting to go on their own and file along and do their own work” (June 4, 2009, p. 13). As a solution, Jenni posited:

it is important to have people around the table discussing things, talking about the challenges they’ve had, talking about great things that happened, things that they may have created a solution to... as opposed to people going off on their own, trying to deal with things alone. (June 4, 2009, p. 13)

Jenni also believed that individual differences can be respected through “general awareness, emotional intelligence and watching people react to what we say and not judging them for it... [and] allow people their own voice and listen to them when they tell you something” (June 4, 2009, p. 13).

Developing strengths and potential. In assisting with the development of faculty strengths and potential, Pam indicated five strategies. First, leaders need to seek clarification by finding “ways of asking faculty what would help them, whether it is online or face-to-face, what do they need and then clarify, what would help you do that?” (June 22, 2009, p. 17). Second, Pam stressed the importance of stimulating relational dialogue. In particular, she tries to “encourage [faculty] to connect with others because teaching is a relational activity whereas research is an individual activity for the most part, and many faculty are socialized to be individualistic” (June 22, 2009, p. 17). Collaboration is the third strategy where Pam “ask[s] colleagues from other specializations if there is anything [her area] can do to support the overall program” (June 22, 2009, p. 17). As a fourth strategy, Pam subscribes to the act of modeling “by taking courses on Blackboard regularly or Elluminate ... [and collaborating] with the educational technology specialization” (June 22, 2009, p. 17). The fifth strategy is the creation of an online resource guide “for new faculty because [Pam] felt an online resource guide would be beneficial for them as it links to all kinds of other faculty resources” (June 22, 2009, p. 18).

When it comes to assisting faculty in developing their strengths and potential, Doug had this to say:

By providing them opportunities to handle leadership, take charge and to have responsibility over certain programs and efforts that are happening. And it doesn't mean that it has to happen with everything but at certain times where their strengths and potentials are valuable to a particular initiative, you need to allow them to come forward... from a leadership perspective it's worth the effort and time to bring faculty in to utilize what they have to offer to a particular program, initiative committee, whatever the case may be. (May 20, 2009, p. 16)

In addition, Doug also described the importance of resources, specifically time and financial resources, along with the framework that impacts his leadership. For example, if there is an initiative that has to be implemented within two months, that's the "framework that you operate in and you can make appropriate and relative decisions based upon that framework" (May 20, 2009, p. 16). In contrast, Doug's concern becomes clear in the following quotation:

if resources are limited in terms of [time] and finances, then sometimes it's actually more important to bring extra people into the process because you have more people thinking and you can be creative... [in terms] of the financial resources that you have available to embark on a new initiative. (May 20, 2009, p. 17)

Professional development, according to Doug, "is a dying entity... faculty are learning to recognize what their disorienting dilemmas are and then are seeking out education mostly through informal means to come to terms with that disorienting dilemma that they have" (May 20, 2009, p. 18).

For Jenni, the most important element in assisting faculty to develop their strengths and potential, involves creating opportunities. Similarly, Donna believed in creating opportunities to assist faculty to develop their strengths and potential, such as: "I listen, I ask for their points of view, I encourage participation... I make recommendations and suggestions, I critique and support them, I go to bat for them if need be... [and argue on their behalf]" (May 22, 2009, p. 22). In addition, Donna firmly believes in modeling solid leadership as an example for her faculty. Donna suggested it is important to:

model the behavior because you're being authentic, because you are doing the difficult thing even though you could get hammered for it, you're having the courage to do that... and you're standing up and saying this isn't right... and here is why... When it's easier to be quiet because you won't get beaten up that way... You're modeling for them the authentic leader, whether or not they agree with you is a whole different thing. (May 22, 2009, p. 23)

Further, University B provides professional development; in particular, there is a professional development fund available that people can use to also develop their strengths and potential. According to Jenni, University C provides core faculty with the opportunity to access a professional development fund for their own special development initiative; however, associate faculty are unable to access the fund. In addition, Jenni encourages all faculty to take advantage of the training, such as “new tools coming on board they can go and play [with], that is available at [University C]” (June 4, 2009, p. 15).

Leadership Preparation

Leadership preparation speaks to the issue on how the participants were prepared prior to assuming their leadership positions. Further, participants did share factors attributed to their current leadership approach as well as existing support and support that is required to prepare and nurture leadership development.

When asked about leadership preparation for her current leadership position, Pam had this to say:

No, they assume you come fully prepared(p. 20)... the majority of people in these roles have never had any courses, experiences or anything in leadership. When you get to be a department chair it is usually because you've got the short end of the straw and everybody has to take their turn. (June 22, 2009, p. 24)

Although leadership preparation would be beneficial, Pam stressed “nothing can prepare you for the leadership culture [in this context] because first of all, it's not going to be the same year to year, but also, nothing is going to prepare you for the new context... [such as] the importance of politics” (June 22, 2009, p. 20). In expressing her concern for leadership preparation, Pam further opined that the majority of peoples doing these jobs “have to rely on the [support] staff. It's a parallel to the government system with the bureaucrats and the elected officials” (June, 22, 2009, p. 24).

When asked about leadership preparation, Donna indicated that there was not any, only implicit knowledge of the programming area was required. Through Donna's own initiative, she accessed the professional development at University B and undertook leadership preparation by completing a university Management Administration Certificate program. Although it was not mandatory, Donna, proffered “it was beneficial

because it focused not only on leadership but on management and budgeting” (May 22, 2009, p. 25).

Similarly, Jenni declared she did “not really” have any previous leadership training prior to assuming her position as Associate Dean at University C. After a period of reflection, Jenni was only able to recall taking a leadership course, however, it was “one of the components of [her] Master’s degree and... [she did not] know how much [she] learned from that particular one” (June 4, 2009, p. 15).

Factors attributed to leadership approach. In identifying the factors that have contributed to her leadership approach, Pam stated the following: (a) modeling and experience “with both good leaders and bad leaders”; (b) financial challenges; (c) challenges with staff and faculty; (d) professional development courses on institutional excellence at Harvard; (e) experience of the learner and focusing “on the experience of the learner, then as a leader, my values will come through and I will do what I need to do to support and enhance the experience of the learner”; (f) incentives provided by senior administration; and (g) leadership relay. Upon probing of the leadership relay, the following quotation expresses what Pam meant:

[While] one person focuses on process, the next person focuses a lot on task and then the next person will have to focus on process and then you go back and forth in task, process, and task... It’s our traditional male hierarchy [that] focuses on task and then they bring in a woman and they are going to focus on the process and deal with some of the process issues and then they can bring in a male but it goes back and forth. (June 22, 2009, p. 19)

In brief, the biggest factor for Pam is that “you need to learn the flexibility of mind, probably to adapt to whatever the environment[al] situation is, whether it’s the organizational context or the content area” (June 22, 2009, p. 20).

Upon reflection of his leadership approach, in particular, the factors that have contributed, Doug had this to say, “my leadership approach has been developed through a solid and sound awareness of the literature related to leadership and has evolved through continuous discussion with the students that I’m engaged with in our Higher Education doctoral program” (May 20, 2009, p. 18).

There are two primary factors that have contributed to Jenni's particular leadership approach: (a) experience through observation and (b) gender. The following quotation succinctly summarizes what Jenni had to say about her leadership approach:

[by] looking at how people have supported you or opposed, created obstructions for you and trying to do the things you like and to avoid the things that you didn't like. I think gender probably has a role to play and to what I've read there seems to be a lot of differences, different leadership styles like gender, I think those two things combined probably influence the way I approach leadership. (June 4, 2009, p. 15)

Leadership incentives and support. In identifying existing incentives and support, Pam, Donna, and Jenni reported being able to access some form of professional development which could be used to further their leadership development. However, Pam stressed the importance of an online resource guide for leaders "which connects them to things like the organizational structure, the resources on the campus community, plagiarism policies, as well as questions on how to complete an annual report and how do I apply for research grants" (June 22, 2009, p. 21). In addition, Jenni indicated there is a coaching program available, so "once every few months [they] are given access [to] free coaching, which is a great, great opportunity" (June 4, 2009, p. 16). She further articulated that there is an annual leadership meet, that allows University middle-line administrators an opportunity to get "together around the table and discuss leadership styles and stuff like that" (June 4, 2009, p. 15).

Required leadership support. In identifying required leadership support, Pam declared two ideas. First, Pam indicated that the faculty reward system needs to be adjusted, so that leadership can be enhanced. In her words, Pam said:

we do a better job orienting and supporting students than we do faculty and the faculty culture is so isolating because the reward system is individualistic. Your annual report indicates a number of peer reviewed papers but not what you did to create community within your faculty or to develop as a leader in your own faculty, it's a very individualistically focused system. (June 22, 2009, p. 21)

Second, Pam offered an interesting insight into the intrinsic awareness within each leader and the need to constantly evolve. Pam's explanation becomes clear in the following quotation:

as a leader I have to believe that I'm not finished yet like I'm not complete I haven't got it all yet. So, the openness in continuing to learn and wanting to learn

is the key for me. As soon as I think I'm finished then I'm cooked and I see too many leaders who think they've got the formula but the system changes and they try to apply the same formula they always did. If we actually adopt the things that technology can teach us and that is just a [Pam] version 3.2 or whatever, there is going to be another version and it might be a whole vista and then I might have to really throw it out and go back to the other one but sure I'm going to make mistakes but if I see myself as a version of the next you know and technology is good about being forgiving that way so you make a mistake. I'm just 3.2 now, there's a few more versions ahead. (June 22, 2009, p. 21)

Similarly, Doug and Donna iterated the importance of being provided with leadership opportunities. Providing people with opportunities is essential to support the enhancement of leadership development, such that, "opportunities [allow faculty] to be involved in what's going on and when people are involved, they develop new skills, new attributes, new abilities" (May 20, 2009, p. 18). Upon further discussion, Doug did elaborate on three areas of support that are needed to enhance leadership skills prior to assuming a director or department chair position in the context of online curriculum delivery. First, future leaders need opportunities and "practice at taking on leadership responsibilities and handling it in ways that they can feel they are contributing [in a] meaningful [way] where the institution or the department, division is going" (May 20, 2009, p. 20). Second, future leaders need to involve themselves in "committee work [because it] is a really good building ground for developing the skills necessary for leaders to be able to handle them" (May 20, 2009, p. 20). The third contentious issue that's of primary importance in developing leaders in this context is related to budgets:

budgets [are] an area that [is] vastly lacking. I think it's not until you actually take a Director, [Chair], or an Associate Dean position that you really start to see money and how to make decisions about money... [being] aware of how budgets work in departments and divisions... I think that would be a really good growth area. (May 20, 2009, p. 21)

Further, one of the key resources that needs to be provided, according to Donna, "is figure out a way to free up time... on top of everything else" (May 22, 2009, p. 25).

Challenges and Tensions

The theme of challenges and tensions in this section is a summation of looking at past, present, and future challenges that participants in this study perceived to be important enough to impact their leadership in this context. Further, the researcher

probed participants to compare and contrast “most important” and “least important” challenges to determine if their particular leadership approach was evolving with time.

Past challenges and tensions. Although there were several challenges in the past, Pam identified three challenges that demanded a lot of her attention when she began as coordinator of her area in 2006. Although there was a fair amount of attention on curriculum and development of the program, Pam indicated there was little “attention given to the experience of the learner in the program” (June 22, 2009, p. 4). The other challenge involved overall management of the program, which becomes clear in the following quotation:

as a faculty we weren’t really ready for the management of a program, we were ready for the education of students but we weren’t ready for the management of a program. That’s not just online, it’s also face-to-face but certainly with online I was seeing this very clearly as impacting the learners. (June 22, 2009, p. 5)

Lastly, Pam indicated that University A did not focus on marketing and what the program would look like; instead “it was a field of dreams model that if we build it and put it on the website that everybody else [would] suddenly notice it was there” (June 22, 2009, p. 5).

According to Doug, the most important past leadership challenge involved dealing with the negative connotations held by external stakeholders who held the perception “you can buy your degree” (May 20, 2009, p. 5). In response to this perception, Doug felt it was important “to create a system of rigor in the design of the program” (May 20, 2009, p. 5). Initially, the external stakeholders believed that the only way to instill rigor was through quantity; “the more classes you offered, the more opportunities you had for engagement with the learners... [and] more rigor would be in the program” (May 20, 2009, p. 5). However, this notion of quantity created tension and “quantity obviously does not equal rigor... [thus Doug] had the challenge to readjust the program into bringing quality... [and] balancing of getting good curriculum but not having so much of a workload that students were getting confused” (May 20, 2009, p. 5).

Upon some reflection, Donna stated the biggest leadership challenge when she first started in her position involved having “to recalibrate the culture so the people will trust again and reengage” (May 22, 2009, p. 9). Donna’s concern about re-calibrating the culture is expressed in greater detail in the follow quotation:

as you add more administrative structures and processes you become more like a traditional unit and its more difficult to cut across. So, we have to figure out a way to have the structures and systems that are working well and make them more efficient. But at the same time still try to figure out how to team with all the other folks to deliver a product. This is an environment of increasing competition where we were alone in the market at one point... As you grow up and become more mature as an organization you need to... figure out ways to still infuse the sort of spirit of creation so that you can still compete because we are a cost-recovery unit. We have to compete, or we won't survive. Unlike a traditional university structure where you have public funding and all the support, we actually have to do it ourselves. (May 22, 2009, p. 11)

In referencing Greiner's (1972) *Five Phases of Organizational Growth*, Donna diagnosed her position by stating you only "get so far as an entrepreneurial entity and then you have a different crisis depending on what kinds of things that you encounter" (May 22, 2009, p. 10). That being said, Donna's first leadership focus centered around the following question: "How are we going to work together?" (May 22, 2009, p. 10). Upon taking stock of this situation, Donna's historical knowledge of the organization revealed that as an organization gets larger, the "more bureaucratic" it becomes, which is a counter to the previous smaller work culture, "so the culture suffers".

