LEADERSHIP STYLES AND CULTURAL SENSITIVITY OF DEPARTMENT

CHAIRS AT TEXAS PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES

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As the U.S. population diversifies, so do its higher education institutions. Leadership at these institutions should be prepared for this diversification of students, faculty, and staff.  The purpose of this study was to gain greater knowledge about the leadership styles and cultural sensitivity of department chairs.  Survey research was used to determine if department chairs' leadership styles correlated with their cultural sensitivity.  The target population was department chairs from public universities in the state of Texas.  The survey was distributed to 406 randomly selected department chairs.  The participants completed three measures: Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LDBQ) for leadership style, the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS) for cultural sensitivity, and a demographic questionnaire (gender, age range, race/ethnicity, and years of service as department chair).  The sample included 165 usable surveys (40% return rate).  The department chairs were primarily male (72%), White (78%), and over 50 (71%) years of age.

First, a statistically significant negative correlation ($r = -.431$, $p < .0001$) occurred between LBDQ overall scores and overall ISS scores: As chairs scored higher on leadership ability, they scored lower on intercultural sensitivity.  Second, leadership style by demographic variable displayed mixed results.  No significant difference was found for leadership style by age, gender, years of service, or region of service.  For ethnicity, White participants scored significantly lower than Minority participants on the LBDQ scales of consideration ($t$ [162] = -2.021, $p = .045$), structure ($t$ [162] = -2.705, $p = $

.008), and overall ($t$ [162] = -2.864, $p$ = .005).  Minority participants might work more diligently to increase their leadership abilities based on their higher LDBQ scores.

Third, findings on intercultural sensitivity by demographic variable were mixed.  No statistical significance was observed between any of the ISS scales and age, gender, years of service, and region.  For ethnicity, Minority participants' scores showed significantly lower intercultural sensitivity than White participants scores on two of six ISS subscales: interaction enjoyment ($t$ = -2.46, $p$ = .015) and respect ($t$ = 2.107, $p$ = .037).  It was concluded that the Minority and White department chairs' leadership style and intercultural sensitivity differences could be due in part to differences in the chairs' ethnic affiliations, associated cultural backgrounds, and views of dominant versus non-dominant cultures.  Recommendations for study are included.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The population landscape at institutions of higher education is changing.  The

National Center for Education Statistics (2011) reported that in 1976, 15% of students

were minorities, compared to 32% in 2010.  Much of the change was attributed to the

rising numbers of Hispanic and Asian students.  When the ethnic breakdown of staff

and faculty at institutions in fall 2009 was studied, some 7% of faculties were Black, 6%

were Asian, 4% were Hispanic, and 1% was American Indian.  Close to 20% of all

faculty members at these institutions were minority.  The composition of institutions of

higher education continues to change, and leadership at these institutions should be

ready for this diversity, not only of their students but also of staff and faculty as well.

Demographic racial projections indicate that by the year 2050, the United States

population will be close to 50% minority (Seibert, Stridh-Igo, & Zimmerman, 2002).

About 10 years ago American universities may have seen an international

population from only certain geographical areas; however, most universities now

receive international students from many countries.  Universities are beginning to see

an increase in diverse staff and faculty.  Therefore, a leader's ability to adapt and match

one's style to different cultures plays an important role in the organization's success.

For department chairs, learning about the different cultures of their staff and students

allows them to recognize any cross-cultural issues that might affect how a student or

staff member sees the university (Daft, 1999).

Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) defined the department chair as a mid level manager who has to deal with faculty, staff, students, curriculum, budget, and planning.  The department chair provides the link between administrators and faculty, staff, and students.  This means department chairs are constantly working with diverse people and must be able to adapt to diverse situations.  Department chairs need to resist the urge to view the world strictly through their own experiences, values, and views (Moodian, 2009).

Formal training, instruction, or orientation for department chairs is often non-existent (Bennett, 1982; Tucker, 1984).  Many times the training that is offered to department chairs is focused on fiscal and reporting responsibilities or campus policies (Montez, Wolverton, & Gmelch, 2002) and is mostly classroom training.  Department chairs are placed into their positions with little to no knowledge of budgeting, staffing, or supervising.  They are responsible for working with diverse staff, faculty, and students.  As leaders, department chairs need to be aware of all their position brings and be ready to take the necessary steps to lead the department.  Leadership is about change and adapting, not maintaining the status quo (Kouzes & Posner, 2003; Zenger, Ulrich, & Smallwood, 2000).

After the 2001 terrorist attacks in the United States, the Federal Bureau of Investigation reconstructed its basic training for new recruits (Parvis, 2003).  This training now includes cultural awareness, which covers training in body language and the understanding of Islam.  Many other organizations have incorporated cultural diversity training into their operations (Moodian, 2009).  This practice suggests that the leaders of today must be able to demonstrate effective, culturally-competent skills.  This

broader range of thinking can lead to a more collaborative relationship between the leader and his or her subordinates.  A more culturally diverse workplace encourages and facilitates the inclusion of individuals and their differences.  As a result some may see an increase in productivity and employee satisfaction (Moodian, 2009).  For a university the department chair plays a vital role in implementing diversity within the department.

Studies addressing the leadership styles of higher education department chairs are limited.  Some researchers have investigated the department chair transition from research and teaching to managing (Arter, 1981); their management skills and mobility (Sagaria, 1988; Sagaria & Krotseng, 1986); the department chair's dilemma and stress in the new leadership position (Cleveland, 1960; Wolverton, Gmelch, Wolverton, & Sarros, 1999); and the department chair's perception of his or her style of leadership (Whitsett, 2002).  However, the research has no direct or no mention of cultural sensitivity in department chair studies.

Being more aware of various cultures has benefits for department chairs. Department chairs of today not only face the challenges of budgets and working with administrators, but also dealing with a more diverse population of people.  They may not know how to move from the traditional ways of dealing with diversity to more effective ways to produce a more inclusive work environment.  One can speculate that a department chair who is more aware of the diverse population one is working with carries that knowledge over to one's faculty, staff, and students.  This transferability in turn increases the department chair's staff and faculty satisfaction, as well as enables students to feel more comfortable within their department.  In business, effective

intercultural communication enhances business opportunities and leads to profits (Ulrey & Amason, 2001).  Daft (1999) reported that "leaders can be aware of cultural and sub-cultural differences in order to lead effectively in a multicultural environment" (p. 310). He added that "successful leaders in an increasingly multicultural world have a responsibility to acknowledge and value cultural differences and understand how diversity affects organizational operations and outcomes" (pp. 300-301).  Given the limited amount of research regarding department chairs' leadership styles and cultural adaptability, this research topic represented an important issue for today's department chairs.

<div align="center">Purpose of the Study</div>

The literature regarding leadership theories often regards college presidents and other upper-level administration, even though 80% of all administrative decisions in higher education are made at the department level (Wolverton et al., 1999).  Moodian (2009) called for "better prepare[d] leaders for the broad changes that accompany the current global environment" (p. 119).  But are departments ready to make those decisions?  As department chairs become more involved with the culturally diverse population of institutions, part of their leadership responsibility will be to become more culturally competent.  Through studying department chairs' leadership styles and intercultural sensitivity, it was possible to determine if there was a relationship between the two which could help determine which leadership style is more culturally sensitive.

The efficiency of a department chair is an important factor which can affect the quality of an institution.  A department chair that is able to develop a relationship with staff, faculty, students, and leaders of the college is able to devote more time to his/her

own department to continue to help it to grow.  To develop a relationship with the culturally diverse staff, faculty, and students the department chairs should have an understanding and sensitivity to those different cultures.  If department chairs have certain social behaviors and interpersonal values that seem to work effectively with diverse groups within their institution and outside, then there could be leadership styles which are more favorable for developing cultural competence.  According to Daft (1999), leadership style is significant to leadership because it can be learned.  A leader's style can usually be predicted depending on the situation (Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson, & Bond, 1989).  Understanding how leadership style impacts cultural adaptation may assist with developing more culturally competent department chairs.  Therefore, the purpose of this study was to gain greater knowledge about the leadership styles and cultural sensitivity of department chairs.

## Conceptual Framework

Existing literature regarding department chairs has focused on their lack of training, the type of leader they are (Aziz, Mullins, & Balzer, 2005; Whitsett, 2007). There is a scarcity of research regarding a department chair's cultural sensitivity.  To address this gap this particular study explored the correlation between department chairs' leadership styles and cultural sensitivity.

Leaders possess certain skills and traits that are conductive to working with diverse groups, both inside and outside of the university.  However, some leadership styles are more adaptable to develop a leader's cultural competence.  For example, there are leaders who are able to motivate, inspire, and encourage change (Bass & Avolio, 1994).  These are called transformational leaders.  Transformational leaders'

behaviors are contingent upon the situation, as described in the contingency theory (Fiedler, 1967). There must be a good fit between a leader's style and the condition of the situation for the leader to be effective (Daft, 1999).

Davis (1995) stated that for someone to be considered culturally competent, certain characteristics must be considered. For example the ability to recognize that some cultures require richer communication patterns which can include gesturing and tone of voice, while others are more low context and require just basic verbal communication (Davis 1995). Lorange (2003) added that "global thinking is becoming the fact of the day" (p. 216). Learning how to work and be effective with various cultures is necessary for today's leaders.

Through increased opportunities for education, immigration, and higher numbers of women and minorities in the workplace, the United States workforce is no longer a homogeneous group of people who look, think, and behave in the same way (Tuleja, 2005). Tuleja (2005) added that with this new surge of people there are likely to be cultural problems, which arise from differences in behavior, thinking, assumptions, and values. These cultural differences can produce misunderstandings and lead to ineffectiveness in face to face communications. Gannon (2004) stated that "there are many good reasons for studying cross-cultural differences, including a conservative estimate that between 25% and 50% of our basic values stem from culture." With today's institutes of higher education being more diverse department chairs need to be more culturally sensitive to help them interact more effectively with people different from themselves.

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between leadership style of Texas public university chairs and their cultural sensitivity?

2. What is the relationship between certain demographics of department chairs at Texas public universities and their leadership style?

3. What is the relationship between certain demographics of department chairs at Texas public universities and their cultural sensitivity?

Definitions

- Culture. A collection of behaviors, beliefs, values, activities, and patterns of communication shared in common with a large group of people (Graham & Miller, 1995).

- Intercultural sensitivity. To be effective in other cultures, people must be interested in other cultures, be sensitive to notice cultural differences and willing to modify their behavior as an indication of respect for people of other cultures (Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992).

- Leadership. Within a given situation the process of influencing the activities of a group or individuals towards a goal in a certain situation (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996).

- Leadership style. The behavior patterns exhibited when attempting to influence others (Hersey et al., 1996).

Limitations

There are two major limitations to this study.  The first limitation is this study is a self report study.  When self reporting there is the issue of the person only giving their

own perception.  The second limitation is there are no norms for the Leadership

Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ).  Being able to determine if the department

chairs have certain leadership styles is not possible due to there being no norms.

Summary

Enrollment trends indicate that institutions of higher education will continue to

see a culturally diverse population of students, staff, and faculty.  Deal (2003) said

"cultural adaptability is an essential competency for leading in a global environment" (p.

7).  Deal (2003) continued saying these interactions, which happen daily with bosses,

peers, and direct reports and with people of all different cultures, are often not handled

properly, which in turn causes frustration, stress, and misunderstandings.  Daft (1999)

stated that "it is important for leaders to recognize that culture impacts both style and

the leadership situation" (p. 310).  If a department chair walks into a room with students

from South Asia and they all stand up, the department chair needs to be able to

recognize that the students are being respectful based on what is expected within their

own culture (Moodian, 2009).  Moodian (2009) reported "viewing cultures is having a

distribution of behaviors which allows for us to accommodate for individual differences"

(p. 193).  Developing an intercultural competence by developing a set of behavioral

skills and competence that are used for appropriate interactions with culturally diverse

groups is important for department chairs.  Therefore, department chairs must continue

to learn how to work with culturally diverse groups.  The purpose of this study was to

gain greater knowledge about the leadership styles, and cultural sensitivity of

department chairs.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The literature review is organized to define leadership and examine various

theories of leadership.  The review includes trait theories, behavior theory, contingency

theories, and transformational and transactional leadership theories across cultures,

related to department chairs.  Last, culture and elements of cultural sensitivity are

reviewed.  Of these theories transactional and transformational leadership have been

chosen as the framework as has been published in higher education literature as having

the characteristics needed by administrators within higher education.

Defining Leadership

Since the 1700s words such as *head of state*, *chief*, or *king* were used to

describe a leader (Bass & Stogdill, 1990).  However, the word *leadership* did not appear

until the first half of the nineteenth century.  If 10 people are asked to define leadership,

10 very different answers will probably be given (Moodian, 2009).  Researchers cannot

agree on one definition of leadership because researchers focus on different aspects of

leadership.  Some have focused on personality, physical traits, or behaviors.  Others

have studied the relationship between leaders and followers, and yet others have

investigated how a situation affects the way a leader acts (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy,

1993).

Since the early 1900s scholars and other writers have developed more than 350

definitions of leadership (Daft, 1999), but to date there is no one, single, conclusive

definition on which theorists can agree.  According to Burns (1978), leadership is one of

the most observed yet least understood phenomena on earth.  Therefore defining

leadership can be complex.  Some researchers have defined leadership as follows: the

creative and directive force of morale (Munson, 1921); the process by which an agent

induces a subordinate to behave in a desired manner (Bennis, 1959); and the presence

of a particular influence relationship between two or more persons (Hollander & Julian,

1969).  Another way of defining leadership is transforming followers, creating visions of

the goals that may be attained, and articulating the ways to attain these goals to the

followers (Bass, 1985; Tichy & Devanna, 1986).  Additionally, leadership is described as

the process of influencing an organized group toward accomplishing a goal (Roach &

Behling, 1984) as well as a relationship among leaders and followers where influence is

part of the relationship and leaders intend to make changes that reflect their purpose

(Rost, 1993).

Several studies have been conducted on leadership and what defines a leader,

from their traits to behaviors.  Yukl (1998) lamented that despite research efforts,

leadership still does not have a common definition.  While new theories continue to

emerge these often replicate older theories, in essence recreating the old theories with

small twists.  Bass (1990b) cited 7,500 bibliographic references regarding the definition

of leadership in his *Handbook of Leadership* and reported there are "as many definitions

of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (p. 11).

The theories discussed in this chapter provide an understanding of the leader behavior

that might assist department chairs in better managing their departments.  The

remaining literature review sections include key leadership theories, leadership and

higher education, department chairs and leadership, and culture and leadership and

elements of cultural adaptability.

Trait Theories

Trait theory stems from the idea that those who become leaders are different from the followers. Trait theories are described as those theories that investigate the personal characteristics of successful leaders. Researchers in the early 1900s examined leaders who had achieved a great level of success; resulting in the *great man* theory. Northouse (2006) wrote "the theories that were developed were called great man theories because they focused on identifying the innate qualities and characteristics possessed by great social, political, and military leaders" (p. 15). It was believed that leadership qualities were inherited, especially by those who were considered upper class. Early research on leadership was based on leaders who had achieved a level of success. These leaders were always male and rose from the aristocracy, which made them exclusive since not everyone was born into the aristocracy. It was believed that these great leaders had some connection to the mythic domain, with notions that in times of need a great man would arise (Daft, 1999). The great man theory evolved into trait theories in the early part of the 20th century (Locke, 1991) as researchers began to show that leadership ability is not necessarily a genetic endowment (Daft, 1999).

The trait approach has its foundation in the leadership theory in which people are born with certain traits that make them great leaders. According to Turkheimer (2000), all behavioral traits are inheritable, and in part, leaders are born. Judge, Piccolo, and Kosalka (2009) said "to a significant degree, leadership is rooted in individual genes, namely their genetic predispositions that predispose them to seek leadership positions, to be selected by others into such positions and to thrive in such positions once

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selected" (pp. 860-861). It is believed that leaders and non-leaders can be identified by a certain set of traits, which researchers were trying to identify (Northouse, 2006). In the early 1900s these traits were studied in many of the great social, political, and military leaders. Research concentrated on identifying specific traits that differentiated leaders from followers (Bass, 1990; Jago, 1982). Locke (1991) concluded that what developed from this research on great leaders was trait theory, which simply said that leaders were different from non-leaders in their characteristics.

In 1948, Robert Stogdill reviewed over 120 traits to determine if there was a pattern among the traits and leaders. This was carried out by observation of behavior in group situations by the leaders; choice of associates; analysis of biographical data of the leaders; being nominated by observers as good leaders; and selecting people who were in leadership positions. All factors observed were studied by three or more investigators. The frequency with which a factor was found to be significant was used to evaluate the data accumulated through this survey. Stogdill's conclusion was that there was no one pattern that all leaders followed, it varied from leader to leader. He did, however, identify eight characteristics as dominant among the leaders in his study: (1) intelligence, (2) alertness, (3) insight, (4) responsibility, (5) initiative, (6) persistence, (7) self-confidence, and (8) sociability. Stogdill was not surprised by these traits because, when people are placed in a group, these traits are necessary to obtain the group's objectives.

Between 1948 and 1970, Stogdill (1974) analyzed another 163 new studies and identified 10 more traits associated with leadership. These traits were: (1) task completion and drive for responsibility, (2) vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals,

(3)problem solving ability, (4) thriving in social situations, (5) self confidence, (6) ability to accept consequences for actions, (7) ability to handle interpersonal stress, (8) ability to handle frustration and delay, (9) ability to influence others' behaviors, and (10) ability to bring structure to the organization when needed.

After this new study Stogdill (1974) believed "a person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits" (p. 63). His findings helped identify the importance of a particular trait as often relative to the situation. He believed that the value of a set of traits would vary with the organizational situation. Stogdill (1974) determined that people who are leaders in one situation may not be leaders in other situations. He concluded that leadership is a working relationship among the group members where the leader acquires status by demonstrating many of the traits associated with leadership, but depending on the situation a different leader may step up for each situation.

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) stated that "it is unequivocally clear that leaders are not like other people" (p. 59). Kirkpatrick and Locke looked at all the research related to leadership and traits and determined that while someone may possess certain leadership traits he or she needs to take action to be successful. Kirkpatrick and Locke said that leaders differ from non-leaders on six traits: (1) honesty and integrity, (2) drive, (3) self-confidence, (4) knowledge of the business, (5) desire to lead, and (6) cognitive ability. The traits of honesty and integrity have special significance for leaders (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991) as subordinates hope that their leader possesses these two traits. Kouzes and Posner (2002) thought "honesty is absolutely essential to leadership. After all, if we are willing to follow someone whether it be into battle or into

the boardroom, we first want to assure ourselves that the person is worthy of our trust"
(p. 27).

The second trait which differentiates leaders from non-leaders is drive.  In this case drive refers to a high effort level and encompasses five aspects: achievement, ambition, energy, tenacity, and initiative (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991).  Achievement is for those who have a desire to accomplish tasks, develop better ways of doing things, and attain standards of excellence. Ambition refers to the leader who wants to continue to move forward.  To accomplish achievement and be ambitious the leader needs both energy and tenacity.  Working long, intense work weeks and weekends requires a leader to have a high level of energy.  This is becoming more evident as companies now expect leaders to spend some time on the road visiting with customers and employees (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991).  Tenacity is needed because leaders are persistent and have the drive to stick with what they do.  Energy and tenacity are required to work what is needed to accomplish the task and to be persistent and overcome challenges (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991).

The third trait, self-confidence, tends to belong to leaders who are more assertive and decisive.  Being self-confident arouses the trust of the followers (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991).  With leaders always gathering information, making decisions, taking risks, and convincing followers toward a certain goal a leader must have self-confidence, otherwise he or she would not be able to take the necessary actions or command the respect of others.

The fourth aspect, knowledge of the business, does not mean a formal education is needed, but knowledge of the industry they work in.  In a study conducted by Bennis

and Nanus (1985) only 40% of the leaders interviewed had a business degree. According to John Kotter (1986) having technical knowledge can be more important than a formal education.  The fifth aspect is the desire to lead or leadership motivation. The desire to lead others, win an argument, or have authority shows someone who prefers to be in a leadership rather than a subordinate role.  The final aspect, cognitive ability, refers to leaders' ability to gather and interpret all the information which comes at them on a daily basis (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991).  These demands are at a current high level with technology changing almost every day, so leaders need to be intelligent enough to formulate strategies, solve problems, and make the best decisions (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991).

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) believe that someone can be born with traits and then there are characteristics they can learn or both.  It is these six traits that they believe make up the "right stuff" for leaders.  They point out that traits do make people different from others, and within leadership these traits should be recognized as part of the leadership process.

While emphasis is no longer placed solely on traits to determine a good leader, the multitude of studies show there are still some personal characteristics which are seen as important contributions to effective leadership.  There are personal traits which distinguish successful leaders from non-leaders, but the traits themselves cannot guarantee effective leadership (Daft, 1999).  Some of these important core traits which are consistently identified in many studies are intelligence, initiative, and self assurance (Northouse, 2006) as well as honesty, self-confidence, and drive (Daft, 1999).

Trait theories provide a benchmark for what is needed in a leader. These traits can be identified through personality and assessment procedures. From that point, traits can provide information to leaders about their own strengths and weaknesses and how they can improve their own leadership skills (Northouse, 2006).

Trait theories are important to help identify a framework of qualities based on exceptional leaders; however, it is important to remember that as a situation changes leaders may not have the necessary traits to be effective in that new situation. Stogdill (1948) stated that those "who are leaders in one situation may not necessarily be leaders in other situations" (p. 45). In other words, a situation can influence how a leader reacts, making it difficult to identify a universal set of traits that define a leader.

Behavior Theory

Unlike trait theories which focus on the qualities and characteristics held by leaders, behavior theory focuses on what leaders do and how they act. During the 1950s several researchers began to identify the specific behaviors in which leaders engaged in (Chemers, 1984).

One study that looks at leadership behavior was conducted at Iowa State University by Kurt Lewin (1939). Lewin's study looks at autocratic and democratic style of leadership. An autocratic leader is one who controls and derives power from his or her position. The democratic leader delegates his or her authority, encourages participation, and looks to subordinates for knowledge (Daft, 1999). Lewin's research (1939) consisted of two groups of 10 year old children who engaged in the activity of theatrical mask-making for 3 months. Each group was assigned a leader who was instructed to be either autocratic or democratic in their style. Four observers made

detailed observations of the groups.  Results showed that the children with an autocratic

leader performed well as long as the leader was present.  However the children did not

like how close the leader was monitoring them.  The groups with a democratic leader

also performed well.  The difference between the two groups was the democratically led

group performed well even when the leader was not present.  The techniques of

including everyone and making decisions based on majority show the characteristic of

empowering employees which is seen in companies today (Daft, 1999).

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) continued to look at this study and determined

that leadership behavior could be just autocratic, democratic, or a mix of the two styles.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt suggest that leaders must adjust their behavior to fit the

circumstance.  If the leader knows a particular group will take too long to make a

decision, then an autocratic style would be appropriate.  The democratic approach

would be used when time is more flexible and the group wants to assist in the decision.

One of the most comprehensive studies of leadership behavior was developed at

Ohio State University, called the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ).  It

was developed in the 1950s and began with a list of 1790 statements.  From there it

was narrowed down to 150 statements.  The study was created for research purposes

and was tested in numerous leadership situations after World War II (Bass, 1990).  This

study determined that there are two major clusters of behavior.  One is "consideration,"

which includes items such as concern for others, concern for the feelings of others, and

using two-way communication (Chemers, 1984).  Daft (1999) said consideration occurs

when a leader is sensitive to subordinates and establishes trust.  Examples of these

behaviors include seeking input from subordinates, showing appreciation, and listening to problems.

The second cluster is labeled "initiation of structure," which includes items such as goal facilitation and task-related feedback. Daft (1999) described a leader within this cluster as someone who plans, works people hard, has direct tasks, and provides explicit schedules for work activities. Structure and consideration are not leadership styles as an authoritarian-democratic continuum suggests (Hersey & Blanchard, 1979). These are patterns of leader behavior which are separate and distinct dimensions which can be plotted on two separate axes. Thus, the Ohio State study resulted in the development of four quadrants to illustrate the leadership styles in terms of initiating structure (task) and consideration (people-oriented; Hersey & Blanchard, 1979).

| High | | |
|---|---|---|
| | • Low Consideration<br>• High Initiating Structure<br>(Structured Leaders) | • High Consideration<br>• High Initiating Structure<br>(Dynamic Leaders) |
| Initiating Structure | • Low Consideration<br>• Low Initiating Structure<br>(Passive Leaders) | • High Consideration<br>• Low Initiating Structure<br>(Considerate Leaders) |
| Low | Consideration | High |

*Figure 1.* Hershey and Blanchard's (1979) leadership model.

The quadrants encompass leaders who might demonstrate high consideration and low initiating structure, also referred to as the considerate leader. Or there is the low consideration and high initiating structure quadrant which is referred to as the structured leader (Daft, 1999). It is possible a leader might display a high degree of either behavior types (dynamic leader) or a low degree of both behavior types (passive leader. Halpin (1966) contended that a major finding from the LBDQ data was that "effective leadership behavior is associated with high performance on both dimensions" (p. 98). Behavior of some leaders is characterized by rigid structure of activities of followers to accomplish tasks, while other leaders concentrate on building relationships with their followers (Hersey & Blanchard, 1979). Northouse (2004) added that this approach offers a general way of assessing the behaviors of leaders. Northouse reported, "It reminds leaders that their impact on others occurs through the tasks they perform as well as in the relationship they create" (p. 74).