According to Jenni, the most important leadership challenge she had when she became Associate Dean, "was probably faculty and student engagement in the University" (June 4, 2009, p. 5). In her explanation, Jenni averred:

our associate faculty is a challenge for us using this model because they're not on campus, we're not incorporating them in our discussions, in our meetings the same way we would if the faculty members were actually in an office in the building. So, we're trying to keep them engaged and understanding the model that we use, we'll just have to think through it. (June 4, 2009, p. 5)

In identifying the least important challenge when Pam started as coordinator in 2006, she proffered: "I really believe that the content expertise and the knowledge of my colleagues was good, so I didn't worry about the content. I was more worried about program structure and then the alignment with the administration" (June 22, 2009, p. 5). Similarly, Doug's least important past leadership challenge "were the faculty members" (May 20, 2009, p. 6). In his words, Doug stated:

All of them were extremely qualified in their positions. We knew how to design courses, we knew our content area and they understood what their responsibilities

were. They were all very skilled in offering online education and understanding the pedagogies associated with delivering online education. (May 20, 2009, p. 6)

Donna's least important leadership challenge when she first came into her position, was herself. As she stated, "I'm a natural leader... and to me that was almost giving me permission to be who I am" (May 22, 2009, p. 11). However, Jenni had "no idea" as to what was the least important leadership when she started as Associate Dean.

Present challenges and tensions. In Pam's leadership portfolio, the most important present challenge is with budget cuts. According to Pam:

sometimes online learning can be seen as a revenue generation opportunity and not necessarily as solely an educational opportunity... many of the programs we run are outside of the tuition policy and you can keep more revenue. Also, there is a perception, I know it's not a reality though, that they're cheaper, the programs are cheaper and I don't know where that assumption comes from; it certainly has not been my experience. (June 22, 2009, p. 6)

Pam also identified the challenge of a need for alignment among the specializations or horizontal coordination "because [she] is the only coordinator that has been the same coordinator since 2006" (June 22, 2009, p. 6). That said, the other major challenge Pam mentioned "is the breaking down of the silos because from a learners perspective, change and innovation in education, which is taught in the EdD. leadership program is equally valuable to the post-secondary leaders. So, I've been encouraging cross border courses" (June 22, 2009, p. 6). With respect to the nature of bureaucracy, Pam indicated instability in the graduate division at her university. For instance, there has been an interim Dean and associate Dean for the past two years. Consequently, they will not hire a new associate Dean until a new Dean is hired. Pam's frustration can be summarized as follows, "you just sort of get traction with one and the next one comes, so the challenges I had initially were with 1 but there have been 2 others since" (June, 22, 2009, p. 6).

When it came to clarifying the most important leadership challenge at present, Doug succinctly stated "the notion of stability... has been a really big issue within [his] Faculty [area]... in creating the sense that people are in control" (May 20, 2009, p. 6). In his explanation, Doug posited that they have had problems with central administration at the graduate level whereby they have "only had acting positions for a several period of time" (May, 20, 2009, p. 6). As evidence, Doug expressed that for the past 3 ½ years,

they have had “four different associate deans... several different movings [at] the department level [with] different people taking on different positions... [and] they have not had a solid Dean for [his] Faculty [area]... in place for upwards of 3 years” (May 20, 2009, p. 6).

When asked about the most important leadership challenge presently, Donna answered, “budgeting is the huge specter on our minds... [and] how to be innovative in an environment of restraints” (May 22, 2009, p. 11). Upon further elaboration, Donna perceived the budget challenge as follows:

money, time anything to do with resources right now is just the thing that’s hammering away at us and having enough money, having enough time, and relating to that, having enough people. Because if you can’t, if you don’t have enough money you can’t recruit more people, you can’t really spin that off into new directions, you can’t, you’re stuck, you have to figure out how to work around those barriers. And if there’s a way we’ll find it. (May 22, 2009, p. 12)

Presently, the most important leadership challenge, according to Jenni, “we haven’t resolved the associate faculty engagement [issue]... that’s our ongoing challenge... supporting them as they teach the classes, providing the resources that they need to teach effectively” (June 4, 2009, p. 6). In an attempt to find a solution to this leadership challenge, Jenni reported that:

professional development is a big thing when people are challenged in the classroom... How do we help them manage that? How do we make sure that they know who to talk to? How do we help them find ways of working with students effectively if they are having challenges in the classroom? (June 4, 2009, p. 6)

At present, Pam indicated that the least important challenge has not really changed, that being the content of the courses. As Pam stated:

I’m not worried about the content of some of the courses but I also want to make sure that we introduce courses that speak to the dynamism of what a higher ed. leader needs to be dealing with now. So, I want to be modeling some of that within the content of the program but the core content I’m not worried about. (June 22, 2009, p. 7)

Collectively, Doug, Donna, and Jenni were unable to identify the present least important leadership challenge.

Future challenges and tensions. Pam identified the ability to transform as the most important leadership challenge in the future. Pam had this to say:

I think technology and society have sped up the rate of change and so the ability to transform yourself multiple times and multiple aspects and to adjust the system to what is the cycle of freeze and then slush and then refreeze. The organizations are not going to be into the refreeze cycle very often. It's the cycle, so organizations are going to have to live in a current state of slush from the unfrozen state because they can't really harden up because the challenges are going to continue to evolve and that's very difficult because most leadership leaders tend to measure their success by their performance on a number of concrete indicators so they look for barometers of success. (June 22, 2009, p. 22)

Doug perceived the most important leadership challenge in the future to be twofold. First, Doug referred to the concept of the learning leader whereby "leaders have to be aware, they're constantly in a learning state, learning about new theory, learning about new research related to leadership... [and] the need to continually learn about who they are and what it means to be a leader" (May 20, 2009, p. 22). Examples of the need to continually learn about leadership are both internal and external such as competition from other institutions in online education, advances in technology, and budgetary constraints. Second, and the biggest challenge, according to Doug, is trying to develop "the concept of a technological pedagogy... a curriculum that matches the environment that we work in" (May 20, 2009, p. 24). In his explanation, Doug articulated, "the traditional [classroom] pedagogies that are used in education have been a non-technological pedagogy [and] online education requires a technological pedagogy" (May 20, 2009, p. 24). As an example, Doug mentioned the need to move away from text by moving away from discussion postings, reading articles or textbooks; "the whole thing becomes text" (May 20, 2009, p. 24). Instead of responding to students by text, Doug will post YouTube clips, so that students "see [him] talking about a particular issue, now it takes it out of text and creates a face-to-face technological experience". Another example mentioned by Doug, is the use of his PC tablet whereby he "handwrites answers in the margins or right over the text, edit work [so] they see [his] handwriting [which] makes [it] much more of a personal experience" (May 20, 2009, p. 24).

When asked about the one most important leadership challenge she would face in the future, Donna stated "there is a few" (May 22, 2009, p. 27). In no particular order, the list of future challenges Donna anticipated includes: (a) merging and integrating two cultures (*old bureaucratic structure and the new faculty structure*) while saving the best

of both; (b) remaining creative and innovative; (c) keeping pace with technology; (d) leaping ahead of the competition; (e) retaining high quality and high touch programming; and (e) recruiting faculty is a huge challenge for business schools.

Jenni indicated that faculty engagement will continue to be the most important leadership challenge in the future; however, she also predicted “demographic changes are going to impact how we teach” (Jenni, June 4, 2009, p. 17). According to Jenni, faculty engagement and student demographics:

will probably impact our faculty members going forward... How do we keep faculty members engaged and enthusiastic about teaching people from different generations? Going forward and how do we resource them?... I think demographics might make some changes in how that plays out. (June 4, 2009, p. 17)

Moreover, there is a “sense of entitlement” with changing demographics as students are more comfortable and advanced with technology, thus, expecting more things immediately. In her words, Jenni forecasted that student demographics will “impact how people teach and I think making that shift from teaching with some technology to with a lot more technology... will be challenging. And we will need to support that” (June 4, 2009, p. 17).

Neither Pam, Doug, nor Jenni were able to perceive and identify the least important leadership challenge in the future; their concern was more focused on the higher priority challenges that await them. However, for Donna, the least important future challenge is knowing “how to stay still, how to stand still [and] keep your head in the sand” (May 22, 2009, p. 27).

Summary

In this chapter, I presented the findings from interviews of Pam, Doug, Donna, and Jenni. Initially, there were themes that began to develop as I read and re-read the data collected from each of the respondents: (a) context and setting, (b) leadership, (c) vision, (d) ethics and personal leadership values, (e) motivation, (f) culture and individual consideration, (g) leadership preparation, and (h) challenges and tensions. Concomitantly, in Chapter Five I will present a deeper interpretation of these initial themes by means of critically discussing and analyzing them as they relate to leadership in higher education in the context of this study.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Analysis

“The ultimate measure of a man is not where he stands in moments of comfort, but where he stands at times of challenge and controversy”. (Martin Luther King Jr.)

Introduction

I now turn to some reflection and analysis based on the research findings of this study, which are presented in this chapter. After carefully examining the research data through several iterations of data analysis and categorization as described in Chapter Three, four major themes have been identified along with accompanying sub-themes for each as they pertained to the research questions. Further, I will discuss the themes that emerged from the research findings and place the analysis in the context of the extant literature base. The themes and sub-themes are as follows: (a) Context – The Setting (*technology; model of learning; faculty categories; cost-recovery versus cost-sharing*); (b) Leadership Preparation (*removing barriers and improving leadership preparation*); (c) Leadership in General (*relational-oriented; vision and setting direction; organizational culture and cultural diversity; ethics*); and (d) Challenges and Tensions (*past; present; future; organizational realities*).

Context - The Setting

Initially, I made the underlying assumption that leadership was being exercised exclusively in an online context where leader and followers were separated by time and space and relied on the power of the Internet to establish the process of leadership in cyber-space. What really is the context within which chairs, associate deans, directors, and coordinators function in relation to online curriculum delivery? Contrary to my underlying assumption is the significance of context that emerged from the findings, in particular, the following three areas: (a) learning model, (b) faculty categories (*tenured and contract*); and (c) funding (*cost-recovery versus cost-sharing*).

Technology. In brief, the mode of curriculum delivery revealed in this study focuses on a mixture of online technologies. Learning Management Systems (LMS's), such as Blackboard, WebCT, Moodle and Lotus Notes, were being used as the primary agent to connect learners to their courses and instructors. Further, LMS's were being used to deliver and sequence content, measure student performance, and create

communities of discussion through text. However, LMS's are predominantly Web 1.0 technologies that rely extensively on text as the medium of communication. In addition, Web 2.0 technologies, such as podcasting, YouTube, Elluminate, and Skype to mention a few, are being used as supportive technologies to enhance communication beyond the realm of text. Moreover, this mode of curriculum delivery is such that learners and faculty communicate through the Internet, namely online technologies as the main medium of communication. This finding is consistent with the literature as identified in Chapter Two; however, this seems to demonstrate that technology is not that prevalent in the process of leadership.

Model of learning. Findings in this case study, revealed the prevalence of cohort learning as a popular delivery format in online curriculum delivery. In this study, participants indicated that the strength of cohort programming along with online technology are the main components for serving adult learners who wish to further their careers through the vehicle of education while living anywhere in the world. What makes the cohort model unique is that learners enter a particular program and move through it together, from start to finish. Overall, participants proffered that this model provides a sense of community as the networking and collaboration are an instrumental part of the learning experience; not only for the face-to-face component but more importantly for the online experience. Consequently, each cohort creates its own culture, which, in turn, presents new challenges for leaders in this context. The learning model used in this context is an intentional strategy with the purpose of establishing a community of learners, which includes leader of a program specialization, faculty, support staff, and learners. However, each cohort is unique because leaders are unable to predict the exact challenges, needs, events that take place, and the ever-evolving change super-imposed by technology. As one participant commented, as a leader you are like a "*version 3.2*" and similar to technology always changing and becoming a new version of the previous one. Although participants in this study shared their perceptions of online curriculum delivery, they did so while comparing it face-to-face instructional delivery, which is also part of their portfolios. Thus, their perceptions and wealth of experiences were rich in that they were knowledgeable in both areas of instructional delivery.

In addition, the model of cohort programming also incorporates blended learning.

In brief, blended learning alternates face-to-face campus-residency requirements and off-campus, online curriculum delivery; essentially blending and mixing elements of face-to-face and online learning while utilizing a cohort model in this unique context.

Participants declared that this model minimizes the disruption for professional, personal and family commitments while fostering rich learning both on and off campus.