Blake and Mouton's 1964 work led to the creation of the managerial grid, later renamed the leadership grid, which builds on the work of the Ohio State study (Blake & Mouton, 1978). They surmised that every manager functions under a learned and established set of assumptions. Those beliefs must first be identified if they are to be changed (Blake & Mouton, 1978).

This grid was focused on two factors to help leaders and organizations reach their goals: concern for results and concern for people. Five different types of leadership based on concern for production and concern for people were identified. The first type of leader identified is the "country club leader." This leader provides

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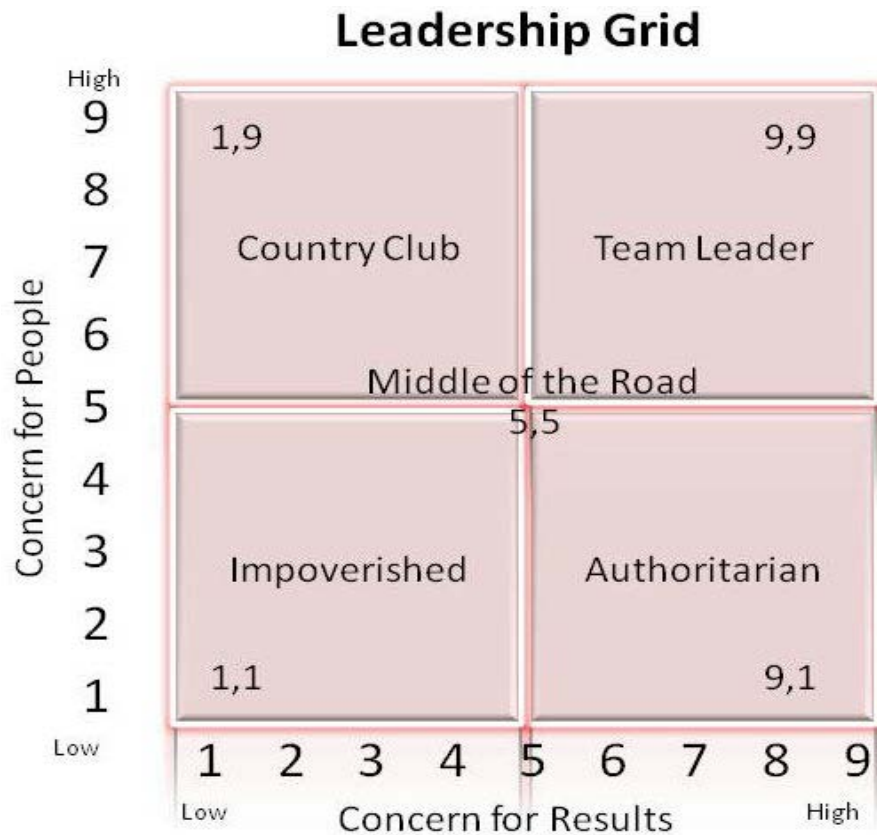
## Leadership Grid



*Figure 2*. Blake and Moulton's (1978) leadership grid.

attention to the needs of people, which leads to a comfortable work atmosphere (Daft, 1999). The second type of leadership is "authoritarian," in which human elements interfere in the operations to a minimum. The third type is "impoverished" in which leaders do only what is needed to maintain what the status quo.

The fourth type of leadership is "centered or middle of the road management." These leaders perform well by maintaining good relationships with people. The fifth type of leadership is "team oriented," in which everyone works together to accomplish a task. This is often considered the most effective form of leadership (Daft, 1999; Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989). These studies mark a major shift in the study of leadership as they show that certain personal traits and characteristics have a greater

likelihood for success as a leader, but that traits alone are not sufficient to guarantee effective leadership (Daft, 1999). The behavior of leaders is also significant in looking at success in a leadership role.

## Contingency Theories

When a universal set of traits or behaviors could not be determined for effective leadership, researchers began to go in a new direction. The new research began to go in the direction of leadership styles and effectiveness in specific situations (Daft, 1999). The leader's behavior will be contingent on the situation and what type of leader is needed. So for a leader to be effective there needs to be a good fit between the leader's style and the conditions of the situation (Daft, 1999). What may work in one situation may not work in another situation. Several researchers developed contingency approaches, including Fiedler's contingency theory of leadership (Fiedler, 1967), the path-goal theory of leadership effectiveness (House, 1971; House & Mitchell, 1974), the situational approach theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982), and the Vroom-Jago Model (Vroom & Jago, 1988).

*Fiedler's Contingency Theory*

Fiedler's theory is one of the earliest works and the first leadership theory to emphasize leaders and organizational situations, and it provides a framework for managing these situations. Fiedler (1967) suggested that leaders should adjust their style to fit the situation. He believed leadership depends on two factors: leadership style and how much the situation allows the influence and control of the leader.

Fiedler's theory is based on determining the orientation of the leader (relationship or task), the elements of the situation, and the leader orientation that is found to be most

effective as the situation changes from low to moderate to high. Fiedler's model assumes that personal leadership style is set at either task-oriented or relationship oriented (Fiedler, 1967). The relationship-oriented leader is concerned with people, which is like the leader behavior type consideration from the LBDQ. This leader listens to employee's needs and establishes trust and respect. The task-oriented leader is focused on accomplishing a task, which is like the initiating structure based on the LBDQ. The task-oriented leader provides clear directions and sets standards to ensure a task is accomplished (Daft, 1999). The difference between Fiedler's contingency theory and the LBDQ is that Fiedler's theory is based on a leader being one of the two styles, relationship-or task-oriented, while the LBDQ enables a leader to demonstrate a combination of consideration and initiating structure.

To determine a person's leadership style the Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) scale was developed (Fiedler, 1967). The LPC scale is completed by a person who is asked to fill out the form to rate someone with whom they have had difficulty working (i.e., the least preferred co-worker). There are 16 bipolar adjectives along an 8-point scale on the LPC scale. If the leader ranks the least preferred co-worker with positive adjectives, the leader is classified as relationship-oriented, and the leader receives satisfaction from a good interpersonal relationship. If the leader ranks the least preferred co-worker with negative adjectives, the leader is classified as task-oriented, and the leader receives satisfaction from accomplishing a task.

Based on the LPC scale, the type of leader which is more appropriate will depend on the situation within the organization. For example, a task-oriented leader will excel when there is a clearly defined task and he or she is able to make all decisions

and take charge.  When the situation lacks structure, the task-oriented leader will do well because, in this type of situation, someone who can define the task and establish authority is needed (Daft, 1999).

The relationship-oriented leader performs well in situations where he or she has some power, but the group he or she works with also has input.  This type of leader performs well in a situation where some direction may be needed, but the leader does not have to define completely what needs to be done.

Daft (1999) said that an important contribution of Fiedler's research involved it evolving "beyond the notion of leadership styles to show how styles fit the situation" (p. 98).  To apply Fiedler's contingency theory, it is important that a leader know to which style--relationship-oriented or task-oriented--he or she adheres.  Second, the leader should be able to look at a situation and determine what elements are needed to serve the group fully.

*Path-Goal Theory*

Another contingency approach is called the path-goal theory (Evans, 1970). Path-goal is considered a contingency theory because it has three sets of contingencies: leader style, follower and situation, and rewards (Evans, 1974).  The basis for the path-goal theory is for the leader to increase the group's motivation to reach personal and organizational goals.  This is accomplished by either clarifying the rewards that are available or by increasing the rewards that the group values and would like.  This theory means that leaders listen to or work with the group to identify and learn what behaviors will accomplish the task.  The leader listens to what type of rewards are important to the subordinates (Evans, 1974).  Once the rewards are determined, it is up

to the leader to make sure the path to these rewards is clear and attainable (House, 1971). Path goal theory assumes that leaders are flexible and that they can change their styles, as situations require in order to assist followers in attaining goals.

House and Mitchell (1974) suggested four types of leadership styles a leader can use depending on the situation. House and Mitchell computed findings based on convenience samples of white collar employees in research and engineering departments of large manufacturing organizations. The four classifications of leaders are supportive, directive, achievement-oriented, and participative.

The supportive leader is one who is concerned about the subordinates' personal needs and well being. These leaders treat the subordinates as equals and create a team climate (Daft, 1999). The directive leader lets the subordinates know exactly what they need to do. This leader makes schedules, plans things, and sets the expectations for what needs to be accomplished. The achievement-oriented leader sets goals, is confident in the subordinates, and is there to assist them. The participative style leader talks with the subordinates about decisions, which includes asking for their opinions and suggestions. The four leadership styles described are fluid and leaders can adapt to any of the four depending on what the situation demands.

*Situational Approach*

Another contingency model is the situational approach theory by Hersey and Blanchard (1969). This theory is focused on the characteristics of the followers to determine the leadership style. Hersey and Blanchard pointed stated that subordinates vary in task readiness. Thus, the leader's behavior must change to meet the readiness

of the followers and to maintain the followers' performance.  Hersey and Blanchard

developed the following four leadership behavior styles:

- S1–known as the "telling" leader, is the person who provides specific

  instructions and makes all decisions.  This leader is appropriate for a group

  which lacks the willingness and ability to perform a task.

- S2–known as the "selling" leader, is the person who still provides instruction

  but will listen to others' ideas and suggestions.  This leader is appropriate for

  a group that has some ability but still needs to learn.

- S3–known as the "participating" leader, is the person who actively listens,

  provides recognition, and assists with any problems.  This leader is ideal for a

  group that is willing but may still lack some confidence in their competence.

- S4–known as the "delegating" leader, is the person who leaves the decision

  up to the group.  This leader is ideal for a group who is confident and willing

  to accomplish a task.

Daft (1999) said this contingency model is easier to understand because it

"focuses only on the characteristics of followers, not those of the larger situation; the

leaders should evaluate subordinates and adopt whichever style is needed" (p. 99).

This model of leadership describes a way of adapting leadership behavior to that of the

situation and the group.  Effective leaders need to be able to adapt their style of

leadership to fit a certain situation according to the followers' needs.

<div align="center">Transformational Leadership</div>

In 1978, James MacGregor Burns wrote a book entitled *Leadership*.  In this book,

Burns discussed transactional and transformational leadership.  His concepts were

based on his own experience in World War II. He realized that when people talked of leadership they emphasized the qualities of the officers (Burns, 1978). He defined transactional leadership as the exchange of goods or valued things. All people involved in the situation are recognized. The leader rewards the followers' efforts based on an exchange process between the leader and follower (Burns, 1978).

Burns (1978) was the first to identify transformational leadership as an effective leadership style. He defined this leadership style as effective because of its qualities of shaping and motivating the values and goals, of the followers who want to make changes and by seeking the input of all. Transformational and transactional leadership are the two styles generally compared to one another.

Transformational leadership is usually characterized by the ability to bring about change (Daft, 1999). Daft (1999) reported that transformational leaders focus on "intangible qualities such as vision, shared values, and ideas in order to build relationships, give larger meaning to diverse activities and find common ground to enlist followers in the change process" (p. 427). Transformational leaders are tasked with leading change through vision, passion, commitment, and personal values, which they use to energize and move others (Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership also involves supporting, encouraging, and developing subordinates' ideas and teaching new ways of handling problems (Bass, 1990). Bass (1990) observed that the transformational leader engages in a certain set of behaviors representing fairness, integrity, encouraging, setting clear goals, providing support and recognition, and stirring emotions of others to encourage them to look beyond their self-interests and aim for the impossible.

Bass (1995) stated that transformational leadership differs from transactional leadership in four significant areas. First, transformational leadership develops followers into leaders. This is when transformational leaders rally followers around a mission and motivate them to take initiative, look at things in a new way, and accomplish the task at hand. The followers receive greater freedom to control their own behavior. By encouraging the followers and developing them, the transformational leader then enables change to happen.

The second significant area is the transformational leader's ability to elevate followers concerns from things such as safety and security to higher-level items such as self-esteem; this is based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1954), which range from the need for safety and security to the need for achievement and self-actualization. The followers' needs are met through such things as wages and benefits, but the transformational leader pays attention to the followers and what their own individual needs are for growth and development. The leader then challenges the followers and links this to the organization's mission.

The third significant area in transformational leadership inspires followers to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of the group. Transformational leaders motivate the followers to go beyond what was originally expected. They make followers aware of the importance of goals and outcomes. This in turn makes the followers aware and it transcends their own interests for the organization (Daft, 1999). The followers usually have a high level of trust in transformational leaders and identify with them. This does not mean the transformational leader tells the followers to follow them, but instead

to believe in the need for the change and to be willing to make some sacrifices for the greater good.

The fourth significant area is that transformational leaders paint a picture of the future in a way that, even while there will be some ups and downs to get to that point, it will be worth the effort.  The transformational leader shares a vision that is better than the old way to enlist the followers into achieving the goal (Daft, 1999).  Once the followers have a sense of purpose, they become more apt to change.

One of the other key things to remember about transformational leaders is they are not always in the top positions.  Transformational leaders can be in lower positions to influence others.  One of the main points of transformational leadership is the development of leaders at every level within an organization.  Bass and Avolio (1994) said that followers at lower levels can become leaders and those in leadership roles at the lower levels can influence leaders at the top just as much, if not more, than those at the same level.