Moreover, this mode of curriculum delivery is such that learners and faculty communicate through the Internet, namely online technologies, and only meet face-to-face for short residency requirements for their courses. This learning model (*cohort + blended learning*) accounts for the uniqueness in which leaders in this context experience and exercise leadership in higher education.

Unlike a traditional university instructional model, which is course based and promotes freedom for the adult learner by allowing them to select courses when they choose; a cohort model does not provide learners with as much freedom. Instead, the cohort model comes at a cost to the freedom of the adult learner because all learners are in lock-step with each other. Further, learners in this model cannot choose courses that fit the flexibility of their particular schedule nor can they take a leave of absence. The lock-step, cohort model creates a sense of coherence, which, in turn, makes it difficult for adult learners to join other cohorts as well. This suggests, that leaders in this context operate in a highly centralized bureaucracy, which places high priority on process, which, in turn, may limit innovation and leadership.

Faculty categories. Drawing on the analogy of economics, this study revealed a unique micro and macro understanding of faculty in this context. On the micro level, there exists a small group of tenured faculty who work in a traditional university physical campus setting. In addition, there is another micro level that constitutes contract faculty (*supply*) who work away from campus and are only brought into the teaching and delivery of curriculum, based on the number of learners (*demand*). Thus, there is no predetermined need for contract faculty, whereas there is a predetermined need for tenured faculty. On the macro level, the university accomplishes its work through the leaders of a respective specialization in this context, which, in turn, must ensure that tenure and contract faculty are brought together collaboratively and that their collective contributions help improve and achieve the goals set forth by the university organization.

As a result, the findings demonstrate that the concept of community is rather unique, as it is comprised of the micro and macro aspects in this context. Specifically, the community consists of all of those individuals from the academic unit, which includes administrative support staff, tenured and contract faculty, and the leader of a respective area of specialization.

Although learners and faculty are primarily separated by time and space, the same is not necessarily true for faculty and the leaders in this context. For the most part, the working environment in this study reflects a traditional university faculty structure; however, hiring contract faculty is the exception. As one participant stated, “we are moving towards a faculty structure” (May 22, 2009, p. 2). The one difference worth noting is that some faculty in this context are “*contracted*” and are located virtually anywhere around the globe. Although the concept of hiring part-time or contract faculty is not novel, contract-faculty in this context is unique. For instance, the relationship between leader (*chair, coordinator, director, and associate dean*) and followers (*full-time faculty*) occurs primarily in a traditional, campus face-to-face environment. In contrast, contract faculty are usually located anywhere around the globe, everywhere except the physical campus; thus, relationships between leader and contract-faculty are fundamentally different. The combination of tenure, full-time faculty and contract faculty has an effect on leadership when related to elements such as vision, motivation and empowerment. Research by Tucker (1993) points out that one of the challenges with contract faculty is that “there is a lack of program continuity when a large share of the faculty is part-time... they do not contribute to the out-of-class tasks of the faculty, such as committee work, curriculum development” (p. 118). This demonstrates a difficult challenge for leaders in this context as they must establish non-traditional relationships with tenured, full-time faculty and contract faculty to ensure that all faculty share a vested interest.

The learning model also imposes added challenges for leaders and fulltime, tenured faculty. Seeing how the learning model relies upon the importance of the social, it must also rely upon nurturing of a strong learning community, which means the development of faculty. Given the design of the learning model, tenured, full-time faculty encounter an increased workload, which, in turn, constitutes added pressure on the leader.

Consequently, tenured faculty have their research time diminished because of the added responsibility of mentoring new contract faculty. In turn, this places added stress on the leader because resources are not being maximized to their fullest. Further, the number of contract faculty fluctuates based on student demand, thus, creating little consistency and lost time due to orientation of new contract faculty. This also suggests that faculty in this context operate in a highly centralized bureaucracy that is focused on process which, in turn, may limit faculty autonomy. Thus, leaders are challenged to achieve collaboration from tenured, full-time faculty and contract faculty.

Cost-recovery versus cost-sharing funding. The findings in this study revealed the importance of financial funding for sustaining online curriculum delivery. In particular, it was discovered that leadership within the academic units is fiscally associated with cost-recovery funding. Comments such as, “We are a cost-recovery unit” and “we are funded outside of the traditional tuition policy” (Participants, Chapter Four) are representative of the comments made by participants in this study.

What is the significance of cost-recovery versus cost-sharing funded education? As a publicly funded organization, most universities in Canada receive a majority of their operating budget directly from the provincial government known as cost-sharing. Education in most Canadian universities is largely dependent on funding from provincial governments (*taxpayers*) for the revenue required to meet the demands of their overall operating budgets. More specifically, the concept of cost-sharing funding holds the presumption that the underlying costs of tertiary education, mostly instruction, are borne by some of the following, namely: government, parents and/or learners, external research grants, and donations. Regular tuition fees are the norm which are paid by students at the university plus the costs shared by the provincial government (*taxpayers*) which equate to the cost of instruction. In comparison, cost-recovery tuition fees are set at a pre-determined level intended to recoup entire costs of delivering a specific program to a cohort of students. In other words, cost-recovery funded education involves charging tuition fees to the learners that are designed to recoup all marginal costs as well as contributing to the fixed costs of the service provider (*university*). However, cost-recovery tuition is outside regular university tuition policy. In light of this comparison, cost-recovery tuition allows a department or specialization area to generate revenue

through “*cost-recovery*” tuition, which is outside the traditional cost-sharing policy (*government funding/taxpayers + student tuition*). By operating as a cost-recovery academic unit, there is the potential for greater budget flexibility or “*revenue supplementation*” because the *modus operandi* is to produce revenue. Findings also show that universities which operate outside the cost-sharing policy, do so, because they rely on cost-recovery programming to cover inflationary and other cost reductions through efficiency gains. In other words, cost-recovery fees in this context have been levied as a means to recoup costs while acting as a source of investment for an academic specialization area; ultimately the university. This finding suggests, that leaders in this context may be required to leverage their entrepreneurial muscle being that online curriculum delivery is a relatively new and competitive environment. With increasing competition from other universities, leaders may need to learn and apply the economic principles of competition if their academic units are going to remain financially viable. The findings also seem to imply that there is a sense that various forms of online curriculum delivery are becoming an inevitable element of mainstream, traditional academic delivery that will compete for finite resources both internally and externally.

Cost-recovery equals business. The educational experience accorded by cost-recovery tuition becomes rooted in business. In this context, students become more “*customer-like*” and universities become more “*business-like*” functioning in a market driven by competition. That being said, students will become cautious consumers of their education elevating their desire for transparency and accountability of universities that offer online curriculum delivery. Unlike the policy of cost-sharing tuition, which involves government funded tuition, responsibility for paying the costs of tuition is the financial burden of the learners, albeit implicitly or explicitly. Therefore, students become prudent consumers as they diligently select a program of study which is offered online. Consequently, universities that offer online curriculum delivery enter the competitive market, thus, making leaders responsible for these programs more “*business-minded*”. From an economic-business perspective, cost-recovery programs are designed in response to environmental market conditions with the aim of generating revenue to either invest back into a specific program and/or the overall university operating budget. Similar to a business, universities operating in this context enter into global competition.

As it was discovered in this study, leaders need to be concerned with marketing, which also validates the responsiveness of the university to cater to the learner's needs because they are dependent on cost-recovery tuition for income. Therefore, this establishes the argument that leaders operating within a cost-recovery funded academic unit need to demonstrate strong business acumen, which, in turn, makes the mode of program delivery an educational business. In brief, leaders must constantly improvise and innovate because the economic principles of supply (*competitor universities*) and demand (*learners*) exist in a market for a similar product.

Leadership Preparation

Given the novelty of online curriculum delivery, I sought to explore whether the participants were prepared for leadership roles in higher education. There were no references found in this study that pertained to leaders being prepared prior to assuming their leadership position; however, participants alluded to the need for some form of leadership preparation. Conversely, participants in this study declared that they did not have any courses or leadership preparation programming prior to taking on their respective positions. The essence of this concern is captured in Pam's words, "the majority of people doing these jobs don't have a leadership background... [and] when you get to be a department chair it is usually because you've got the short end of the straw and everybody has to take their turn" (June 22, 2009, p. 24). Examples of other statements made include the following: "No. They assume you come fully prepared" (June 22, 2009, p.20). "I did Not really [have] any previous leadership training prior to assuming [my] new position albeit informally or formally" (June 4, 2009, p. 15). "Not really... there [was no] checklist in terms of leadership preparation" (May 22, 2009, p. 25). Further, participants indicated that leadership prerequisites were not necessary in assuming the position of chair, coordinator, director, or associate dean in this context; only implicit knowledge of the program. These statements are consistent with the literature review in Chapter Two, whereby, leaders in these positions have not been provided any sort of leadership preparation prior to assuming their position. More importantly, the essence of these statements underscores that there is a need for the development of leadership preparation for these higher education leadership positions. As pointed out by one of the participants, although leadership preparation is not

mandatory, “it was beneficial” (May 22, 2009, p. 25). According to Yukl (2006), “a leader in the twenty-first century will require a higher level of skill and some new competencies” (p. 386).

Removing barriers and improving leadership preparation. Findings in this study also revealed a variety of different types of leadership preparation strategies that can remove the barriers prior to assuming a leadership position. Based on their years of leadership experience, participants in this study identified the following factors as having contributed to the successful development of their leadership approach. In no particular order, the factors included: (a) awareness of literature on leadership, (b) accessing professional development, (c) experience through observation, (d) gender awareness, and (e) accessing a coaching program. As Yukl (2006) argued, “much of the skill essential for effective leadership is learned from experience rather than formal training programs (p. 394)... [and] learning from experience is affected by amount of challenge, variety of tasks, and quality of feedback” (p. 395).

In comparison to factors that have contributed to their leadership approach, participants in this study also identified specific leadership support that is required in this particular context. Required leadership support in this context includes development of: (a) an online resource guide, (b) a new faculty reward system, (c) opportunities, (d) knowledge of budgeting, and (e) political awareness. Collectively, in order to realize the importance of facilitating the necessary conditions that “include things such as support for skill development, from top management, reward systems that encourage skill development, and cultural values that support continuous learning” (Yukl, 2006, p. 387). All things considered, the findings demonstrate potential examples of providing leadership opportunities as part of leadership preparation that include: (a) special assignments; (b) rotating leadership positions in other academic areas; and (c) providing domestic and international assignments. The collage of ideas, examples, and variety of tasks proffered in this study may form the beginning of necessary leadership preparation in this given context. As Yukl (2006) posited, “growth and learning are greater when job experiences are diverse as well as changing (p. 395)... Diverse job experiences require [leaders] to adapt to new situations and deal with new types of problems” (p. 396). Findings pertaining to removing barriers for leadership preparation emphasize the need

for coordination and integration of development and ongoing activities in preparing leaders for this particular higher education context.

Leadership In General

One of the major objectives of this research involved exploring the leader's perceptions of their leadership as they related to their experiences with online curriculum delivery. Of particular interest, participants perceived the following as influencing their leadership: (a) relational-oriented focus, (b) vision and direction setting, (c) organizational culture and cultural diversity, and (d) ethics.

Relational-oriented. In this study, participants were asked to define leadership, the characteristics of leadership, and when leadership is considered effective. Findings in the study suggest that participants' perceptions of their social environment reflect a strong approach towards a relationship-oriented approach as being crucial to successful leadership. In the words of Bass (2008), "Leaders differ from each in their focus of attention. Some focus more on the task to be accomplished, others more on the quality of their relations with others" (p. 497). Representative comments spoken by participants in this study from Chapter Four include:

motivate others... different contexts and different situations demand a different kind of leadership approach... transformational and servant leadership... somebody who stands behind and supports... inspiring other people to carve a path... educated leader, one who understands the literature and theory and then has this spectrum, this repertoire of leadership theory that they can apply to their practice by understanding the context and the situation of what is happening... walking the talk... do what you're going to say you're going to do... empower people... create engagement... to support, to encourage, to coach, to collaborate... people must be able to trust each other... removes barriers and get people to work at their highest capacity... by listening, by learning, by being open to changing my mind... try[ing] to create relationships... bringing people together... [and] getting to know each other. (Participants, Chapter Four)

Therefore, the findings accentuate that leader-faculty relationships are an important resource and cultivating strong interpersonal reactions and facilitating positive interpersonal group dynamics are the key to establishing a (*strong vision*) good fit between people and the university. Relations-oriented leadership, according to Bass (2008), is best explained in the following quotation:

maintaining personal relationships, opening channels of communication, and delegating to give subordinates opportunities to use their potential. It is

characterized by involved support, friendship, and mutual trust. It is leadership that is likely to be more democratic and employee-oriented rather than autocratic and production-oriented. (p. 499)

In the words of Lumpkin (2004), “investing time, effort, and resources in faculty and staff pays significant dividends because [faculty] are essential to advancing the mission of the department” (p. 45). These results demonstrate that there is a strong humanistic, relationship-oriented approach used by leaders in this study that emphasized the nurture paradigm. In determining the antecedent for relations-oriented leadership, Bass (2008) provided the following explanation:

the concept behind relationship oriented leadership is expressing concern for others, attempting to reduce emotional conflicts, harmonizing relations among others, and regulating participation. Relations-oriented leadership is likely to contribute to the development of followers and to more mature relationships. (p. 499)

This inference suggests that leaders in this context are akin to their traditional face-to-face counterparts in that, they understand and rely upon similar and representative means of face-to-face interactions to build relationships. As seen in the following sections, this relational-oriented approach to leadership is paradoxical to vision and setting direction as well as relationship building in the context of online curriculum delivery.