Qualitative, descriptive research on transformational leadership has been conducted through the years to determine how leaders motivate and influence followers and change within an organization.  Findings have shown that effective transformational leaders engage in a variety of behaviors.  Yukl (1998) defined transformational leaders as people who help the followers understand unexpected events; they are aware of the opportunities and issues during a time of change and understand when change is needed.  This includes motivating other members of the organization and external stakeholders to communicate and develop a vision which is well defined and the strategies of which will be used to achieve the change.  Tichy and Devanna (1986)

conducted a study with twelve CEOs from a variety of large organizations. Interviews were conducted with the leaders and employees of the organizations. The interviews identified the process that happens when leaders do transform organizations and the traits and skills that are characteristic of the transformational leader. Tichy and Devanna (1986) found that transformational leaders have the following attributes: They promote change, are risk takers to a certain extent, believe in their people and listen to their needs, have a set of core values that guide them, and are open to learning from experience. The transformational leader is also involved in the process of transforming the organization, creating a new vision, and instituting the change.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) performed a 5-year study which included 90 interviews, 60 with successful CEOs, and 30 with leaders from the public sector. The average number of years with the company was 22 and the number of years as CEO was 8. Most had college degrees, 25% had advanced degrees, and 40% had degrees in business. Data were collected for this study by conducting interviews and observing the CEOs. The three questions asked by Bennis and Nanus (1985) of all the leaders were: "What are your strengths and weaknesses?"; "Was there any particular experience or event in your life that influenced your management philosophy or style?"; and "What were the major decision points in your career and how do you feel about your choices now?" Bennis and Nanus (1985) took all of the information gathered and began looking at what each of the leaders said to begin to see if there was anything that each leader said or did. The research shows that there are several themes that demonstrate effective transformational leadership, which include the leader developing

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a vision, meaning through communication, trust through positioning, and the deployment of self through positive self-regard.

Developing a vision was something all ninety people interviewed possessed. All of them had some type of agenda which had an outcome. Having this vision enables others to join in their vision which helps accomplish a goal. Meaning through communication is the ability to take something and teach others in way that all understand. It is through communication that the leaders are able to get the group to align with the goals of the organization. Being able to convey this message at every level is key within an organization. The third theme that was found was trust through positioning. Bennis and Nanus (1985) found that trust is what makes it possible for organizations to work, but they found the term hard to define. What they did discover is that the leaders who they interviewed made themselves known and made their positions clear, which enabled the leaders to earn the trust of their followers. The fourth theme which Bennis and Nanus found was deployment of self which refers to how a leader learns. They found through the interviews that the leaders had learned in an organizational context. The leaders concentrate on the organization and use the organization as the learning environment, making them experts in the field of their own organization.

Bass and Avolio (1993) extended Burns' 1978 work. They focused on areas that, based on research, were seen as necessary for transformational leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. Idealized influence refers to leaders who are able to instill self-confidence, articulate goals, and encourage the followers. Inspirational leadership is when leaders articulate

things in a simple way, share goals, and promote an understanding of what is right and important.  Intellectual stimulation refers to leaders who support and encourage subordinates' ideas and show them new ways of handling problems.  Finally, individual consideration describes leaders who focus attention on the needs of subordinates.

The research findings show that there are several characteristics that an effective transformation leader will have.  These characteristics include articulating a clear vision and how it can be achieved, being confident, expressing confidence in followers, providing opportunities for success, leading by example, and empowering others to achieve.  Transformational leadership is a "process whereby an individual engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and follower" (Northouse, 2004, p. 170).  These leaders are the ones who inspire subordinates to accomplish new tasks and facilitate change in an organization's culture, strategy, and vision.  Transformational leadership style is one of the preferred styles of leadership because these leaders create change in both followers and organizations.

<center>Transactional Leadership</center>

Transactional leadership is when the leader recognizes that the followers have certain desires and provides goods which satisfy those desires in exchange for the followers performing certain duties or certain objectives (Burns, 1978).  Daft (1999) observed this leadership to be a series of "economic and social transactions to achieve specific goals" (p. 427).  Transactional leaders focus on advancing their own personal agenda and the followers' agenda (Kuhnert, 1994).  They achieve this by focusing on

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what is occurring in the present and making sure that the organization is running

smoothly and efficiently.

According to Zaleznik (1983), the transactional manager is one who analyzes the

needs of the employees and subordinates and determines what their needs are. The

organizational status quo is maintained while the employees' basic needs are satisfied.

However, Bass (1985) said that the transactional leader does not help the follower, but

limits them. They hold followers back from moving toward goals, job satisfaction, and

effectiveness in contributing to the organization's goals.

One study of transactional leadership theory, by Georg Graen, involved the

process between managers and subordinates (Graen & Scandura, 1987). The study

followed 85 college graduates who joined a corporation over a span of three years.

They received a series of tests before the start of employment and continued to be

surveyed during their first three years of employment. In addition, the supervisor was

also surveyed at the same time as the subordinates. Graen used the vertical dyadic

linkage (VDL) model of social exchange to analyze the results. This involves the leader

and the subordinate going through a process of negotiating the terms of their

collaboration. These exchanges may be of low or high quality. The leader then

rewards the follower through a number of methods which may include emotional

support, providing information, or attention. In exchange, the subordinates provide

information, loyalty, commitment, and effort. Graen found that those who experienced a

higher quality of dyadic structure progressed more rapidly in their careers.

Bass (1985) suggests that transactional leadership is comprised of leader

behaviors he calls "contingent reward" and "management by exception." The contingent

reward leader behavior refers to leaders who acknowledge subordinates for task accomplishment and meeting task goals.  In exchange for accomplishing the goals with the leader, demand rewards, such as pay raises or time off are provided (Bass & Avolio, 1993). As a result, leaders make rewards conditional based on the behavior of the subordinates; many times, this punishes the subordinates for making errors.

<div align="center">Leadership and Higher Education</div>

Adrienna Kezar (2006) addressed how research in higher education has changed in the last 15 years.  Earlier research focused primarily on the college president; however, more recent research focuses on leaders throughout an institution: deans, department chairs, and directors.  Another change that Kezar notes is how research now looks at successful leaders.  These leaders are seen as individuals who work with others to help make the organization better.  Earlier research focused on leaders who did things on their own and did not involve others in their decisions.

When looking at trait theory and higher education leaders the research seems to focus now on a broader set of characteristics.  Several studies have examined the leadership styles of various leaders in a university.  These studies have shown the importance of balancing relational and task orientations (McKee, 1991; Neumann and Neumann, 1999; Wen, 1999).  This is different from what Bensimon et al. (1989) found in which a task orientation was seen as more important.  In relation to behavioral theories, early studies in leadership focused on goals, planning, and motivating people to take action.  More recent research focuses on leaders listening, being value driven, and opens to listening from others (Birnbaum, 1992).

Aguirre and Martinez (2002) have examined the role of leaders regarding diversifying college campuses. They found that leaders should embrace a more transformational view of leadership. When the leaders empowered others; developed trust among staff, students, and faculty; and created motivation, they were better prepared to provide leadership for diversity.

Gmelch and Wolverton (2002) also found that transformational leadership may occur among certain leaders in particular institutions. They found that deans had a harder time being transformational leaders at a research university. Sometimes a blend of the two approaches of transformational and transactional leadership could be more effective. Transformational leadership helps build satisfaction among staff and faculty, while transactional helps build the organization (Komives, 1991).

One of the largest studies of higher education leadership was called the institutional leadership project (Birnbaum, 1992). This was a five year study between 1985-1990 and was funded by the Department of Education to examine leadership across all sectors of higher education, focusing in on presidents. The study looked at what beliefs and assumptions presidents brought to their role using four frameworks: bureaucratic, collegial, political, and symbolic. The bureaucratic leader focused on authority, control, and organizational structure. Those using the collegial frame focused on team building and commitment. Those using the political frame looked at internal and external environments, negotiated, and focused on scarce resources. Those using symbolic leadership focused on the values, beliefs, and history of the school (Kezar, 2006). Birnbaum (1992) found that leaders were more effective when they used all four frames or at least used more than one frame to analyze a situation.

Another area of study within higher education and leadership is examining the followers' perception of leaders and attributes of leadership. One of these examples includes Neumann (1990) who conducted a case study on two campuses that were in financial crisis. Neumann examined the staff and faculty's perceptions of the college presidents. The study identified how the leaders actions and perspectives affected what the followers, staff and faculty, perceived. What the study showed was a contrast between the two presidents. One president focused on what she believed to be more important to everyone, teaching. The second college president focused more on the financial hardship. The study showed that morale was higher on the campus where the president focused on what she believed mattered more to the campus, teaching, than the campus where the president focused on the financial problem. This shows that it is important for leaders to attend to what their people believe and feel is important.

Culture and leadership has also been studied within higher education. One of the key studies is Birnbaum's *How Academic Leadership Works* (1992) in which he examined interactions of faculty and presidents. The focus was on faculty views of presidential leadership. One of the things that Birnbaum's book points out is understanding the culture or climate of a university and then making sure the leadership values align with what makes up the culture. Birnbaum thought that effective leadership will look at each university differently depending on the culture of the university. Birnbaum also points out that the history at the university will have an effect on the culture. If there has been a history of distrust or conflict, then it will be harder for a leader to change the culture.

Another study regarding culture and leadership is *The Four Cultures of the Academy* (Bergquist, 1992). This was a study conducted over 20 years and involved over 300 colleges and universities and 800 faculty and administrators. Bergquist introduces a framework of four cultures that exist within an institution of higher education and that affect leadership. The first is collegial which refers to a culture where leaders are supportive of diversity, autonomous and power is shared. The second is managerial which is considered strict and rigid. There is no sharing of power within this culture. The third is developmental which emphasizes teaching, learning, and personal development. Collaborative decision making is seen within this culture. The fourth is a culture of negotiating which is considered a highly political climate, where conflict is resolved through negotiation and compromise. Bergquist points out that more than one culture may be operating at a time. Leaders who understand these and how they interplay with each other can be more effective.

Another area of study within leadership and higher education is the examination of race and gender. One study, which looked at the overlap of these two, was Kezar's study of faculty and administrators (2000), which examined the leadership beliefs and contextual conditions which affect perspectives. The results show that where a person is ranked has a relation to the person's beliefs. For example, a woman in a vocational discipline might want to lead in a collaborative way based on her experience as a woman, but her vocational background may instead lead in a more hierarchical way. Kezar called this new approach of recognizing that a person may have more than one view towards leadership based on their gender and race or other identity "pluralistic leadership" (2000). Kezar (2000) identified three principles to this new approach: (a)

awareness of positionality, identity, and power conditions; (b) acknowledgement of multiple views of leadership; and (c) negotiation among the multiple views of leadership. Some leaders lack awareness of their own biases because they do not see how others may have valid perspectives based on their own experiences. Being aware that each person has their own belief regarding leadership should help foster communication between the leader and the faculty and staff.

Important findings have emerged from research regarding culture, gender, and race within a university. However most studies still tend to be generic and more specific topics can still be pursued within these areas.

<center>Leadership Studies Related to Department Chairs</center>

A university builds its reputation on its students and departments. What is achieved within those departments is how a university attains a reputation. The department is where faculty and students interact. Dressel and Reichard (1970) have said that the academic department helps form the basic unit of the whole university structure and has the power to initiate action which can affect the whole institution. With departments as the foundation of the institution, the importance of department chairs and their behavior is crucial in helping departments become recognized.

There have been several research efforts that have dealt with department chairs and their role and leadership behavior. Knox (1977) stated:

> Leadership means dealing with people. In order to build rapport and a good working relationship with department members, the chair must try to understand their perceptions. With understanding comes a realization of the type of approach, which will work best in supervising and motivating the staff. (p. 6)

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Hoyt and Spangler (1978) conducted a study with 103 department chairs and 1,333 faculty members within four large universities in the United States. Hoyt and Spangler found four identifiable administrative styles: (a) democratic practice, (b) structuring, (c) vigor, and (d) interpersonal sensitivity. The best predictors for performance as department chair from these administrative styles are structuring and interpersonal sensitivity.

Knight and Holen (1985) conducted a study to see if there is a relationship between the department chair and the faculty's perception of the department chair. The survey contained ratings of 458 department chairs by 5,030 faculty members in 52 public colleges and 13 colleges across the United States. Thirty-eight granted graduate degrees and 11 the bachelor's degree, and 16 were two-year colleges. The main conclusion of the study, from both the department chairs themselves and the faculty is that individuals who become chairs seldom have the needed administrator training to assist them in adapting to the new position.

Gmelch and Miskin (1993) found three major challenges that department chairs face. First the challenge of understanding the role of the department chair. The second is strategic planning, whether in developing a strategic plan or understanding the one that may already be in place, and determining if the vision and mission match with the plan. The third challenge is developing leadership skills.