Vision and setting direction. Of particular interest from the findings, is how leaders incorporate the art of goal-setting as they establish a clear sense of vision being an integral part of leadership. In referencing Chapter Four, the following statements involving vision reflect comments articulated by participants.

makes tough decisions... meet the goals of the organization... have a goal in mind, whatever that goal is... leaders have to anticipate what the future needs are going to be... constant evolution of change... a clear thinker... [and] look forward... creative things are happening... when you see progress, when you see advancement. (Participants, Chapter Four)

The evidence provided suggests that participation, motivation, teamwork, building of strong relationships, and tailoring of individual needs serve as the cornerstone to championing vision in this context. Next to being relationship-oriented, these results suggest leaders in this context strongly concur on the importance of goal-setting and establishing a vision as the cornerstone to their leadership. Overall, the findings

emphasize that leaders in this context rely strongly on a relationship-oriented leadership in concert the task of vision and direction setting.

Although participants in this study revealed several different ways to bring faculty together to work towards a common vision, they all declared the importance of face-to-face meetings for creating faculty buy-in. An important part of vision and setting direction was the need to develop faculty ownership or faculty buy-in. It was discovered in the findings that collaboration with process enables faculty to own the process thereby creating a sense of commitment which is voluntary. The following comments illustrate the perceptions of the participants as they expressed the need for face-to-face meetings as it relates to vision setting:

I can do it better face-to-face because you can actually see the connection with each person and there is a different feel, there's a visceralness to it... I bring them together in face-to-face meetings and that's more powerful because one of the challenges of teaching in an online program is that people sometimes don't go to the office... technology... felt colder to [her] and education isn't about that and I couldn't see how we could use [technology] to build relationships... [bringing] faculty together [and] talk about what are our needs, where do we see ourselves going... and create a vision for what is happening... I try to make sure that they are involved in the process... [of] a common vision. (Participants, Chapter Four)

As Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) remind us, “a vision statement should create a value framework that enables daily, routine activities to take on a special meaning and significance, making the school a special place, instilling feelings of ownership, identity, participation, and moral fulfillment” (p. 195). Bates (2000) stated, “no vision or plan will work without the support of faculty and students. The reason why a plan or vision needs to be developed should be explained to staff, and their maximum participation in the process should be sought” (p. 48). Moreover, findings in this study emphasize that leaders in the context of online curriculum delivery choose to accomplish vision setting primarily through face-to-meetings instead of utilizing online communication technologies. Instead of relying on technology to build “*warm and fuzzy*” cyber-relationships, participants perceive technology only as the second best thing to traditional face-to-face means for building community as they have always known and understood. In developing a vision, Yukl (2006) posited the following:

Before people will support radical change, they need to have a vision of a better future that is attractive enough to justify the sacrifices and hardships the change

will require... During the hectic and confusing process of implementing change, a clear vision helps to guide and coordinate the decisions and actions of [many] people(p. 295)... The vision conveys an image of what can be achieved, why it is worthwhile, and how it can be done. (p. 296)

Therefore, this finding suggests in order for leaders to initiate change, it must be done slowly and not forcefully, where the process is allowed to evolve, continually building on success, developing faculty interest and excitement; essentially creating a framework for vision setting.

Findings illustrate that the process of articulating a vision and setting direction was most frequently characterized in terms of working with faculty (tenure and contract) in a collaborative way. Participants often identified their vision and direction setting role in terms of facilitating process, which is iterative, to allow the faculty (tenure and contract) to voluntarily achieve consensus for the direction of their program specialization. Consistent with the literature (Aziz et al, 2005; Bryman, 2007; Chu, 2006; Gmlech & Miskin, 1993; Hancock, 2007; Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, & Tucker, 1999; Jones & Holdaway, 1996; Leaming, 2007; Lumpkin, 2004; Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler, (1993); Tucker, 1984, 1992, 1993; Whitsett, 2007), participants also elucidated their involvement with upper university management by having to act as a conduit between faculty and the dean's office, which, in turn, resulted in them having to balance administrative avidity and faculty support in order to achieve a mutually agreed upon vision. Interestingly, the campus environment is not much different from the literature in traditional classroom delivery whereby faculty are brought together in a face-to-face setting.

Relationship building. The notion of relationship building with faculty, tenured and contract, is accomplished primarily through face-to-face means. This particular finding of relationship building is in sharp contrast with the students where relationships are established through the combination of a short face-to-face residency requirement alternated with online learning which help to support them through lengthy periods when learners are virtually separated. The findings also indicated that leaders are challenged in their attempts to virtually build relationships with “*contract*” faculty. As part of their strategy, leaders revealed the importance of various traditional face-to-face meetings to ensure they can build relationships with “*contract*” faculty to ensure that they are

engaged and are as much a part of the vision process as tenured faculty are. Consequently, relationships and engagement are difficult for leaders to maintain. Ironically, the finding pertaining to relationship building is in complete contrast with the students; where relationships are incubated through a brief residency requirement but are nurtured and grown “*virtually*” over long periods of time through online technologies. This suggests that this context is more than just technology, it is one where leaders must rely heavily on the process of face-to-face communication to establish rapport and relationship building with faculty.

Findings in this study did reveal the use of some online technologies in an attempt to bring faculty together for vision and direction setting. The use of online technologies to collaborate with faculty was most prevalent in the case of contract faculty. This seemed to echo Jenni’s statement when she said, “we have ‘lunch ‘n learn’ sessions where [associate] faculty members can logon if they want to and they can engage in a different type of meeting, so if they’re not here physically... [they are] here virtually” (June 4, 2009, p. 6). Leaders in this environment are beginning to experiment with other online technologies, such as Skype or Elluminate, in an attempt to virtually bring faculty together and build vision at a distance. As Doug stated, it is imperative to at least “try [creating opportunities] through different online environments” (Doug, May 20, 2009). In the case of tenured or “*core faculty*”, leaders rely predominantly on face-to-face meetings interspersed with email messaging. These findings seem to contradict the premise of delivering curriculum through an online environment where leaders and faculty rely on traditional face-to-face communication and students must rely on online technologies to build rapport and relationships with their professors/instructors.

Infrastructure. A new finding in this study that was not previously identified in the literature relating to vision, is the instrumental role of infrastructure. The delivery of curriculum through online technologies at a university requires more than just purchasing computers. In this context, there is the physical infrastructure, which includes computers and the physical networks that connect to the Internet. Further, there is the extensive requirement of human infrastructure, which includes: technical support, media production, instructional design staff, and supporting faculty. It was discovered in this study that “people often forget the concept of infrastructure and you have to build a new

infrastructure” (May 20, 2009, p. 7). However, this new way of delivering curriculum imposes itself into a university structure that is traditional in its instructional mode of delivery and bureaucratic in nature. Succinctly stated, there is a triangulation of sources in this particular context, “you have to have vision, infrastructure and culture all come together to create a consistent picture of how you can implement this new program” (May, 2009, p. 7). In the words of Bates (2000), “developing a vision for the use of technology for teaching and learning is in my view the most important of strategies” (p. 44). He also went on to proclaim, “the successful use of technology for teaching and learning also demands major changes in teaching and organizational culture (p. i)... Furthermore, for such a change to be successful, leadership of the highest quality is required (p. 42). This finding may suggest that leaders in this context need to carefully and strategically incorporate infrastructure into the vision to ensure faculty commitment/buy-in and overall program success; instead of blindly rushing into the adventure of online curriculum delivery.

Findings pertaining to vision reveal a threefold challenge for leaders. First, the primary vehicle for setting direction in this context is the requirement of face-to-face meetings and not the use of online technologies to coordinate, plan, and set direction. Second, leaders are challenged with balancing and maintaining solid relationships with contract faculty who are not physically located on the campus. In other words, contract faculty are too far removed and they do not feel like they are part of a traditional academic family because there is reduced engagement and commitment as they are not all located in the same place. Thus, contract-faculty present leaders with the challenge of continuity as they are faced with the reality of having to build new relationships with each contract faculty member. This demonstrates a paradoxical situation whereby students rely primarily on online technologies to complete course work but leaders and faculty rely on face-to-face meetings to set direction. Third, leaders in this context need to be cognizant of how technological infrastructure continually influences their leadership approach. Overall, the notion of building relationships with contract faculty, tenured faculty, and their leader disrupts continuity, thereby presenting an ongoing challenge.

Organizational culture and cultural diversity. Findings in this study reveal an interesting perception of how culture influences the leadership approach. In general, all

participants felt that cultural expectations definitely influenced their leadership approach. Based on their experiences, culture was identified as being twofold: (a) organizational culture and (b) cultural diversity.

Organizational culture. Findings suggest that participants interpret culture to be administrative and organizational. When talking about organizational culture, Yukl (2006) reminds us in the following quotation that it is important to operationalize our understanding.

Organizational culture involves assumptions, beliefs, and values that are shared by members of a group or organization. It is much easier to embed culture in new organizations than to change the culture of mature organizations. Culture can be influenced by several aspects of a leader's behavior, including examples set by the leader, what the leader attends to, how the leader reacts to crisis, how the leader allocates rewards, and how the leader makes selection, promotion, and dismissal decisions. (Yukl, 2006, p. 313)

In referencing Chapter Four, comments from the participants relating to organizational culture included:

there is academic and administrative culture... the academic culture is pretty rigid and closed and individualistic... the work culture is how you get things done, how you have your meetings and how often you have your meetings... the collegial model of governance creates its own culture in terms of how we believe things should happen and operate... How are we going to work together?... re-calibrate the culture so the people will trust again and reengage. (Participants, Chapter Four)

There was also discussion around the notion of stability and the lack of it. In brief, it was explained that the nature of professional bureaucracy moves relatively slowly, such that, "it took over three years before a permanent dean could be recruited" (May 20, 2009, p. 6). Further, it was discovered in the findings that "*silos*" existed in which leaders must deal with this type of cultural and behavioral obstacle to change as they attempt to coordinate and work with these silos. This example underscores how leaders in this context attempt to work with and through the existing culture instead of trying to change the culture of an entire university. In addition, it demonstrates how leaders in this new context must not only create a new culture but find a way to have it work within the old culture. In the words of Bolman and Deal (2008),

an organization's culture is built over time as members develop beliefs, values, practices, and artifacts that seem to work and are transmitted to new recruits.

Defined as ‘the way we do things around here’, culture anchors an organization’s identity and sense of itself. (p. 278)

The findings also suggest the importance of leadership transparency, in which, leaders must be cognizant of inaccurate and negative rumors by providing timely and accurate information if they are to initiate successful change. In addition, it also suggests that leaders in this context must be able to measure the culture by examining behaviors and performance before introducing change. Overall, this finding demonstrates that these leaders are still embroiled in a professional bureaucracy that champions a collegial model, which, in turn, may inhibit their leadership capacity.

Cultural diversity. The findings in this study also prompted some reflection on how leaders in a Western-Canadian university setting interpret their social environment pertaining to cultural diversity. With respect to how culture influences leadership in this context, findings in this study suggest that context allows leaders to address cultural issues more easily being that students are in their own cultural setting. From an anthropological lens, culture refers to the shared qualities, “learned beliefs, values, rules, norms, symbols, and traditions common to a group of people” (Northouse, 2007, p. 302). Evidence of cultural diversity responses included:

there is a sense in which North America is the standard to emulate... there is an opportunity to do more with online than face-to-face because we’ve got the people in their own contexts... and online learning actually has the potential more than [any] other... who’s to say... North American values... are the best, what can we learn from Russia?. (Participants, Chapter Four)

Therefore, this finding reiterates and expands on the effects of culture on the leadership process.

Similar to the concept of globalization, providing leadership in online curriculum delivery underscores the importance for leaders to become more knowledgeable regarding cross-cultural awareness. As an example, the online environment allows leaders to simultaneously or individually work with many different people, albeit faculty or students, from different cultures. Three of the participants did not acknowledge or comment about the influence of culture, namely the way of life unique to a group of people and how it affects their leadership. This omission by the participants suggests their individual biases of an ethnocentric view that an Anglo, North American

perspective, which is based on characteristics of competition and results oriented, is superior and the one to be emulated. Further evidence is provided as follows: “it’s not about culture so much as about emotional intelligence”, and “I’m just not sure what cultural expectations I have or the students have or the faculty”, were representative of the comments made by participants. Instead, leadership in this context can promote the need for leaders in higher education to learn to relate to individuals from a perspective of equality, rather than an ethnocentric view. This is also consistent with the literature review in Chapter Two of this study, where much of the scholarly literature in educational administration and leadership is limited to a western, North American perspective (Aziz et al, 2005; Bryman, 2007; Chu, 2006; Gmlech & Miskin, 1993; Hancock, 2007; Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, & Tucker, 1999; Jones & Holdaway, 1996; Leaming, 2007; Lumpkin, 2004; Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler, (1993); Tucker, 1984, 1992, 1993; Whitsett, 2007). As Northouse (2007) reminds us, there is

the need for each of us to expand our ethnocentric tendencies to view leadership from only our own perspective and instead to “open our window” to the diverse ways in which leadership is viewed by people from different regions around the world. There are many ways to view leadership and the integration of culture, and studies of leadership help us to expand and develop a richer understanding of the leadership process. (p. 324)

Ethics. Given the earlier finding that programs in this context operate on cost-recovery tuition, I now turn to the ethical finding associated with leadership; in particular, how cost-recovery funded programming ethically impacts leadership. Typically, programs at Canadian universities are funded through student tuition, government grants, external funding in the form of research grants or donations. Given the progressive revenue squeeze, there is a reducing amount of funding left for new programs. The real issue becomes, who should pay and on what premise? Therefore, deans, associate deans, directors, coordinators, and chairs are left to ponder how to reconcile competing interests for finite financial resources.