According to the results of the National Survey Center for the Study of Department Chairs (Gmelch & Miskin, 1993), approximately 46% of department chairs had been asked by their college dean or colleagues to serve, while the remaining 54% said they were serving in their role for personal development reasons. Those who were

selected to serve tend to be less willing to serve another term, while those who want to serve are more willing to serve another term.

Wolverton et al. (1999) conducted a study between American and Australian department chairs and the stress that comes with that position. They found the following in both countries: the chair position was held primarily by men; about half of the chairs felt they had a good balance between being a faculty member and administrator; and less than 30% of chairs in both countries said they would seek a higher administrative position. Both countries identified stress factors as administrative relationships, administrative tasks, academic roles, human relations, and external time.

In 2002 Whitsett conducted a study which compared leadership styles of department chairs on the campus of a small, southeastern university. The Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) questionnaire was distributed to 10 department chairs and 126 faculty members of the institution. The LEAD is a survey which asks people to read about different situations and choose an answer that best describes their behavior in terms of their work environment and current role. A primary and secondary style of leadership are determined based on one of four styles which are telling, selling, participating, and delegating. The study showed that selling was the main leadership style among the department chairs. The second prevalent leadership style was participating. With selling being the main style of leadership, chairs and faculty see the department chair as someone who tries to get the staff and faculty to carry out the behaviors or tasks needed.

Leadership Theories Across Cultures

Studies on cross-cultural leadership theory have been mostly conducted in Western Europe and North America (Chemers, 1984).  These studies show that leadership may vary across cultures (Den Hartog et al., 1999).   The ways that leadership is affected by cultural differences is an important issue (Chemers, 1997).  This cross-cultural research can benefit leadership by showing the generalizability of Euro-American theories (Chemers, 1984).  Early studies on culture did not address the concept of leadership (Chemers, 1997).

Chemers (1969) focused on leadership behavior of Iranian subjects which consisted of 142 foremen in a large manufacturing company. A modified and shortened version of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) by Stogdill was administered to obtain leader behavior ratings.  Two new culturally significant items were added to the LBDQ for theoretical reasons, "the leader is like a father" and "the leader is a good leader" (Ayman & Chemers, 1983).  The "leader is like a father" suggests leadership patterns similar to the warm, but stern Iranian father figure (Ayman & Chemers, 1983).

The subordinates were asked to rate the managers based on behavior and satisfaction with them, and the managers' supervisors provided ratings of leadership performance.  A factor analysis was used which produced a single factor containing most of the items from the initiation of structure and consideration factors. It was found that the addition of "is like a father" received many marks.  The conclusion from this is that the ideal leadership for Iranian managers is similar to the Iranian father figure. Chemers (1997) named this factor "benevolent paternalism," and it was found to

correlate with subordinate ratings of satisfaction addressing an ideal leader for Iranian culture.

Hofstede (1983, 1984) surveyed more than 100,000 IBM managers twice, in 71 countries. Hofstede wanted to determine what values in workplace are influenced by culture and were there differences between people. The questions in the survey were composed from interviews with employees in 10 countries and from staff at the international headquarters who would notice differences among the subsidiaries. Surveys were managed by an international team of social scientists. The data collected consisted of answers regarding the employee's values and perceptions of the work situation. Hofstede found that the pattern of results was described by four factors: power distance, tolerance for uncertainty, individualism versus collectivism, and masculinity-femininity. Hofstede's study results suggest that work related values do differ across cultures as cultures value things differently.

A cross-cultural study by Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson, and Bond (1989) compared the constructs of Misumi's performance maintenance theory. This theory is based on the two concepts of performance and maintenance derived from ideas about the basic functions that leadership can fulfill in all settings (Misumi & Peterson, 1985). The performance function refers to forming and reaching group goals, while the maintenance function refers to preserving the group social stability (Misumi & Peterson, 1985).

Smith et al. (1989) distributed a survey to shop floor workers and their supervisors in Britain, Japan, Hong Kong, and the United States. The questions dealt with how supervisors handled problems. Smith et al. showed that in relation to specific

behavior, the influence of cultural differences revealed only 9 out of 36 behaviors were the same in all cultures. These behaviors were (a) discussing personal matters sympathetically with employees, (b) discussing progress in relation to work schedule, (c) sharing information regarding the organization's performance, (d) employees telling supervisors about personal difficulties, (e) supervisors arranging for other team members to help when an employee is having personal difficulties, (f) employees making suggestions for improvements to supervisors, (g) spending time with a supervisor to discuss career and future plans, (h) how the supervisor reacts when there is a substantial problem in the group's work, and (i) being within sight of the supervisor during work hours (Smith et al., 1989).

Kouzes and Posner (2002) studied thousands of business and government leaders asking them the following: "What values (personal traits or characteristics) do you look for and admire in your leader?" (p. 24). They received over 225 different characteristics, values, and traits. Analysis was done by independent judges who reduced the list to 20 characteristics and then administered as a questionnaire to over 75,000 people regarding their view of what makes a good leader. Kouzes and Posner conducted cross-cultural comparisons of leaders and found that the four primary traits followers want leaders to have are honesty, forward looking, inspiration, and competence.

Leadership exists in all cultures and is essential to any organization within any society. House (1995), however, noted that the prevailing theories of leadership are characteristically North American and are based on several things: individualism as opposed to collectivism, rationality rather than ascetics, centrality of work, and

democratic value orientation. Den Hartog et al. (1999) cited research in cross-cultural

sociology and psychology, where many cultures do not share these same assumptions.

Bass (1997), on the other hand, argued that there are some cross-cultural similarities in

transactional-transformational leadership. He supported this assertion with evidence

from several continents that he collected through organizations in education, business,

government, and the military.

Den Hartog et al. (1999) conducted a study of 62 cultures and found that different

cultures are going to have different ideas as to what leadership should entail. However,

one thing was common: Certain attributes which are associated with transformational

leadership are universally seen as contributing to outstanding leadership. These

attributes include trustworthiness, positivity, motivation, and foresight (Den Hartog,

1999). However, other leadership attributes are universally seen as road blocks to

outstanding leadership. These include non-cooperative, ruthless, and dictatorial (Den

Hartog, 1999). Jung et al. (1995) speculated that transformational leadership is more

effective in a collectivist culture because these types of cultures have more respect for

authority and the characteristic of obedience.

House (1999) developed the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior

Effectiveness research program, referred to as the GLOBE project. This project

included over 17,000 leaders in more than 950 organizations representing 62 countries

(House, 2004). This information was collected through personal interviews where

individuals were asked to describe both the cultural practices and the cultural values in

their cultures (House, 1999). House looked at the relationship between societal culture,

organizational culture, and the leadership of the organization. House hoped to

determine leadership attributes that are seen as outstanding across all the cultures.

House accomplished this by utilizing nine dimensions of culture based on Hofstede's

(1980) study of culture.  The nine dimensions were: (a) performance orientation, (b)

future orientation, (c) assertiveness, (d) power distance, (e) human orientation, (f)

institutional collectivism, (g) in-group collectivism, (h) uncertainty avoidance, and (i)

gender egalitarianism (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorman, 2002).  These dimensions

allowed for an analysis of the cultural differences that exist between groups.  The

findings included the following six global leadership behaviors: (a) charismatic/value

based, (b) team-orientated, (c) participative, (d) humane-oriented, (e) autonomous, and

(f) self-protective (House et al., 2002).  House et al.'s hypothesis was that

transformational and charismatic leadership attributes would be seen as universal

outstanding leadership qualities.  House et al.'s GLOBE project showed that followers

who are influenced and motivated by the leader to make changes toward a common

goal help with the development of cultural competence.

<center>Culture and Leadership</center>

Kagan and Stewart (2004) reported "the global economy is here to stay.

Businesses need employees who can think globally" (p. 232).  Gregesren, Morrison,

and Black (1998) described a global leader as one who has integrity, personal

character, and unbridled inquisitiveness.  Javidan (2008) argued that those working in a

global environment have the two major responsibilities of understanding their own

cultural lens and other people's cultures.  Bhawuk and Brislin (1992) argued the

following:

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To be effective in another culture, people must be interested in other cultures, be

sensitive enough to notice cultural differences, and then also be willing to modify

their behavior as an indication of respect for the people of other cultures. (p. 416)

This type of leader is needed within higher education as the staff and faculty become

more diverse.  A leader needs to become educated about various cultures as these

skills become a necessary precondition for effective leadership (Moodian, 2009).  Thus,

it is up to department chairs to ensure that all faculty and staff, as well as they

themselves, become culturally competent and that they are willing to learn to serve

everyone on the campus effectively.

For Davis (1995), certain characteristics should be considered for someone to be

considered culturally competent.  Leaders must acknowledge and be open to discussing

diversity.  They should become educated in the sense of learning about cultures and

beliefs of others and allow their staff to become educated as well.  Learning,

understanding, and respecting the values of all cultures helps create an environment

which eliminates cultural barriers.

Leaders have had to change focus in recent years as many companies have

gone from dealing with just one country to many.  Lorange (2003) implored recognition

of "global thinking is becoming the fact of the day" (p. 216).  Focusing on how to

become effective with the various cultures and how to work with multinational people is

becoming a necessity for today.  Leaders' ability to adapt and match their style to that of

different cultures can facilitate an organization's success.  Chen and Starosta (1998)

said an "active desire to motivate themselves to understand, appreciate, and accept

differences among cultures is representing intercultural sensitivity" (p. 231).

One major theme that is linked to culturally competent leaders is their ability to adapt to cultural differences (Daft, 1999; Moodian, 2009). Adaptation includes a process of change whereby leaders identify their own beliefs and values and acknowledge how those beliefs are seen by diverse groups. Being aware of their own beliefs and values makes leaders aware of their behaviors. When they interact with diverse groups, they recognize the need to change their social behaviors to support good communication and interaction. Continuing to practice a style of leadership that supports cultural adaptation is necessary for culturally competent leaders.

Culture

When culture is discussed regarding an organization, most define it as values that are within an organization. However, culture can be described as how an individual thinks and feels based on one's social environment, which includes family, neighborhoods, school, and work (Hofstede, 1984). Moodian (2009) defined culture as something that is a part of every one; culture is knowledge that is acquired as children grow up. Moodian agreed with Hofstede's (1984) definition of culture by saying "we learn culture from our parents, extended family, faith-based organizations, educational environments, and society in general" (p. 149).

Brislin and Yoshida (1994) expanded Hofstede's (1984) definition by saying that cultures are the ideas passed down from generation to generation with no explanation. Eventually individuals begin to think, feel, and behave in the patterns taught to them (Kim, 1988). Hoecklin (1995) explained culture in abstract terms:

1. Culture is a shared system of meanings guiding an individual as to how he or she sees the world.

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2. Culture is not from genetic make-up but is learned from one's social environment.

3. Culture is about shared values and meanings.

4. While each culture is different, it is a way of looking at the world and doing things.

Rueben (1989) described culture in abstract terms as how an individual lives or experiences the world through his or her own values, attitudes, and identities. These values, attitudes, and identities are what guide a person through life and establish what is acceptable or not acceptable behavior (Brislin, 1993). As a person develops in a culture, culture plays a role in how the individual lives, what the individual values, and how he or she interacts with others, which eventually carries into the workplace.

Moodian (2009) argued that culture is fluid, meaning that as things change in the world, culture changes as well. The culture in which past family members grew up will be different from the culture currently being experienced. Culture is also selective. Moodian (2009) stated that people select what aspects of their cultural heritage they want as part of their life. Some select everything they have learned and experienced while others may select only parts of their culture. Culture can be ethnocentric, which means that people think their way of doing things is the *right* way based on their own cultural beliefs (Moodian, 2009).

Observing the elements of a culture, according to Dadfar and Gustavsson (1992), involves elements which are observable and elements that are hidden. Moodian (2009) reported culture as often times being compared to Edward T. Hall's (1976) iceberg. Hall compared a society's culture to an iceberg; the part which is

visible, above the water, is what people first see and know and are the most overt behaviors. The portion which is underneath the water represents the underlying beliefs, values, and thought patterns which dictate the behavior people have seen (Hall, 1976). Hall argued that people cannot judge a new culture based just on what can be seen. However, people do base decisions on the small portion of a culture they do see, which can lead to misunderstanding (Modian, 2009).

<p style="text-align:center">Elements of Cultural Sensitivity</p>

Intercultural sensitivity is "an individual's ability to develop a positive emotion to promote appropriate and effective behavior in intercultural communication" (Chen & Starosta, 1997, p. 5). Chen and Starosta (2000) said there are six constructs which compose the concept of intercultural sensitivity: self-esteem, self-monitoring, open-mindedness, empathy, interaction involvement, and non-judgment. Self-esteem is an individual's sense of self-worth and self-value. Individuals with high levels of self-esteem are more confident that they will be accepted by others and think well of others. These individuals typically deal with psychological stress and emotional difficulties in intercultural communication processes better because of the confidence.

Self-monitoring is "a persons ability to regulate behavior in response to situational constraints and to implement a conversationally competent behavior" (Chen & Starosta, 1997, p. 8). Individuals with high self-monitoring tend to be more sensitive to the appropriateness of their social behavior in diverse communication situations (Snyder, 1974). Being aware of situational cues allows the high self-monitoring individual to be more adaptable to diverse communication situations (Chen & Starosta, 2000).

Open-mindedness is defined by Chen and Starosta (1997) as "the willingness of individuals to openly and appropriately explain themselves and to accept other's explanations" (p. 8). Open-minded people are more willing to "recognize, accept, and appreciate different views and ideas" (Chen & Starosta, 1997, p. 9). Open-mindedness allows for a more broadened concept of the world and to be more likely to embrace the culturally diverse world. Empathy refers to an individual's ability to enter into a "culturally different counterparts' mind to develop the same thoughts and emotions in interaction" (Chen & Starosta, 2000, p. 5). Empathy allows people to be more sensitive to others' thoughts and emotions. The level of empathy indicates a strong or weak level of intercultural sensitivity.

Interaction involvement emphasizes "a person's sensitivity ability in interaction" (Chen & Starosta, 1997, p. 10). Interculturally sensitive individuals maintain a smooth flow of communication because they are able to receive and send messages in appropriate ways. Non-judgment is an attitude "allowing oneself to sincerely listen to one's culturally different counterparts, instead of jumping to conclusion without sufficient information" (Chen & Starosta, 2000, p. 5). Non-judgment allows another party to be listened to, to have an opportunity to talk in an active manner, and allows for a satisfactory feeling in an intercultural interaction by listening, understanding, and acknowledging cultural differences.

Kim (1991) said that a person's intercultural competency depends upon sensitivity or "the individual's capacity to suspend or modify the old cultural ways and to learn and accommodate some new cultural ways. A person equipped with greater adaptability is likely to be more open to learning different cultural patterns" (p. 268).

When there is an exchange of cultural information between people and generations, this begins to create an understanding of the new culture and allows for adaptation to the new situation. Cross (1989) identified cultural competence as attitudes, behaviors, and policies that have been brought together and allow a group to be more effective when working in a multicultural situation. Yee (2002) said that having a disciplined effort to try new things and, from that experience, developing a new set of skills, is part of adapting to that new culture.

Interpersonal and social communication skills are important to cultural sensitivity. Ruben and Kealey (1979) listed several areas that help lead to cross-cultural sensitivity. These areas include empathy, respect to all, and tolerance for ambiguity toward others. It is important to recognize the skills and abilities of an individual, as well as recognizing how they perceive and think about others. Individuals who become more aware of the differences in backgrounds among the individuals around them will be able to demonstrate more understanding and, in essence, adaptability (Work, 1996).

Interpersonal and social communication between different cultures can present challenges. Martina and Nakayama (2008) reported that people will face the following six challenges: motivation; differences in communication styles, values, and perceptions; negative stereotypes; anxiety; affirming another's cultural identity; and a need for explanations. Motivation refers to the desire to want to learn about others. If there is no motivation to learn about another's culture then a leader fails to build relationships with people of other cultures.

The second challenge is the differences in communication styles, values, and perceptions. Martina and Nakayama (2008) referred to these as the things that

sometimes make people uncomfortable.  For example in China, it is common to ask how much someone paid for their house and car, while here in America that is seen as rude.

The third challenge is negative stereotypes.  Negative stereotypes are a way of categorizing and processing information in a negative way (Martina & Nakayama, 2008).  One way to detect this is when thinking about an interaction with someone and feeling surprised about the encounter with him or her; for example when meeting someone who has several tattoos and discovering their passion for classical music.

The fourth challenge is anxiety.  This stems from the fears of possible negative consequences based on actions.  People do not want to offend or look stupid because they are unfamiliar with someone's culture (Martina & Nakayama, 2008).

The fifth challenge is affirming the other person's cultural identity.  This means being able to recognize the other person may have different beliefs, perceptions, and attitudes, but remembering to respect them as well (Collier & Bornman, 1999).  The final challenge that Martina and Nakayama (2008) present is having to explain things.  Within any intercultural relationship some things have to be explained to understand each other better.

Moodian (2009) said that many times leaders have issues with direct and indirect communications when dealing with people from various cultures.  For example, direct communication is preferred in America and Germany.  These leaders send a clear message to the listener.  They believe direct communication is the best way to handle business because then everyone knows exactly what is expected.

On the flip side, Asians and Middle Easterners prefer indirect communication, where a message is conveyed utilizing both verbal and nonverbal communication (Moodian, 2009).  The indirect communication method is used because these cultures believe that not everything needs to be verbalized, things can be alluded to or implied.  They believe indirect communication is a more polite way of doing things while still getting the message across.  Neither is a better way to communicate; what needs to be remembered is with whom the leader is interacting.  It is important for the leader to know his or her audience and be sensitive to the different types of communication styles.

## Conclusion

As the characteristics of many universities continue to change, competent leadership is vital.  Daft (1999) said that "multiculturalism is a fact of life for today's organizations" (p. 300).  Therefore, leaders have a responsibility to acknowledge and value the cultural differences which surround them.  Moodian (2009) stated that "cultural competency and cultural adaptability are foundational skills vital to the success of anyone working in a cross-cultural environment" (p. 147).  For the department chair, supporting diversity allows him or her to become a more effective leader.  Leaders should develop a general cross-cultural competency, and if they work with a specific culture or a few cultures, expanding their knowledge in that particular culture is vital (Moodian, 2009).  With department chairs receiving little training for their role, I investigated department chairs' leadership styles and cultural sensitivity to enable colleges and universities to train department chairs to better understand different cultures.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

It is not known to what extent there is a relationship between the leadership style and cultural adaptability of department chairs.  Department chairs are responsible for 80% of all administrative decisions in higher education (Wolverton et al., 1999). Decisions are based on input from culturally diverse faculty, staff, and students. Understanding how a department chair's leadership style may correlate with his or her cultural adaptability may provide information useful for developing more culturally competent department chairs.

The purpose of this study was to gain greater knowledge about the leadership styles, and cultural sensitivity of department chairs.  I also asked: Is there a correlation between certain demographics of Texas public universities department chairs and their leadership style? Is there a correlation between certain demographics of Texas public universities department chairs and their cultural sensitivity?  In order to answer the questions posed in this study, a basic correlational research design was implemented by using the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS).

## Research Methodology and Design

I utilized a quantitative methodology.  According to Creswell (2008), quantitative research should be used when asking objective questions, collecting quantifiable data, and when analyzing data using statistical approaches.  Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003) indicated that the use of quantitative research allows the researcher to obtain large amounts of data and provides a sense of ease and reliability to the researcher's

attempts to explore and explain what is found.  Creswell (2008) stated that when describing a relationship the researcher's focus is to determine whether one or more variables influence another variable.  I sought to determine if department chair leadership styles correlated with cultural sensitivity.

This quantitative research study was conducted with a correlational design.  A correlational design is used when studying the degree of an association between two sets of variables (Creswell, 2008).  The components of a correlational research design are detailed by Mertler and Charles (2005) as identification and clarification of a variable, formulation of hypotheses or questions, selection and inclusion of a sample, measurement from members of sample population on variables being examined, and correlations between the variables.  Quantitative research data are typically collected in two ways: questionnaires or surveys, and experiments (Creswell, 2008).  This study was based on quantitative research in which the participants completed three measures: LBDQ for leadership style, the ISS for cultural sensitivity, and a demographic questionnaire.

<center>Population and Sampling Procedures</center>

The target population for this quantitative study was department chairs from public universities in the state of Texas.  According to Creswell (2008), a target population is "a group of individuals with some common defining characteristic that the researcher can identify and study" (p. 152).  There were currently 38 public universities within 10 regions in the state of Texas.

A total of 45 department chairs were randomly selected from each region.  The advantage of drawing a small sample from a target population is the saving of time and

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expense (Gall et al., 2003).  A random sample is used when it is difficult to obtain data from every single person in a group.  A random sample affords everyone in a population an equal chance of being selected.  It is a representative group selected from a specific population in order to identify the attributes or attitudes of the population as a whole (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1998).  Three of the regions were so small that 45 participants were not available.  In this case, the surveys were sent to the region's entire population.  This was done to try to gain enough participation from the region to be able to perform correlations on data from all regions.  This process resulted in a total of 406 surveys being sent out.

The minimum required sample size was calculated based on the following formula as provided by Ary, Jacobs, and Razavieh (1996):

$N = (1 / \wedge)^2 (z_X + z_\beta)^2$ where

$N$ = the number needed in the sample

$\wedge$ = the specified effect size

$z_X$ = the z-score for the level of significance

$z_\beta$ = the z-score for the desired probability for rejecting the null hypothesis

Wiersma (1995) reported that a 100% response rate is difficult to obtain so to assist in meeting the minimum number of participants, Wiersma suggested increasing the sample size.

Cohen (1988) suggested using a small to medium effect size when trying to detect something that may not be obvious.  Cohen also suggested the use of .02, .15, and .35 as small, medium, and large effect sizes.  For this study a medium effect size of .15, with significance set at .05, and power of .90 was used $(1 / 15)^2 (.05 + .90)^2$.  This

resulted in a minimum sample size needed of 45.  Creswell (2005) argued that the response rate found in most published educational research is 50% or higher.  A 50% response rate would have delivered a sample of 203, a figure much larger than the calculated minimum sample size of 45 returned surveys.

A target population of department chairs was identified by obtaining a list of all Texas public universities in the 10 regions established by the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board (THECB). The department chairs were identified by visiting each school's website.  An email address was obtained for each department chair from the school's website.  A list of Texas department chairs divided by region, was compiled in Excel.

<p align="center">Instrumentation</p>

To examine the correlation between leadership of department chairs and their cultural adaptability a survey was administered through Survey Monkey.  The survey included the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS), and the demographic questions making the process as seamless as possible for the participant.  Permission to use the ISS was received from Guo-Ming Chen (Appendix D).  As noted on the website of the Fisher College of Business at Ohio State University it is not necessary for doctoral students to request permission to use the LBDQ.  Participants received a link which directed them to the survey.  Participants also received a consent form, which fully disclosed the research process.  Contact information for the researcher, faculty advisor, and the Institutional Review Board (IRB) were provided in the consent form (Appendix F).

*Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire*

The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was the instrument used to determine the leadership style of department chairs. The original LBDQ was developed in 1957 by the staff of the Personnel Research Board at Ohio State University, as a project of Ohio State Leadership Studies (Fisher College of Business, Ohio State University, 1994). It was revised into the LBDQ Form XII, including a shortened form, in 1962 by the staff of the Personnel Research Board at Ohio State University. The LBDQ provides a technique whereby leadership style is measured through leaders' descriptions of their own behavior; alternatively, group members may describe the behavior of the leader to measure the leadership style (Fisher College of Business, Ohio State University, 1994). This study asked department chairs to respond to the items based on their own leadership behavior in order to obtain scores for their leadership styles.

Halpin (1957) identified consideration and initiating structure as the two fundamental dimensions of the LBDQ. Consideration is the dominant dimension in a people-oriented and transformational leader (Moodian, 2009). Initiating structure indicates that a leader is task-oriented and transactional (Moodian, 2009). According to Halpin (1966), practical persons know that leaders must lead, that is they must get things done and initiate action. If leaders are to be successful they must contribute to group objectives and group maintenance. According to the constructs listed by the LBDQ, this means that a leader should be strong in initiating structure and should also show high consideration for the members.

Leaders who take the LBDQ–Form XII Self (Appendix B) indicate their responses by marking one of the five letters (A, B, C, D, E) following each item. The scoring key indicates that A is a point value of 5; B is a 4; C is a 3; D is a 2; and an E is a score of 1 (Fisher College of Business: The Ohio State University, 1994). For this study, the shortened form of the LBDQ was utilized to focus on the leaders' consideration and initiating structure styles (Table 1). The manual for the LBDQ states that there are no norms for this survey. It is not recommended for assessment purposes, but for research alone.

Table 1

*LBDQ–Form XII Self Scales of Consideration and Initiating*

| Scale | Questions |
|---|---|
| Consideration | 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, and 19 |
| Initiating | 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, and 20 |

*Intercultural Sensitivity Scale*

The Intercultural Sensitivity Scale was developed by Chen and Starosta (2000). The survey is a 24-item self-report measure of five factors: interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, interaction enjoyment, and interaction attentiveness.