A more detailed and ethical consideration involves ensuring that cost-recovery tuition does not present a barrier only to access but more importantly, the issue of equity. The ethical issue for leaders is one where they need to not only assure accessibility but equitability as well for students from lower-socioeconomic backgrounds. Although

learners may benefit from their education, the prevalent issue is to ensure that they first have equitable access and removing barriers posed by elaborate tuition fees. Following the work of Burns (1978), Greenleaf (1977), and Heifetz (1994), Northouse (2007) reminds us:

ethics has to do with what leaders do and who leaders are. It is concerned with the nature of leaders' behavior and their virtuousness. In any decision-making situation, ethical issues are either implicitly or explicitly involved. The choices leaders make and they respond in a given circumstance are informed and directed by their ethics. (p. 342)

Consideration needs to be given so that cost-recovery tuition fees, which are outside of the cost-sharing tuition policy, does not lead to privatization. Further, leaders need to be mindful about justifying the notion of equity where students are asked to pay more for a particular program. In comparison to face-to-face students, leaders need to also absolve themselves and rationalize how online students are being charged for support services, such as the library, student services, and fitness centers, which are all designed for access on the physical campus. How are online students to benefit from common, shared resources such as these? As Pam stated:

are we actually using the students to subsidize some of the on-campus students or some of the other programs in the faculty or some of the other services... How are the funds used and do we select the best students or do we select enough students so they make the money that we need for the program or for the faculty?. (June 22, 2009, p. 9)

According to Bass (2008), "the financial system exacerbates the pressure to concentrate on short-term interests, preventing [leaders and] managers from attending to social responsibilities" (p. 207). In brief, cost-recovery programming in this context creates a problem of equity that leaders need to be cognizant of. As Bass (2008) reminds us, "poor leadership damages trust, loyalty, and teamwork and raises, in the followers, questions about the ethics of equity, responsibility, and accountability" (p. 217). Functioning as a leader in a cost-recovery academic unit, leaders need ethically address equity vis-à-vis opportunity in higher education?

Challenges and Tensions

This section captures the essence of research question number four, "What are the challenges or tensions for the department chair's leadership as it relates to the context of

online curriculum delivery”? When operationalizing our understanding of challenges and tensions, Yukl’s (2006) words provide us with clarity: “A challenging situation is one that involves unusual problems to solve, difficult obstacles to overcome, and risky decisions to make” (p. 395). The challenges and tensions in this study (past, present, and future) will now be discussed.

Past challenges and tensions. Participants in this study perceived their leaderships challenges to be different from each other when they first assumed their respective leadership positions. In brief, some of the inaugural leadership challenges proffered by participants in this study are: (a) little attention was given to learner experience, (b) marketing of the program, (c) overall management of the program, (d) perception of the program by external stakeholders, (e) a need to re-calibrate culture, and (f) creating faculty engagement. This finding suggests and reinforces the notion that leadership is dependent on context as no two environments are alike; nor are the leadership challenges. As Bates (1980) and Greenfield (1968, 1978) argued, behaviorist approaches to leadership “failed to consider how contextual, moral, an ethical issues influence administrators’ thinking and actions” (as cited in Heck & Hallinger, 2005, p. 231). Further, it is difficult to determine as to the point of maturity of the overall work unit. Given the numerous amount and types of challenges, suggests the importance for leadership preparation so that leaders have some indication of the challenges that await and how to handle them. Also, the above-mentioned challenges indicate that leaders must deal simultaneously with internal and external realities as they pertain to leadership.

In contrast, the least significant challenge experienced by the participants was that of the confidence placed in faculty expertise. In particular, content expertise in each of the courses was regarded as their least concern. This finding is twofold: (a) there is a strong relationship between leader and followers (*faculty*) and (b) faculty are given the “*carte blanche*” when it pertains to their course and content areas of their specialty. Note that, this finding can only be extended to the university settings where all faculty resided together in the same physical space. Nonetheless, this finding does emphasize the importance of context but more importantly, on how strong relationships between leader and faculty establish continuity, harmony, and synergy, which act as a stabilizing force within the academic unit.

Present challenges and tensions. Although there were fewer leadership challenges that participants currently experienced, they were similar in nature. At present, participants identified the following leadership challenges: (a) budgets, (b) difficulties of a bureaucracy, and (c) faculty engagement. The essence of this finding was that the level of maturity, experience, and understanding of the leadership position determined the priority of tasks and particular leadership approach. This is based on the comparison from the leadership challenges they experienced initially to those that had the most impact in their area. This finding suggests that these challenges are ones where resource availability is most prevalent and ones where strong leadership is required to solicit sustainability and growth.

Given the finding related to budgets, educational leadership in this context presently stands in the shadow and continues to borrow ideas from Scientific Management (*Taylorism*) and Deming's Total Quality Management (*TQM*). Moreover, this suggests that leaders presently also operate in concert as managers. As one of the participants stated, "online learning can be seen as a revenue generation opportunity and not necessarily as solely an educational opportunity... and you can keep more revenue" (June 22, 2009, p. 6). Another participant proffered, "budgeting is the huge specter on our minds... [and] how to be innovative in an environment of restraints (p. 11)... if you don't have enough money you can't... spin that off in new directions... if there's a way we'll find it" (May 22, 2009, p. 12). Taylor's concepts of goal setting along with Fayol's ideas of strategic planning are influential in the current understanding of Key Performance Indicators (KPI's) and the leadership approach exhibited by participants at present. KPI's, for example, are used by leaders as financial and non-financial metrics to measure budgeting goals and overall ranking in relation to other universities. As one participant commented, "at one point we used to be alone in this market" (May 22, 2009, p. 3). Based upon, *The Principles of Scientific Management*, Taylor (1911) proffered that careful analysis and synthesis of workflow process would translate into improving labor productivity or overall output. Taylor's Scientific Management ideas coupled with Deming's (1986) notion of continuous improvement can be found in the context of this study. From a Scientific Management perspective, universities in this study take "*inputs*" (*uneducated students = revenue*), "*process and manufacture*" (*teach = fixed and variable*

costs), and “*output the product*” ($\text{educated student} = \text{profit} = \text{revenue} - \text{fixed and variable costs}$). Given the fiscal operation of a “*cost-recovery*” academic unit, leaders presently need to engage managerial and entrepreneurial thinking to optimize their budget formulas to increase profit or at least create a sense of financial sustainability. Therefore, the mantra of cost-recovery funding in itself borrows Deming’s (1986) idea of continuous improvement, such that, one must “[i]mprove constantly and forever the system of production and service, to improve quality and productivity, and thus constantly reduce cost” (p. 23). This evidence emphasizes that Taylorism and Deming’s principles of TQM influence the leadership approach in the context of online curriculum delivery; such that, departments or specialization areas can be understood as factories of production that take in “*raw products*” (*uneducated students*) and turn them into “*finished products*” (*educated students*). In summary, this detailed critical analysis clearly demonstrates the present challenge associated with budgets sequesters the need for a dual role: leader and manager.

The present challenge identified by participants relating to bureaucracy is consistent with the literature. That being said, I will summon Weber’s thoughts on the nature of bureaucracy as it relates to leadership in this context. In 1922, Max Weber laid the essential groundwork for organizations by concentrating on the nature of bureaucracy, specifically the iron cage, hierarchical structures of power and rule-based, control ideologies. One participant in this study declared their frustration around the notion of stability or lack of, which can found in the following quotation: “we have had four different associate deans... several different movings [at] the department level [with] different people taking on different positions... [and] they have not had a solid dean for [his] faculty [area]... in place for upwards of 3 years” (May 20, 2009, p. 6). Another participant expressed their disdain of instability that comes with bureaucracy as follows: “your sort of get traction with one and the next one comes, so the challenges I had initially were with 1 but there have been 2 others since” (June 22, 2009, p. 6). Although universities in this study are considered a “*Professional Bureaucracy*”, leaders are challenged within this traditional bureaucracy to create faculty engagement with “*part-time*” or “*virtual*” faculty. As with their inaugural challenge, leaders reiterated the perennial challenge of struggling to create faculty engagement and support within a

traditional-bureaucratic structure. This finding indicates that leaders in this context must deal with the ideologies of a traditional bureaucracy while attempting to create and support faculty engagement via non-traditional means. Collectively, these findings indicate how “*old knowledge*”, namely the tenets of classical organizational theory have survived over time, which, in turn, continue to impact the leadership approach in online curriculum delivery.

Findings also show that leaders currently continued to place high levels of confidence in their faculty for the courses they are each responsible for. However, it was found that participants did not presently consider anything else of significance that was worth mentioning. This suggests, that with time, leaders were able to maintain strong relationships with their faculty, which, in turn, continued to create an environment built around teamwork and confidence in faculty autonomy.

Future challenges and tensions. Consistent with literature (Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, & Tucker 1999; Petty, 2007; Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler 1993; Tucker, 1993), findings in this study also reveal leadership challenges involving technology are salient in the future for leaders in the context of online curriculum delivery. In particular, leaders in this study expressed the need to keep pace with technology not only in terms of competition but also to ensure that faculty continue to advance with technology as well. Findings in this study reinforce the importance of how leaders perceive demographics and the “*Internet Generation*” or “*Generation Z*” as influencing their leadership in relation to technology. A sense of entitlement by learners will create the expectation of teaching with more technology, which is captured in the following quotation: “demographics will impact how people teach and I think making that shift from teaching with some technology to with a lot more technology... will be challenging. And we will need to support that” (June 4, 2009, p. 17). As Levin (1999) stressed, “changing demographics, coupled with changing concepts of diversity, are powerfully important in almost every school” (p. 556).

Participants in this study identified several different leadership challenges that they are most likely to encounter in the future. Closer examination of the findings suggests that certain types of leadership challenges are more likely to be encountered than others. In no particular order, participants identified the following leadership

challenges: (a) ability to transform one's leadership, (b) leader in a constant state of learning, (c) concept of a technological pedagogy, (d) remaining creative and leaping ahead of the competition, (e) keep pace with technology, (f) faculty engagement, and (g) changing demographics.

Among the list of challenges participants anticipate they will encounter in the future and throughout this study, is the relationship of cost-recovery, remaining creative and leaping ahead of the competition. Before the Internet revolution, it would have been difficult to predict the market for numerous online businesses, such as Google, YouTube, Facebook, Twitter, etc. Only after the Internet market emerged did people envision the possibilities; online curriculum delivery in higher education is one such possibility. Therefore, introducing something new to the market (*online curriculum delivery*) also foreshadows a degree of uncertainty, which requires that leaders in this context incorporate an entrepreneurial ingredient into their leadership repertoire. Given the nature of the tuition funding policy in this context, the findings suggest that leaders need to be more creative in the future of securing financial resources, albeit internally and especially externally. In brief, this finding suggests that leaders in this context must exhibit more of an entrepreneurial spirit that is focused on operating on the basis of efficiency; thereby increasing output while decreasing input costs to increase potential revenue for the overall operating budget of the university.

The findings in this study strongly suggest the need for leaders in this context to be more creative and entrepreneurial in terms of vision and funding. Among all of the future challenges identified in this study, leaders appear to be optimistic, enthusiastic, energetic, and proactive, employing the concept of "*thinking outside the box*" which strongly suggests a call for quality leadership as an engine for growth, innovation, and a new vision.

Organizational realities. A refreshing point of view emerged from the findings; it was evident that leaders in this context are faced with internal and external leadership realities, albeit from the past, present, or future. Realities in this context are challenges which are found internally and externally in relation to these Canadian universities. External realities, for example, are political, financial, and competitive in nature. Universities are in constant dialogue with government. The realities of funding, in

particular, cost-recovery and tuition for programs that operate in this context are imposing challenges for leaders in universities. Universities that offer online curriculum are also facing competition as more traditional, single-delivery-mode universities are beginning to emerge into the market of online curriculum delivery.

While there are notable pressures from the external environment, there are also realities that arise within the universities themselves. Internal realities include funding, administrative culture, bureaucracy, research and leadership. Regarding online curriculum delivery, one of the realities is that necessary funding for all the required infrastructure to be in place. Consequently, if funding is scarce this certainly limits the ability to expand and charter the new waters of designing, developing, implementing, and maintaining quality online programming. The professional bureaucracy in a university shapes and influences administrative culture in which leadership must be exercised. As one participant stated, “the bureaucracy of running the organization operates in the old structure (p. 7)... and that creates a really big cultural expectation on how a program should be administered which then influences the way I perceive my leadership approach” (May 20, 2009, p. 14). As Bass (2008) reminds us,

although an organization and its culture influence what is expected of the leaders and what they will do, the leaders in turn, shape their organizations and culture to fit their needs. Environmental factors external to the organization and cultural factors, both external and internal, influence leader-subordinate relations inside the organization. (p. 755)

In light of the internal and external challenges identified by the participants, as leaders they will need “to seek new information, view problems in new ways, build new relationships, try out new behaviors, learn new skills, and develop a better understanding of themselves”(Yukl, 2006, p. 395).