The survey initially contained 73 items. Chen and Starosta sampled 168 freshmen in basic communication studies courses. From this sample the survey was reduced to 44 items with greater than .50 loading (Chen & Starosta, 2000). To reduce the questionnaire size further, Chen and Starosta (2000) had 414 college students complete the survey. From this point factor analysis results indicated the final five factor

structure for the ISS: Interaction Engagement (7 items, accounting for 22.8% of the common variance), Respect for Cultural Differences (6 items, accounting for 5.2% of the common variance), Interaction Confidence (5 items, accounting for 3.9% of the common variance), Interaction Enjoyment (3 items, accounting for 3.0% of the common variance), and Interaction Attentiveness (3 items, accounting for 2.3% of the common variance).  Leaders completing the ISS (See Appendix C) indicate their responses by marking one of the five options following each item: *strongly agree*, *agree*, *not decided*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree*.  The scoring key indicates that strongly agree is a point value of 5; agree is a 4; not decided is a 3; disagree is a 2; and strongly disagree is a 1 (Chen & Starosta, 2000).

*Demographic Questionnaire*

The third instrument used in this study was a brief demographic questionnaire to collect gender, age range, race/ethnicity, and years of service as department chair.  The demographic questionnaire responses were used to determine the relationships between leadership style; cultural sensitivity; and gender, age range, race/ethnicity or years of service.

<div align="center">Validity and Reliability</div>

Validity refers to the degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Pallant, 2010).  According to Creswell (2008), validity refers to scores acquired from an instrument that is meaningful; this enables the researcher to draw conclusions after using the instrument to gather data.  Reliability refers to scores that are acquired from a valid instrument with item consistency (Creswell, 2008).

The validity for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was tested on the various subscales (Halpin, 1957).  It was concluded that the LBDQ subscales measured what they were designed to measure.  Extensive leadership research in education and industry was involved in designing the LBDQ.  Leaders who were considered effective received high ratings in both dimensions: consideration and initiating structure.  In the manual for the LBDQ, the estimated reliability is .92 for consideration and .83 for initiating structure score (Halpin, 1957).  Chen and Starosta (2000) reported Cronbach's alpha reliability for the ISS as .86.  Concurrent validity was supported by moderate correlations with other measures as shown in Table 2.

Table 2

*Correlation of ISS with Other Measures (Chen & Starosta, 2000)*

| Scale | *r* |
|---|---|
| Interaction Attentiveness Scale | .20 |
| Impression Rewarding Scale | .41 |
| Self-Esteem Scale | .17 |
| Self-Monitoring Scale | .29 |
| Perspective Taking Scale | .52 |

*Note.* $p < .05$ required for significance between LBDQ and listed scale; none showed significance.

Some items in both the LBDQ and the ISS were reverse coded, due to the reverse polarity of the items wording.  In the LBDQ the reverse coded items were 13, 19, and 21.  In the ISS, the reverse coded items were 2, 4, 7, 9, 12, 15, 18, 20, and 22.

### Data Collection Procedure

The data collection process for this study proceeded in the following manner:

1. A listing of all 38 Texas public universities, based on regions, and their departments was compiled using an Excel spreadsheet.  Included in this listing were the department chairs and their email addresses.

2. A summary of the research study was submitted to the University of North Texas Institutional Research Board for permission to conduct the study. Permission was received February 22, 2013.

3. Potential participants received an electronic mail invitation to participate in the research study.  The email included a hyperlink to the survey which was delivered through Survey Monkey.

4. The survey was sent out on March 4, 2013.  The participants had 2 weeks to complete the survey.  After the 2-week period a second electronic mail request was sent to those who had not responded.  The participants received 2 weeks to complete the survey.  At the conclusion of the second 2-week period the survey was closed.

5. Each survey received a unique ID number so no personally identifying data and no contact information were included in the dataset.

## Summary

The procedure described in Chapter 3 was designed to determine the relationship between the department chairs' leadership styles and cultural sensitivity. The data for this quantitative correlational study were determined through the LBDQ, ISS, and the demographic questions.  The data collection process emphasized the aspect of confidentiality throughout the entire procedure.  The data were collected by emailing the randomly selected department chairs and to determine what leadership

styles and levels of cultural sensitivity they tend to display when working with culturally

diverse students, staff, and faculty.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to gain greater knowledge about the leadership styles, and cultural sensitivity of department chairs.  This study was designed to compare the leadership styles and intercultural sensitivity of department chairs at Texas public institutions with select demographic variables.  The research questions were:

1.  What is the relationship between leadership style of Texas public university chairs and their cultural sensitivity?

2.  What is the relationship between certain demographics of department chairs at Texas public universities and their leadership style?

3.  What is the relationship between certain demographics of department chairs at Texas public universities and their cultural sensitivity?

This chapter provides results of the data analysis and the major research findings for the methodology described in Chapter 3.

Data Analysis Procedures

The SPSS statistics version 21.0 was used for coding, scoring, and analyzing the data.  To determine if there was a correlation between Texas public universities department chairs' leadership style and cultural sensitivity, Pearson $r$ correlation coefficients were calculated to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the two variables (Pallant, 2010).  An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to show if any differences between the selected demographics of gender, years of service, race/ethnicity, and age of the participating Texas public universities department chairs and their leadership styles.  To determine if a correlation

existed between the Texas public universities department chairs' demographics and their cultural sensitivity an ANOVA was used.

## Sample Demographics

The survey was sent out to 406 public university department chairs in the state of Texas.  These department chairs were randomly sampled within the 10 regions of Texas (see Appendix F).  At the end of the 4-week survey period 174 surveys had been submitted.  Nine surveys were deemed incomplete and were not used in the data analysis.  These removals left 165 usable surveys and a 40% return rate.  Creswell (2008) stated that a 50% return should be expected.  However, the return rate for this sample was acceptable since the minimum return sample size needed was 45 based on the formula by Ary, Jacobs, and Razavieh (1996).  Cook, Heath, and Thompson (2002) conducted a meta-analysis of response rates for Internet surveys.  What they found was an average response rate of 36.9% for 68 surveys reported in 49 studies.  The 40% return rate received for this survey slightly exceeded the average response rate found for that study.  Sax, Gilmartin, and Bryant (2003) conducted a study with first year college students using four versions of the study: paper-only, paper with web option, web-only with response incentive, and web-only without response incentive.  They received a 19.8% response rate for the web-only without response incentive.  The 40% received for this study well exceeds that result.

The descriptive statistics of the sample are presented in Table 3.  Region 10 provided the highest number of responses with 24.  Of the 165 respondents, the majority of department chairs were male (72%).  The department chairs were 51 to 60 (41%) and 61 to 70 (30%) years of age.  Those with 4 to 6 years of service as

department chairs were 35% of the sample followed by chairs with 1 to 3 years of service at 21%.  The sample was 78% White (*n* = 128), 9% Hispanic, 8% Asian, 3% Other, and 2% African American.

<div align="center">Research Questions 1, 2, and 3 Results</div>

Before looking at the research questions' results, it is important to look at the two instruments and their overall scores.  First, the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) results are seen in Table 4 which shows the mean for the LBDQ for the overall, consideration, and structure scores.  The overall score of consideration has a slightly higher mean with a 4.27.  The leader who scores high in this category prefers the dominate dimension of a transformational leader (Moodian, 2009).

The scores for the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS) are found in Table 5.  The two ISS scales of Interaction Confidence and Interaction Attentiveness demonstrated the highest overall mean scores, indicating that the department chairs were confident and attentive when interacting with staff, students, or other faculty of different cultures. The two scales with the lowest mean scores were respect for cultural differences and interaction enjoyment.  What is interesting about these two scores is while the department chairs were confident and attentive when interacting with those of a different culture, they might not enjoy such interactions much and might not have enough respect for that culture to fully understand the people representing it.

Table 3

*Demographics of Responding Department Chairs*

| Demographic Variable | N | % |
|---|---|---|
| Gender | | |
| Male | 119 | 72 |
| Female | 46 | 28 |
| Age | | |
| 29-40 | 5 | 3 |
| 41-50 | 41 | 25 |
| 51-60 | 68 | 41 |
| 61-70 | 50 | 30 |
| 71-80 | 1 | 1 |
| Ethnicity | | |
| White | 128 | 78 |
| Minority | 37 | 22 |
| Years in Service as Chair | | |
| < 1 year | 16 | 10 |
| 1-3 years | 35 | 21 |
| 4-6 years | 58 | 35 |
| 7-10 years | 27 | 16 |
| > 10 years | 29 | 18 |
| Region | | |
| 1 | 15 | 9 |
| 2 | 16 | 10 |
| 3 | 12 | 7 |
| 4 | 13 | 8 |
| 5 | 18 | 11 |
| 6 | 17 | 10 |
| 7 | 15 | 9 |
| 8 | 16 | 10 |
| 9 | 18 | 11 |
| 10 | 24 | 15 |

Table 4

*LBDQ Results by Demographic Variable*

| Demographic Variable | Scale *M* (*SD*) | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Consideration | Structure | Overall |
| Gender | | | |
|    Male | 4.28 (.326) | 4.06 (.381) | 4.17 (.296) |
|    Female | 4.23 (.374) | 4.05 (.370) | 4.14 (.312) |
| Age | | | |
|    29-40 | 4.24 (.358) | 4.00 (.539) | 4.12 (.398) |
|    41-50 | 4.29 (.297) | 4.11 (.394) | 4.20 (.310) |
|    51-60 | 4.25 (.372) | 4.02 (.410) | 4.13 (.316) |
|    61-70 | 4.28 (.337) | 4.08 (.294) | 4.18 (.262) |
|    71-80 | 4.30 (na*) | 4.40 (na*) | 4.35 (na*) |
| Ethnicity | | | |
|    White | 4.24 (.351) | 4.03 (.370) | 4.14 (.298) |
|    Minority | 4.27 (.277) | 4.22 (.342) | 4.30 (.261) |
| Years in Service as Chair | | | |
|    < 1 year | 4.20 (.385) | 4.02 (.509) | 4.11 (.370) |
|    1-3 years | 4.25 (.337) | 4.02 (.341) | 4.14 (.291) |
|    4-6 years | 4.26 (.389) | 4.11 (.436) | 4.18 (.368) |
|    7-10 years | 4.25 (.285) | 4.10 (.297) | 4.17 (.202) |
|    > 10 years | 4.36 (.250) | 4.02 (.267) | 4.19 (.182) |
| Region | | | |
|    1 | 4.33 (.250) | 3.92 (.312) | 4.13 (.203) |
|    2 | 4.26 (.314) | 4.13 (.430) | 4.19 (.310) |
|    3 | 4.20 (.266) | 4.15 (.489) | 4.18 (.344) |
|    4 | 4.40 (.381) | 4.27 (.328) | 4.33 (.289) |
|    5 | 4.33 (.211) | 3.94 (.318) | 4.14 (.180) |
|    6 | 4.21 (.257) | 4.14 (.318) | 4.17 (.234) |
|    7 | 4.21 (.343) | 4.02 (.382) | 4.11 (.310) |
|    8 | 4.32 (.364) | 4.14 (.253) | 4.23 (.280) |
|    9 | 4.13 (.559) | 3.88 (.457) | 4.01 (.456) |
|    10 | 4.30 (.322) | 4.08 (.366) | 4.19 (.287) |

*Note.* *no variance due to sample of 1 in this category.

Table 5

*ISS Results by Demographic Variable*

| Demographic Variable | Scale *M* (*SD*) | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Engage | Respect | Confidence | Enjoyment | Attentiveness | Overall |
| Gender | | | | | | |
|     Male | 1.89 (.470) | 1.61 (.514) | 2.19 (.607) | 1.54 (.468) | 2.04 (.612) | 1.86 (.409) |
|     Female | 1.84 (.350) | 1.59 (.466) | 2.17 (.509) | 1.59 (.498) | 1.95 (.516) | 1.83 (.341) |
| Age | | | | | | |
|     29-40 | 1.74 (.421) | 1.33 (.264) | 2.12 (.867) | 1.60 (.435) | 1.67 (.471) | 1.69 (.420) |
|     41-50 | 1.89 (.395) | 1.55 (.448) | 2.11 (.618) | 1.42 (.489) | 2.02 (.596) | 1.81 (.376) |
|     51-60 | 1.84 (.448) | 1.63 (.504) | 2.13 (.559) | 1.55 (.504) | 2.00 (.572) | 1.83 (.398) |
|     61-70 | 1.91 (.454) | 1.64 (.545) | 2.31 (.527) | 1.64 (.414) | 2.07 (.602) | 1.91 (.376) |
|     71-80 | 2.86 (na*) | 2.33 (na*) | 3.20 (na*) | 2.00 (na*) | 3.00 (na*) | 2.71 (na*) |
| Ethnicity | | | | | | |
|     White | 1.89 (.451) | 1.65 (.521) | 2.23 (.574) | 1.59 (.477) | 2.02 (.578) | 1.88 (.402) |
|     Minority | 1.82 (.392) | 1.45 (.362) | 2.02 (.590) | 1.37 (.432) | 1.97 (.594) | 1.73 (.318) |
| Years in Service as Chair | | | | | | |
|     < 1 year | 1.82 (.348) | 1.72 (.482) | 2.20 (.556) | 1.65 (.479) | 2.04 (.595) | 1.88 (.390) |
|     1-3 years | 1.78 (.394) | 1.54 (.408) | 2.21 (.499) | 1.46 (.479) | 1.92 (.543) | 1.79 (.328) |
|     4-6 years | 1.91 (.423) | 1.55 (.472) | 2.15 (.607) | 1.55 (.482) | 2.03 (.633) | 1.84 (.406) |
|     7-10 years | 1.86 (.418) | 1.70 (.544) | 2.16 (.615) | 1.63 (.427) | 2.07 (.580) | 1.88 (.331) |
|     > 10 years | 1.95 (.576) | 1.67 (.612) | 2.23 (.626) | 1.55 (.506) | 2.03 (.573) | 1.90 (.486) |