The rhetoric on past, present, and future leadership challenges suggests that leadership in this context of higher education face numerous challenges that are dependent on their local context. Although there are some similarities, overall context, environment, and culture influence the leadership approach of participants in this study since they first took their positions. Collectively, the past, present, and future leadership challenges represent news ways of doing this, or in other words, development of a new

culture. However, this new culture exists with the old, traditional, professional bureaucratic, university structure.

As Yukl (2006) reminds us:

the change process can be described as having different stages, such as unfreezing, changing, and refreezing. Moving to quickly through the stages can endanger the success of a change effort” (p. 313)... [however] leaders can influence the organization culture, develop a vision, implement change, and encourage learning and innovation. (p. 284)

Consequently, this change of instructional delivery is in itself, challenging, as leaders in this new context attempt to forge ahead with an alternate mode of instructional delivery. Levin (1999) stated, “school context matters greatly and that many things happen outside the school that have powerful effects on the organization entirely independent of school plans or intentions” (p. 551).

Summary

This chapter presented themes and sub-themes as they emerged from the qualitative findings in this study. Through the philosophical stance of interpretivism, this chapter revealed four themes and respective sub-themes as follows: (a) Context – The Setting (*technology; model of learning; faculty categories; cost-recovery versus cost-sharing funding*); (b) Leadership Preparation (*removing barriers and improving leadership preparation*); (c) Leadership in General (*relational-oriented; vision and direction setting; organizational culture and cultural diversity; ethics*); and (d) Challenges and Tensions (*past; present; future; organizational realities*).

In the next chapter, I will bring this thesis study to a close by providing some final thoughts and reflections. Further, I will revisit the research problem and supporting research and summarize the study. Then, the study will draw to a close by concluding the findings, discussing implications for leadership practice, theory, and provide recommendations for further research.

Chapter 6

Conclusions, Implications, and Recommended Research

“Constant and determined effort breaks down all resistance and sweeps away all obstacles”. (Claude M. Bristol)

Introduction

In this chapter, I will review the main purpose and specific aims of this study in the first section. The research questions, which outlined the framework for the investigation, discussion, and analysis, are revisited. Further, the manner in which each research question was addressed is discussed. As well, there is some reflection based on the research methods and associated technologies that were used during the data collection process. In brief, this chapter reviews the research statement and supporting research questions, and enunciates the conclusions drawn from the findings, discussion and analysis of this study. Finally, the chapter concludes with implications for theory, practice, and their relationship to potentially guide future research into leadership in higher education as it relates to online curriculum delivery.

Overview of Study

The primary purpose of this study was to gain a deeper understanding of the leadership perceptions of those individuals who held the position of university chair, director, associate dean, and coordinator within the context of online curriculum delivery. This study attempted to probe into the phenomenon of leadership by extensively exploring the leadership experiences of four leaders in higher education. In order to ensure that the collection of information was accurate and sufficient, an interpretivist philosophical stance was employed. Further, qualitative research in the form of a case study was utilized to report how leadership in this unique context was perceived. Thus, the nature of reality within an interpretivist paradigm was based on understanding the interpretations that the respondents in this study ascribed to their reality. Concomitantly, it was imperative that the investigation of leadership in higher education leadership occurs with concrete situations of online curriculum delivery.

Reflection on research method. This part of the thesis reports on my rationale and experiences regarding use of Web 2.0 online technologies as a research method for conducting social science research – namely qualitative research that involved the

technique of interviewing. In realizing the strength and richness of FTF one-on-one interviews, I decided to use Web 2.0 technology; namely Skype to conduct interviews. As I began my study to explore leadership perceptions of university department chairs, or equivalent, as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery, I assumed that leader and follower relationships were established, nurtured, and sustained via “*cyber*” means. In order to learn more about leadership in this context, I was determined to employ Web 2.0 technologies as a tool for data collection to not only model my assumption but to potentially learn of other criteria that appear to affect leadership in this higher education context.

I would proclaim that one of the key attributes of Web 2.0 technologies is the ability to have “*full-duplex*” and unrestrained conversations between individuals. Further, I would posit that this type of research tool is unobtrusive, interactive, and participatory as well as ensuring that this tool was within the scope of this study when compared to other traditional methods. As such, I sought to take full advantage of the opportunity proffered by Web 2.0 technology – namely Skype for the purpose of conducting interviews.

Skype allowed me to simultaneously use different modes of communication, which also involved text whilst engaging in video-voice conversation. As well, I was able to make use of other online resources available, such as Google and an online dictionary, whilst Skyping to facilitate my own comprehension as needed. In addition, I used Microsoft Word as a form of field notes to record salient data according to the placeholders within my case study interview protocol. In order to record the interviews, I utilized Audacity, which is a digital audio editor and recording open source software application that is downloadable for free from the Internet and it automatically creates an mp3 file, which is an electronically compressed and universal audio file of the interview recording. Other hardware involved the use of PC tablets, which is a laptop computer equipped with a touchscreen and digital pen. Participants shared their willingness to use tablet PC’s to sign the consent to participate form and data transcript release form, which, in turn, these documents were electronically sent back by using Skype or email. This was far more efficient and expedient, which allowed me an opportunity to bypass traditional methods, such as “*snail mail*” or faxing technologies as originally contemplated.

Based upon my research experience with Skype in this study, I would profess that Web 2.0 technologies clearly offer a number of advantages for conducting social science research. First, there is a practical advantage in using Web 2.0 technology (*Skype*) as the researcher does not have to leave their office to interview participants. Second, using Web 2.0 for social science research methods has implications for the quality and proximity of the relationship between researcher and participant(s). For example, the interactive nature accorded through Skype allowed both researcher and participants to become more actively involved thus making the interview less obtrusive than traditional one-on-one FTF interviews. Instead, as everyday life becomes increasingly influenced by the online world, participants are able to remain in their own context, which, in turn, creates a relaxed atmosphere for participants to elicit their perceptions more openly. Third, unlike landline telephony, Skype provides researcher and participant(s) with a sense of presence as to who is on the network (*currently, away, or invisible*) as well as a missed calls list, notification of voicemail, general multimedia, and the sharing of electronic files (signed consent and data transcript release forms). Fourth, in comparison, to the “substantial costs for telephone time” (Creswell, 2005, p. 216), Skype lets you talk over the Internet to anyone in the world for “*free*” by using voice over internet protocol (VOIP) technology. Fifth, being able to multi-task in an unobtrusive way I believe allows the researcher an opportunity to simultaneously access other applications, such as MS Word, Google, or online dictionaries, to quickly further their comprehension of the data being collected or possibly probe for further clarification. Having conducted interviews previously with Skype as a curriculum consultant in combination with the experience gained in this study, I believe Web 2.0 technology has the potential to blur the boundaries between online (*virtual*) and offline (*FTF*). Thus, I would posit that Web 2.0 technologies (*Skype*) offers significant potential for social science researchers to explore, communicate, and conduct qualitative research in new and innovative ways.

Conclusions

In order to draw sound conclusions, it is essential to reflect on the research questions and their focus in this study. The purpose of this study was to explore how university department chairs’ perceive leadership as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery. Therefore, this section will articulate conclusions I made in

accordance to the purpose of the study framed by research questions that guided the thesis research.

Research question #1. The first research question asked: *What is the nature and context of the online environment in higher education and how does it impact the leadership of a department chair?* I concluded that this research question addressed the theme and respective sub-themes of (a) Context - The Setting (*technology, model of learning, faculty categories, cost recovery versus cost-sharing*); and (b) Leadership Preparation (*removing barriers and improving leadership preparation*).

I concluded that the cogency of context in this study cannot be underestimated. First, online technologies (*LMS's*) are predominantly used for content delivery, assessment, and text-generated discussions between faculty and students. Supportive technologies, such as Elluminate, are used by faculty in an attempt to move beyond the text environment to generate full-duplex communication involving audio and video with their students. This finding suggests that technology is primarily utilized for student access and not for leader-faculty cyber-based relationships. Therefore, I concluded that technology allows for the intentional blurring of instructional modes for teaching and learning between face-to-face (*FTF*) and fully online.

I also concluded that the model of learning is anomalous. In particular, cohort programming and blended learning create a centralized, bureaucratic environment which places preference over process, which, in turn, may inhibit innovation and leadership. This model of learning is in contrast to a traditional university instructional model, which is course-based and allows learners the freedom to select courses that accommodate their particular schedule.

Although faculty categories involving “*full-time*” and “*part-time*” faculty is not new, I concluded that the findings suggest that “*virtual*” faculty is novel presenting leaders with a threefold challenge. First, the ratio of “*part-time*” faculty exceeds “*full-time*” faculty. This disproportionate ratio creates a lack of continuity, low commitment and engagement, which, in turn, challenges leaders to establish non-traditional relationships. Second, “*part-time*” faculty are located everywhere except on-campus, which challenges leaders to establish cyber, non-traditional relationships with faculty. Third, the number (*supply*) of “*part-time*” faculty fluctuates based on the number

(*demand*) of students in the program. Therefore, I concluded that the uniqueness of faculty categories presents leaders with the perennial challenge of faculty engagement that is holistic.

I also posit that leaders in this context function under a cost-recovery academic premise. This conclusion is supported by participant comments such, “we are a cost-recovery unit... [and] we are funded outside of the traditional tuition policy” (Participants, Chapter Four), which, in turn, presents leaders with a different “*set of circumstances*” when compared to a traditional university department chair. By relying on cost-recovery funded tuition, leaders, in turn become more business and entrepreneurial in nature. Moreover, the focus becomes one of increased output while decreasing input costs, which translates into profit. In addition, I conclude that leaders are leveraged to continually improvise and innovate, as they may inadvertently become more business focused in a market driven by competition from other universities for the same students.

Although the findings regarding leadership preparation in this study are similar to the literature, what is not clear in the literature is what the preparation should consist of. This researcher concludes that leadership preparation is unique in this context and that the findings suggest that there are certain unique leadership competencies required. For example, an online resource guide that can guide leaders junior to this position, fiscal knowledge of budgeting as it relates to cost-recovery programming and marketing, a new faculty reward system; and general leadership opportunities, such as accessing professional development, and accessing a coaching and mentorship program prior to assuming this high profile position. Further, factors that have contributed to specific leadership strategies include: awareness of literature on leadership and gender awareness.

Research question #2. The second research question asked: *How do department chairs who work in an online higher education environment conceptualize leadership?* In response, I concluded that this research question addressed the theme and respective sub-themes of Leadership in General (*relational-oriented, vision and setting direction, organizational and cultural diversity, ethics*).

I conclude that leaders in online curriculum delivery perceive that their social environment reflects a compelling approach towards a relational-oriented style of

leadership. Thus, leaders believe in establishing and maintaining strong personal relationships while encouraging open dialogue with faculty as being instrumental to the leadership process. Further, keys to their leadership approach include the notion of transparency and “*walking the talk*,” which creates a sense of reciprocity and essentially building trust.

Of particular interest, is how leaders attempt to build and cultivate relationships to accomplish the task of vision and setting direction. In particular, participants enunciated the importance the cogency of face-to-face meetings. This finding is ironic being that learners in this context must rely heavily on online technologies to establish relationships and a social sense of belonging; whereas, leaders and faculty rely predominantly on frequent face-to-face, on-campus meetings to build relationships and set direction. Participants on the other hand perceived that technology lacks a sense of visceralness, which would make it difficult to achieve the goal of vision-setting. However, one participant did confirm his use of online technologies, such as Elluminate or Skype, to build vision through a cyber-world. Concomitantly, I concluded that this opposed the underlying assumption, such that, online, videoconferencing technologies would have been used extensively to foster and build cyber relationships with faculty.

Also, I would particularly highlight the discovery related to vision and setting direction as relevant to that of infrastructure. It was discovered that infrastructure involved more than “*purchasing computers*”, it involved an extensive human network of people. Thus, it can be concluded that leaders need to be cognizant and incorporate “*infrastructure*” in setting direction to ensure faculty commitment at the highest level.

In addition, I concluded that the findings pertaining to culture influence leadership in a distinct focus. First, leaders perceived their organization as strongly influencing their leadership approach. For example, online curriculum delivery represents a new mode of instructional delivery as compared to the traditional university lecture style.

Concomitantly, this “*new culture*” now exists and competes against the dominant “*old culture*”. However, this new culture is infused into a traditional bureaucracy, much like Weber’s “*iron-cage*”, which, in turn, challenges leaders to change and create an atmosphere of acceptance and a new way of delivering curriculum. Second, leaders in this context will need to become more cognizant of cross-cultural awareness. No longer

are leaders bound by “*brick and mortar*”; rather, globalization proliferates cultural voices and international perspectives instantaneously while individuals remain in their own context. In brief, I concluded that leaders must expand their knowledge base from a North American centric view to a more global perspective.

Furthermore, I concluded that leaders operating in a cost-recovery academic unit are faced with an ethic dimension. Given the funding arrangements, public Canadian universities operate on a cost-sharing basis (*taxpayers + learner tuition*); however, cost-recovery (*learner tuition*) funding alters the university’s operating budget formula. The issue for leaders becomes one of social justice, namely equity; whereby, the *modus operandi* for cost-recovery is profit. In particular, learners must pay higher tuition fees through cost-recovery than cost-sharing programming. This finding is new and I concluded that this situates leadership into an ethical dimension for leaders to contemplate.

Research question #3. The third research question asked: *What are the challenges or tensions for the department chair’s leadership as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery?* I concluded that this question addressed the theme and respective sub-themes of Challenges and Tensions (*past, present, future, organizational realities*).

Although the most important past leadership challenges and tensions experienced by participants were somewhat unique, I concluded that leadership is dependent on context and that no two environments are exactly alike. Further, it is difficult to determine the overall maturity of the program and academic unit. Regarding the less significant challenges, I concluded that strong relationships between leaders and faculty suggest that leaders place high confidence in faculty autonomy with respect to their research and content expertise. Thus, this reiterates the importance of building strong relationships, which, in turn, sustains harmony and continuity within the program area.

Through time, participants were more succinct in determining their most important present challenges. In brief, I concluded that the fiscal operation of a cost-recovery unit acts as an antecedent for present challenges involving: budgets, difficulties of a bureaucracy, and faculty engagement. However, the less important leadership challenge at present continued to be high levels of confidence in faculty autonomy.

Therefore, I concluded that over time, leaders are able to sustain a high degree of trust in faculty research specialties and content expertise.

The most important future challenges suggests that leaders are primarily optimistic. Conversely, I concluded that an entrepreneurial spirit also accompanies the nature of optimism suggesting the “*business-like*” nature of cost-recovery programming. Further, I concluded that technology along with changing demographics will continue to influence the leadership approach in online curriculum delivery.

Collectively, I concluded that past, present, and future challenges represent organizational realities that leaders must contend with. Moreover, organizational realities, albeit internal (*funding, administrative culture, bureaucracy, and leadership*) and external (*political, financial, competition, leadership, and demographics*) will continue to prompt leaders to alter their leadership approach.

Implications for Practice

The findings in this study convey several practical implications for leadership in higher education. In no particular order, the implications are as follows:

Balance between administrator and scholar. Leaders need to realize the cogency of balancing their time commitment between being an administrator (*leader and manager*) as well as being a faculty member. In other words, the position of leader is challenging, in that, they must recognize the needs of faculty while also acknowledging the requirements of upper administration (*dean*). Do leaders view themselves as faculty? Or, do they see themselves exclusively as administrators and severed from faculty responsibilities? In brief, they are required to balance institutional demands versus faculty demands.

Leadership preparation. A comprehensive leadership preparation training program is required, as well as the necessary release time to prepare for the leadership role. In order to mirror the leadership context in online curriculum delivery, universities should consider offering online leadership preparation programs as an antecedent and requirement prior to assuming such an integral leadership role. Further, the research findings in this study could be utilized and built into a comprehensive leadership training program specific to this context. Moreover the findings are unique to a Canadian educational context, which is based on the powers found within the Canadian constitution

and respective provincial ministries. There is a preponderance of literature that resonates from the United States; however, their model of national governance is fundamentally different from Canada. In turn, the findings can be added to a leadership preparation program by proffering a Canadian voice. The answer to solving the dilemma of leadership preparation can perhaps be found in the words of Yukl (2006), “[a] systems approach to leadership development will become more common as more organizations realize that this activity is as strategically important for the long-term organizational effectiveness as product development, marketing, and customer service” (p. 414).

Degree proposals. Given the relative novelty of online curriculum delivery, leaders in higher education along with the university faculty council and senate will need to be extremely astute when submitting degree proposals to respective provincial ministries in Canada for approval. First, leaders will be faced with the implication of being required to provide evidence of financial viability by articulating the fiscal plan to implement a new degree program. For example, they will need to include costs for new faculty and support staff, expected tuition sources of revenue, as well as a risk analysis of potential threats, albeit internal or external, to the new program. Second, leaders will be summoned to provide implications of program specifics. For instance, the model of learning will need to be disclosed as well as the proposed teaching and learning approach by justifying why the particular chosen method is viable. In addition, the technology and required infrastructure will need to be detailed as a means of rationalizing the approach for online curriculum delivery. Third, leaders new to their position and to the development of a new online degree program will need to be savvy in how they devise a program implementation plan from launch to maturity. Fourth, leaders will need to forecast a staffing plan by elaborating on faculty categories and required support staffing requirements. Collectively, these also affect vision and setting direction. This implication is underscored by the words of Bolman and Deal (2008), “A vision without a strategy remains an illusion. A strategy has to recognize major forces working for and against the agenda (p. 215)... and success requires the cooperation of many others” (p. 219).

Implications for Theory

Further, the findings in this study convey several implications for theory as it relates to leadership in higher education. In no particular order, the implications are as follows:

Leadership. The findings in this study contribute toward the knowledge base in educational administration and leadership in higher education, such that, context is paramount and the notion of entrepreneurialism is a significant element of leadership. Technology has undoubtedly changed teaching and learning, in turn, this change mirrors itself in the thought patterns of how leaders may navigate in the face of globalization and the business market of competing for the same students. Technology, imbalanced faculty categories, the model of learning, and the financial *modus operandi* of cost-recovery within an educational environment, which is predominantly centered on cost-sharing policy, constantly challenge leaders in this context. Further, globalization and online learning are an omnipresent fact of life, which, in turn, invokes how leaders in this context build relationships, how they perceive cultural diversity, and how an entrepreneurial spirit of efficiency impacts and leverages the overall ethical conduct of leadership. Also, changing demographics, rapid adoption of technology by learners, and innovative models of learning will continue to challenge leaders to “*think outside the box*”. Technology, specifically the World Wide Web and the Internet, also challenge leaders to metaphorically transform traditional lecture-style universities into information processing brains to match the digital age. Thus, the digital age (*World Wide Web and the Internet*) and its associated “*new tools*” are creating “*new schools*” of thought for the field of education administration and leadership in higher education, which demands further, and ongoing research. What metric(s) will be used to measure leadership in this context? That being said, I suspect that a leader’s effectiveness will depend on how well the leader’s style fits the context and how different situations demand different kinds of leadership; essentially affecting their approach to leadership. As Hoy (1994) admitted, “one dilemma is to try to capture what is while anticipating what will be” (p. 180).

Cost recovery. By fiscally operating on a cost-recovery basis, there is also a triad relationship between leaders, faculty, and learners. Students, for example, may not be accorded social justice in terms of equity; essentially, being limited by lower socio-

economic backgrounds that prevent them from otherwise accessing the high costs of programming. In turn, cost-recovery tuition infers that leaders of their departments or specialization areas must set the necessary criteria for students who wish to enroll in a particular program. I suspect that economic pressures will cause leaders to adjust entrance criteria for learners, which is dependent on the global market for online learning. How do leaders demonstrate that premium tuition fees charged through cost-recovery programming pose a benefit to “*all*” students or the university as a whole? Leaders in this context, must justify that tuition barriers for learners are acceptable in lieu of generating a profit. Of great concern, is whether universities are relying upon their leaders to use this mode of instructional programming to rely on students to account for the shortfall in their overall operating budget? Based on findings in this study, I suspect that the notion of cost-recovery programming is being used as a means to de-stabilize provincial government funding.

Faculty categories, for example, become disproportionate in terms of numbers. There is a larger pool of contract faculty versus tenured, full-time faculty because of the lower costs associated, which, in turn, creates pressure on the leader to establish and sustain higher levels of engagement and commitment from “*part-timers*”. This imbalanced ratio also becomes a perennial problem that affects vision and setting direction because “*part-time*” faculty have low commitment to the university. Is this imbalanced ratio possible and can this imbalanced ratio continue to occur without impacting the learners and the quality of their experience? Given this fiscal dilemma, leaders will not only be constantly challenged to create and facilitate a shared communal vision; they will be further challenged in mobilizing faculty into putting effort into that vision.

Because of the fiscal operation associated with cost-recovery, leaders must gravitate towards entrepreneurialism. Cost-recovery programming exerts greater pressure on leaders as they function within a large cost-sharing and traditional university model. Consequently, I suspect this fiscal operation pressures “*educational leaders*” to espouse and exercise “*business practices*” based on efficiency with the end goal of generating a profit. In turn, this creates a heightened sense of accountability. How are leaders in this context held accountable? Of great concern, is how leaders in this context

prevent or enhance the growing privatization of their campuses? Cost-recovery contradicts the ideal of a university academy, which is predominantly based on public funding; thus, does cost-recovery programming have a place in a public university? Appreciating the economic principles of supply (*number of competing universities*) and demand (*number of learners*), I suspect that leaders in online curriculum delivery will be further challenged in times of economic adversity. This picture that emerges, supports the conclusion that leaders who function in a cost-recovery program need to exhibit a strong sense of entrepreneurial leadership; not only in prosperous economic times but more importantly, when there is a declining economy as it was mentioned in the findings in this study.

Technology. The knowledge base in educational administration and leadership does very little to provide scholars and practitioners with any understanding regarding the evolving knowledge cluster of leading technological change amidst this digital age; namely, online learning technologies. Although the explosion of World Wide Web and the Internet have fostered many possibilities, such as online curriculum delivery, it also presents a kaleidoscope of challenges for leadership in higher education. Technology and the interaction between scholarship and practice in the field of educational administration is changing pedagogy, professional development, information literacy and media awareness in a variety of ways, which, in turn, challenges how leaders in higher education create a vision for technological change. How are leaders helping faculty make the pedagogical paradigm shift in using new emerging technologies to foster meaningful integration for online curriculum delivery? Will these technologies change how we assess students? Will a student's "*data mashup*" posted on YouTube be equivalent to an argumentative essay? Change no longer happens slowly; instead, it is ongoing and leaders in this context are in a constant state of flux. As Yukl (2006) reminds us, "The change process can be described as having different stages, such as unfreezing, changing, and refreezing. Moving to quickly through the stages can endanger the success of a change effort" (p. 313). Leaders are constantly faced with expanding pressures that equal the advantages proffered by technology.

Cultural diversity. Given the globalization proffered by online learning, there is a triad relationship between leaders, faculty, and learners. The findings have implications

for leaders, in particular, the importance of understanding a plethora of cultures and their diversities. Leaders, for example, need to become aware of their cultural biases so that they can become better communicators across cultural boundaries, which, in turn, will encourage them to be more empathetic in their communication with other individuals (*faculty, students, and support staff*). Further, leaders in this context must be aware that certain faculty and students may not be able to understand certain terms or policies used within a program; more specifically, within the courses. This inference is made not on the basis of language ability, but also, due to ignorance of local and international cultural norms. Leaders, as well as faculty, must be cognizant that if certain curricula topics of discussion incorporate social mores, such as educational policy, that they recognize the commitment to provide additional resources and include sufficient sampling of international and cultural resources in their discussions. In other words, leaders in higher education ought to be more sensitive towards the notion of globalization as they move away from the centric view of a North American standard.

Ethics and equity. In the context of online curriculum delivery, access to higher education is limited to those who can afford the cost of tuition, which is typically more than traditional face-to-face instructional delivery. This mode of curriculum delivery necessitates the need for financial assistance to low-income students. What percentage of students will need to seek financial support for programs offered online? Leaders in higher education must proceed with caution by recognizing and acknowledging issues of equity when implementing or adopting cost-recovery programming such as online curriculum delivery. Thus consideration needs to be given to the learner and all facets of their cognitive development in an attempt to promote equity and social justice to better address the needs of “*all*” stakeholders. How are leaders using morality as a rubric to judge the validity and applicability of their personal values against presented policies and ideals of the university?

The real issue then becomes, how do leaders assure accessibility for students from lower-socioeconomic backgrounds? Moreover, how do leaders determine which way tuition fees will vary? Is it by cost of the program, market demand, or potential future earnings of graduates? In short, this establishes the awareness that there are some issues that arise with moral ethics and leadership in this context. The issue of ethics and

leadership can be found in the following words posited by Northouse (2007), “leadership has a moral dimension, being a leader demands awareness on our part of the way our ethics defines our leadership” (p. 358).

Organizational change. The constant evolution of technology in this context creates an accelerated notion of change within a traditional, bureaucratic culture. For leaders, this creates a myriad of problems, especially the ongoing challenge of fostering relationships and an ever-revolving vision. As an example of change, it should be noted that online curriculum delivery is also challenging the traditional bureaucratic system in that, titles of the leadership positions are inconsistent (*associate dean, director, coordinator, chair*) but similar in areas of responsibility, tasks, academic credentials, and role typologies occupied by traditional university department chairs.

The world of online learning constantly positions leaders as change agents. Thus, accelerated change sparked by technology may place pressure on leaders as ongoing change agents who are “responsible for promoting and guiding the change” (Bolman & Deal, 2008, p. 382) as they will be challenged to “shrink the gap between [their] intentions and outcomes” (p. 374) regarding online curriculum delivery. Concomitantly, organizational change will result, which is created by this “*new culture*” of online curriculum delivery within the predominant, professional bureaucratic structure of the traditional university. Thus, this new non-traditional culture of delivering curriculum will challenge the existing culture and organizational doctrine of a traditional university. The message of organizational change in this study is similar to the words proffered by Bolman and Deal (2008), “change disrupts existing patterns of roles and relationships, producing confusion and uncertainty [and leaders need] transition rituals [to] celebrate the future [and] help people let go of old attachments and embrace new ways of doing things” (p. 396).

Following the work of Argyris and Schon, the organizational change found in this study will become the beacon for organizational learning as being a constant, such that, leaders in the context of online curriculum delivery along with their organizations will need to be cognizant to sense changes from within their environment, albeit external or internal, and respond by collectively adapting to the constant of change appropriately. In essence, globalization of online curriculum delivery will challenge leaders and traditional

universities towards coercive isomorphism, such that, external pressures of competition will entice change as more and more traditional universities begin to offer online curriculum delivery.

Implications for Research

Finally, based on the findings, conclusions, and implications of this study there are several questions that warrant future research into the phenomenon of leadership in higher education. The following list a number of research topics that come to mind:

1. Future researchers will need to attend to the cultural voices of leaders in higher education when investigating the leadership experiences from different cultures.
2. Explore how knowledge of finance and marketing impact the leadership position when comparing cost-sharing and cost-recovery university run programs.
3. Further research needs to determine if it is a generational issue as to why leaders in the context of online curriculum delivery rely on face-to-face meetings instead of cyber opportunities to build relationships.
4. Accountability, and cost-recovery dilemma. Further research is required to determine if there are any significant differences between levels of accountability between leadership in one instructional mode (FTF) when compared to the other modes (augmented, blended, fully online).
5. Further research must be conducted on how technology affects issues related to gender, diversity, equity, school effectiveness theory, access, duty to accommodate, inclusion, culture, and our understanding of organizational theory?
6. Given the large amount of investment associated with educational technology, how do leaders evaluate efficient and effective use of technology to validate the investment and communicate accountability to stakeholders?

Concluding Comments

The major purpose of this thesis research was to explore how university department chairs (*or equivalent*) perceive leadership as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery. I critically examined and analyzed leadership perceptions of four leaders from three separate Canadian universities. In brief, the salient themes and sub-themes that emerged in this study were: (a) Context – The Setting (*technology, model of learning, faculty categories, cost-recovery versus cost-sharing*); (b) Leadership Preparation (*removing barriers and improving leadership preparation*); (c) Leadership in General (*relational-oriented, vision and direction setting, organizational culture and cultural diversity, ethics*); and (d) Challenges and Tensions (*past, present, future, organizational realities*).

Although the experiences of the four leaders in this study have unique characteristics, the findings converged to present similar concerns. A central concern for most, was the question of how leadership is exercised in this context. Even though the World Wide Web has become widespread, I learned that the use of online technologies is not ubiquitous for leaders in the context of online curriculum delivery to foster “*cyber-relationships*”. Instead, relationships are built between leaders and faculty by relying on traditional face-to-face means instead of “*cyber-relationships*” as first anticipated. This is paradoxical, such that, learners are required to extensively build their relationships and establish a community of learners primarily through online technologies. Thus, the experiences of these four leaders in higher education have raised questions about the advice available in the literature.

Of great concern for leaders in this context, is the requirement of a heightened awareness of entrepreneurial leadership. Leaders will continue to be challenged in the economic arena of competition and they will need to respond with a “*survival of the fittest*” frame of mind as they will rely on technology as a strategic driver to be innovative, creative, and “*think outside the box*” in setting the direction for the world of online curriculum delivery in higher education.

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Appendix A

Introductory Letter to Participants

Introductory Letter to Participants
Leadership in Online Curriculum Delivery

Hello,

My name is Collin Elkow. I am a graduate student in the Department of Educational Policy Studies at the University of Alberta. As a graduate student, I am required to conduct thesis research as the final requirement for my Master's degree in Educational Administration and Leadership. As the principal investigator, I would like to invite you to participate my thesis research project which is entitled *Leadership in Online Curriculum Delivery*.

I am conducting a qualitative case study that will explore how department chairs/coordinators/directors perceive leadership as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery. My intent is that this study will yield insights for practitioners; provide direction for research while adding to the knowledge base of leadership in higher education, and influence leadership preparation and development initiatives.

I will be conducting one-on-one interviews and reviewing documents as they pertain to the focus of this research. I am seeking department chairs/coordinators/directors, specifically those that occupy positions in an augmented face-to-face online learning environment, blended (face-to-face + online) learning environment and / or a fully online learning environment. The Faculties of Education, Extension, Augustana, and Campus Saint-Jean (EEASJ REB) Research Ethics Board at the University of Alberta have approved the plan for this research on ethical grounds.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary, and if you participate in an interview I will strive to protect your confidentiality. If you are interested in participating, I would be very pleased to organize a time to sit down with you or engage in an Elluminate or Skype videoconference and chat. Please send me a quick email at celkow@ualberta.ca or give me a call at 780-893-0190 if you have any further questions. This study is being conducted under the supervision of Dr. Paul Newton. You may contact my supervisor by email at pmnewton@ualberta.ca or by phone 780-492-0773.

I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Best Regards,

Collin Elkow
 MEd Candidate

Appendix B

Letter of Consent for Interview Participants

Letter of Consent for Interview Participants

Leadership in Online Curriculum Delivery

Dear Participant “X”,

This is a letter requesting your participation and consent in a thesis research study that is being conducted by Collin Elkow. Collin Elkow is a graduate student in the Faculty of Education at the University of Alberta in the Department of Educational Policy Studies. As a graduate student, I am required to conduct research as the final requirement for my Master’s Degree in Educational Administration and Leadership. The study being undertaken is entitled, *Leadership in Online Curriculum Delivery*, which will commence in the next couple of weeks and will conclude at the end of December 2009.

The research being conducted is a qualitative case study that will explore how department chairs / coordinators / directors perceive leadership as it relates to the context of online curriculum delivery. The potential benefits of your participation will yield insights for practitioners; provide direction for research while adding to the knowledge base of leadership in higher education, and influence leadership preparation and development initiatives.

For each site, I will be employing a semi-structured interview lasting approximately one and a half hours and, if needed, a follow up interview lasting one hour. I will also employ member checking and allow participants an opportunity to verify transcription of the data collected from the interview, which, in turn, participants can make any necessary additions or deletions. Participation is voluntary and participants may choose not to participate at all, or may withdraw from the study at any time. If participants choose to withdraw from this study, all personal information will be returned to them. As the principal investigator throughout this study, I will exercise due diligence by advising participants of any new information that may have a bearing on their decision to continue.

Please be assured that I will protect the anonymity of participants and each university. Participants’ name will not appear on any information presented and the same will apply for each study site location. In the case of publications, reports, and scholarly presentations I will refer to participants and universities with pseudonyms. Furthermore, each participant will have the opportunity to review the final document and will have the right to request that information that may potentially identify them be deleted from the completed research report. The data collected in this study will be stored for a minimum of five years in the Department of Educational Policy Studies (as required by University of Alberta guidelines), and will not allow for identification of any individual. Based upon the above-mentioned precautions, there are no foreseeable risks in this study.

Please be advised that I will take all measures possible to ensure confidentiality and anonymity of your participation; however, there are limitations on confidentiality that arise when research is conducted. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study, you may contact me (Collin Elkow) by email at celkow@ualberta.ca or by phone 780-496-9340 or 780-893-0190. This study is being conducted under the supervision of Dr. Paul Newton. If you wish, you may contact my supervisor by email at pmnewton@ualberta.ca or by phone 780-492-0773.

The plan for this study has been reviewed for its adherence to ethical guidelines and approved by the Faculties of Education, Extension, Augustana, and Campus Saint-Jean Research Ethics Board (EEASJ REB) at the University of Alberta. For questions regarding participant rights and ethical conduct of research, contact the Chair of the EEASJ REB at (780) 492-3751.

Statement of Consent

I (please print your name) _____, agree to participate in this study, *Leadership in Online Curriculum Delivery*.

I agree to:

- participate in a single one and a half-hour semi-structured interview.
- participate in a second interview should the interviewer require clarification or elaboration.
- have the interview electronically audio taped for transcription.
- review a summary of the interview and verify its accuracy.

I understand that:

- the researcher will ensure anonymity and confidentiality at all times, and that my name will not be released or used; it will be replaced with a pseudonym in all documents.
- data will be kept in a secure locked place and only the researcher (or later Supervisor) has access to it.
- the final work from this research will be used mainly for the researcher's dissertation write-up, and that the results will also be used in academic conferences and publications.
- my signature below indicates that I understand the participation guidelines in this study and that I have had an opportunity to have my questions answered by the principal investigator.

Name of Participant (Please Print)

Signature of Participant

Name of Principal Investigator
(Please Print)

Signature of Principal Investigator

Date: _____

Please note, a copy of this consent will be left with you, and a copy will be taken by the principal investigator.

Appendix C

Case Study Interview Protocol and Interview Questions

Case Study Interview Preamble

Please note, recording of interviews will begin with acquisition of participant name and oral consent using the following script.

Hello, Dr./Mrs./Miss/Mr. (Participant name) – I appreciate your willingness to take time to participate in this interview and assist me with my research. I am Collin Elkow principle investigator for this study and today's date is XX/XX/XX. As you know, I am studying higher education leadership as it relates to online curriculum delivery as outlined in the introductory letter previously sent to you. All answers that you will provide will be kept confidential and pseudonyms will be used in place of your name and university. Your participation in this interview is completely voluntary and you may withdraw your permission at any time without any repercussions or penalty. If you have any questions regarding participant rights and ethical conduct of research, contact the Chair of the Faculties of Education, Extension, Augustana, and Campus Saint-Jean Research Ethics Board (EEASJ REB) at (780) 492-3751.

- 1) Could you please state your name?
- 2) Have you received, read, understood, and signed the "Letter of Consent" to participate in this study?
- 3) Having received in advance a copy of the interview questions, do you agree to participate in this study by answering the questions?
- 4) For purposes of this research and with your permission, I will be recording this Skype/Elluminate/Telephone/Face-to-Face interview – do you agree or disagree?

If the response is negative, the interview is terminated

Assuming a positive response...

General Background Questions

First, I would like to ask you a few brief background questions:

- 1.) Please state your job title.
- 2.) How long have you been in your current position? (ie. department chair / director / coordinator)
- 3.) What is your educational background?
- 4.) Could you provide a general overview of your department?
- 5.) What leader(s) past or present do you admire? Why?

Ok, I will now proceed to ask you some general questions, please feel free to respond to these questions with as much detail as you desire.

Case Study Interview Questions: Leadership in Online Curriculum Delivery

- 1.) Among the many definitions of leadership, from your experience, what does leadership mean?
- 2.) What are the characteristics that you think an effective leader should have?
- 3.) When you first started in your position, what was the “one” most important leadership challenge? What was the “one” least? And Why?
- 4.) At the present time, what is the “one” most important leadership challenge? What is the “one” least important? And Why?
- 5.) How do you bring faculty together to work together toward a common vision?
- 6.) From your perspective, could you describe some of the ethical issues pertaining to leadership? Provide some examples?
- 7.) Are there tensions between the demands of the institution and your leadership values? Please explain.
- 8.) What are the perceptions of your leadership by the faculty members in your department?
- 9.) How do you motivate faculty to ensure they demonstrate a commitment towards a shared vision?
- 10.) Based on your experience, how do you yourself stimulate creativity for new ways of doing things?
- 11.) How do you create an environment of empowerment?
- 12.) In your opinion, in what ways do cultural expectations (albeit internal or external) influence your leadership approach?
- 13.) Based on your leadership experience, how do you establish a supportive climate where individual differences are respected?

- 14.) From your leadership perspective, how do you assist faculty in developing their strengths and potential?
- 15.) Describe the factors that contributed to the development of your leadership approach?
- 16.) Does your university provide any support or incentives for you to enhance your leadership skills?
 - a. If yes, can you please describe?
 - b. If no, can you please indicate what support is needed?
- 17.) From your experience how would you describe when leadership is considered effective?
- 18.) In contrast, how would you describe when leadership is considered ineffective?
- 19.) In the future, what do you perceive to be the “one” most important leadership challenge? What will be the “one” least important? And Why?
- 20.) Is there any other information you would like to share that would assist in understanding leadership of the department chair/coordinator/director?



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****Thank you for participating in this interview****

Appendix D

Data/Transcript Release Form for Interview Participants

Data/Transcript Release Form for Interview Participants

Leadership in Online Curriculum Delivery

Dear Participant “X”,

I very much appreciate your participation in this study. Please fill in your name below, read and place an “X” in the statements that follow, and if you are comfortable that the transcript accurately reflects your words from the interview, please sign where indicated.

I _____, have reviewed the completed transcript of my personal interview and acknowledge that the transcripts accurately reflect what I said in my interview(s).

☐ I authorize the researcher, Collin Elkow, to use any artifacts that I have provided for this study.

☐ I hereby authorize the release of this transcript to Collin Elkow to be used in the manner described in the letter of consent.

☐ I have received a copy of this Data/Transcript Release form for my own records.

Name of Participant (Please Print)

Signature of Participant

Name of Principal Investigator (Please Print)

Signature of Principal Investigator

Date:

Thank you for participating in this study. Your assistance and contributions are greatly appreciated.