*(table continues)*

*ISS Results by Demographic Variable (continued).*

| Demographic Variable | Scale *M* (*SD*) | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Engage | Respect | Confidence | Enjoyment | Attentiveness | Overall |
| Region | | | | | | |
| 1 | 1.93 (.358) | 1.58 (.350) | 2.11 (.406) | 1.56 (.272) | 2.07 (.607) | 1.85 (.277) |
| 2 | 1.91 (.451) | 1.70 (.538) | 2.13 (.692) | 1.56 (.498) | 1.92 (.413) | 1.86 (.399) |
| 3 | 1.74 (.399) | 1.54 (.461) | 2.10 (.386) | 1.56 (.499) | 1.92 (.638) | 1.76 (.406) |
| 4 | 2.00 (.603) | 1.71 (.714) | 2.14 (.550) | 1.49 (.422) | 2.23 (.712) | 1.92 (.472) |
| 5 | 1.92 (.533) | 1.65 (.613) | 2.36 (.555) | 1.70 (.593) | 2.04 (.666) | 1.93 (.497) |
| 6 | 1.90 (.349) | 1.59 (.349) | 2.07 (.616) | 1.49 (.443) | 1.96 (.439) | 1.81 (.298) |
| 7 | 1.80 (.491) | 1.48 (.403) | 2.39 (.612) | 1.53 (.451) | 2.09 (.636) | 1.84 (.376) |
| 8 | 1.93 (.469) | 1.46 (.401) | 2.25 (.630) | 1.40 (.443) | 1.98 (.638) | 1.82 (.361) |
| 9 | 1.85 (.437) | 1.87 (.615) | 2.17 (.641) | 1.70 (.547) | 2.04 (.635) | 1.93 (.472) |
| 10 | 1.76 (.299) | 1.49 (.416) | 2.09 (.587) | 1.49 (.501) | 1.94 (.544) | 1.75 (.322) |

*Note.* *no variance due to sample of 1 in this category.

*Research Question 1*

This research question was the following: What is the relationship between leadership style of Texas public university chairs and their cultural sensitivity?  A Pearson *r* correlation was used to determine if there was a relationship between the overall scores on the Leadership Behavior Questionnaire (LBDQ) and on the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS).  The LBDQ overall score was used for two reasons.  First Halpin (1966) says a leader should be strong in both initiating structure and show high consideration.  Hoy and Miskel (2001) support this and say "initiating structure and consideration are fundamental dimensions of leader behavior."  Second the overall reliability was an alpha of .7, the minimal acceptable value for using the data as a single scale (Pallant, 2007).   When looking at the LBDQ overall and the ISS overall scales, the results showed a statistically significant negative correlation ($r = -.431$, $p < .0001$).  As department chairs' LBDQ overall scores increased, their overall ISS scores decreased, suggesting the higher the initiating structure and consideration then the lower the intercultural sensitivity (Table 6) or the opposite i.e. as the leadership score decreased the ISS score increased.

Table 6

*Correlation Results for Research Question 1*

| Variables Correlated | *r* | $r^2$ | *p* |
|---|---|---|---|
| LBDQ Overall & Cultural Sensitivity | -.431 | .186 | < .0001 |

*Research Question 2*

This research question was the following: What is the relationship between certain demographics of department chairs at Texas public universities and their leadership style?  The demographics included the following variables: (a) age, (b) gender, (c) ethnicity, (d) years as department chair, and (e) region.  As appropriate for the variables, either the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) or the independent samples *t* test was conducted to evaluate the relationship between leadership styles (i.e., LBDQ overall, consideration, and structure) and each of the demographics for department chairs.  The t-test was selected to compare the two mean scores for

the two factors representing ethnicity.  The ANOVA was selected because more than two mean

scores were being compared.  The dependent variables were the three LBDQ scores of overall,

structure, and consideration.  Three discrete tests were conducted for each dependent variables

(i.e., one per dependent variable).  Table 7 shows the means and standard deviations for the three

dependent variables demonstrated by the department chairs.

Table 7

*Means and Standard Deviations for the Department Chairs' Three LBDQ Scores*

| Statistic | LBDQ | | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | Overall | Consideration | Structure |
| M | 4.160 | 4.270 | 4.060 |
| SD | .300 | .340 | .377 |

Leadership style by age. The ANOVA was used to evaluate the relationship between the

leadership styles and age variables for the department chairs.  The factor variable of age consisted

of the following five groups: (a) 29 to 40 years old, (b) 41 to 50 years old, (c) 51 to 60 years old, (d)

61 to 70 years old, and (e) 71 to 80 years old.  No significant differences were found between Texas

public universities department chairs' leadership styles by age.  Table 8 provides the results.

Table 8

*ANOVAs for LBDQ by Age*

| LBDQ | | SS | df | MS | F | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Overall | Between Groups | .185 | 4 | .046 | .508 | .730 |
|  | Within Groups | 14.556 | 160 | .091 |  |  |
|  | Total | 14.741 | 164 |  |  |  |
| Consideration | Between Groups | .062 | 4 | .016 | .132 | .971 |
|  | Within Groups | 18.878 | 160 | .118 |  |  |
|  | Total | 18.940 | 164 |  |  |  |
| LBDQ | | SS | df | MS | F | P |
| tructure | Between Groups | .394 | 4 | .098 | .689 | .600 |
|  | Within Groups | 22.856 | 160 | .143 |  |  |
|  | Total | 23.249 | 164 |  |  |  |

Leadership style by gender.  The independent samples *t* test was used to evaluate the relationships between the department chairs' leadership styles and genders.  The factor variable of gender consisted of two groups: male and female.  No significant differences were found between Texas public universities department chairs' leadership styles by gender.  Table 9 provides the results.

Leadership style and ethnicity. The ANOVA was planned to evaluate the relationship between the leadership styles and ethnicity variables for the department chairs.  The factor variable of ethnicity originally consisted of White, Black or African American, Asian, Hispanic, and Other.  However, the number of minorities in the sample was too few for ANOVA.  The categories of Black or African American, Asian, Hispanic, and Other were grouped into a single variable called Minority.  The new factor variable of ethnicity consisted of two groups: White and Minority.  Three significant differences were found between Texas public universities department chairs' leadership styles by ethnicity.  Table 10 provides the statistically significant results.  Part of this could be due to the minorities own culture and how that culture views leadership.  Many times minority leaders are targeted for programs in leadership, which could also be a reason why there is a difference in the findings.

Table 9

*Results for LBDQ by Gender* t *tests*

| LBDQ | *t* | *df* | *p* | *M* Diff. | *SE* Diff. | 95% *CI* Lower | Upper |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Consideration | .879 | 163 | .381 | .052 | .059 | -.065 | .169 |
| Structure | .158 | 163 | .875 | .010 | .066 | -.119 | .140 |
| Overall | .597 | 163 | .551 | .031 | .052 | -.072 | .134 |

Table 10

*Results for LBDQ by Ethnicity* t *tests*

| LBDQ | *t* | *df* | *p* | *M* Diff. | *SE* Diff. | 95% *CI* Lower | Upper |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Consideration | -2.021 | 162 | .045* | -.131 | .065 | -.259 | -.003 |
| Structure | -2.705 | 162 | .008** | -.190 | .070 | -.329 | -.051 |
| Overall | -2.864 | 162 | .005** | .005 | -.161 | .056 | -.271 |

*Note.* * p is significant at less than .05.  ** p is significant at less than .01.

Leadership style and years of service as department chair. The ANOVA was used to evaluate the relationship between the department chairs' leadership styles and years of service.  The factor variable of years of service as department chair was the following five groups: (a) less than 1 year; (b) 1 to 3 years, (c) 4 to 6 years, (d) 7 to 10 years, and (e) more than 10 years.  No significant difference was found between the years of service as department chair and Texas public universities department chairs.  Table 11 provides the results.

Table 11

*ANOVAs for LBDQ by Years of Service*

| LBDQ | | *SS* | *df* | *MS* | *F* | *p* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Overall | Between Groups | .110 | 4 | .027 | .300 | .877 |
| | Within Groups | 14.631 | 160 | .091 | | |
| | Total | 14.741 | 164 | | | |
| Consideration | Between Groups | .354 | 4 | .088 | .761 | .552 |
| | Within Groups | 18.586 | 160 | .116 | | |
| | Total | 18.940 | 164 | | | |
| Structure | Between Groups | .290 | 4 | .072 | .505 | .732 |
| | Within Groups | 22.960 | 160 | .143 | | |
| | Total | 23.249 | 164 | | | |

Leadership style and region.  The ANOVA was used to evaluate the relationship between the department chairs' leadership styles and the 10 regions of service.  The factor variable of regions was 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10.  No significant differences were found between department chairs' leadership styles and the 10 regions.  Table 12 shows the results.

Table 12

*ANOVAs for LBDQ by Regions*

| LBDQ | | *SS* | *df* | *MS* | *F* | *p* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Overall | Between Groups | 1.006 | 9 | .112 | 1.257 | .265 |
| | Within Groups | 13.701 | 154 | .089 | | |
| | Total | 14.707 | 163 | | | |
| Consideration | Between Groups | .909 | 9 | .101 | .863 | .560 |
| | Within Groups | 18.030 | 154 | .117 | | |
| | Total | 18.939 | 163 | | | |
| Structure | Between Groups | 2.112 | 9 | .235 | 1.719 | .089 |
| | Within Groups | 21.023 | 154 | .137 | | |
| | Total | 23.134 | 163 | | | |

*Research Question 3*

This research question was the following: What is the relationship between certain demographics of department chairs at Texas public universities and their cultural sensitivity?  The five demographic variables included the following: (a) age, (b) gender, (c) years as department chair, (d) ethnicity, and (e) region.  The dependent variable was the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS) scores and the ISS sub-scores of interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, interaction enjoyment, and interaction attentiveness.  The ANOVA was used to evaluate the relationship between the department chairs' intercultural sensitivity and the demographic variables.  Table 13 shows the means and standard deviations for the six ISS scores.

Table 13

*Means and Standard Deviations for the Department Chairs' Six ISS Scores*

| Statistic | Overall | Engagement | Respect | Confidence | Enjoyment | Attentiveness |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *M* | 1.85 | 1.88 | 1.61 | 2.18 | 1.55 | 2.02 |
| *SD* | .39 | .44 | .50 | .58 | .48 | .59 |

Intercultural sensitivity and age.  The ANOVA was used to evaluate the relationship between the six ISS scores and the ages of the department chairs.  The factor variable of age consisted of the following five groups: (a) 29 to 40 years old, (b) 41 to 50 years old, (c) 51 to 60 years old, (d) 61 to 70 years old, and (e) 71 to 80 years old.  The ANOVA was not significant for any of the ISS dependent variables.  No significant differences were found between Texas public universities department chairs' intercultural sensitivity by age.  Table 14 provides the results.

Intercultural sensitivity and gender.  The independent samples *t* test was used to evaluate the relationships between the department chairs' six ISS scores and genders.  The factor variable of gender consisted of two groups: male and female.  No significant differences were found between Texas public universities department chairs' six ISS scores by gender.  The factor variable, gender, created two groups: male and female.  Table 15 shows the results of the six *t* tests.

Intercultural sensitivity and ethnicity. The factor variable of ethnicity originally consisted of White, Black or African American, Asian, Hispanic, and Other.  However, the number of minorities in the sample was too few for ANOVA.  The categories of Black or African American, Asian, Hispanic, and Other were grouped into a single variable called Minority.  The new factor variable of ethnicity consisted of two groups: White and Minority.  The ISS sub-scales of interaction enjoyment and respect showed statistical significance.  Interaction enjoyment subscale yielded statistical significance ($t = -2.46$, $p = .015$) between the White and Minority department chairs.  Respect subscale yielded statistical significance ($t = 2.107$, $p = .037$) between the White and Minority department chairs.  Table 16 displays the findings for the *t* tests.

Table 14

*ANOVAs for Six ISS Scales by Age*

| LBDQ | | *SS* | *df* | *MS* | *F* | *p* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Overall | Between Groups | 1.146 | 4 | .287 | 1.918 | .110 |
| | Within Groups | 23.906 | 160 | .149 | | |
| | Total | 25.052 | 164 | | | |
| Engage | Between Groups | 1.175 | 4 | .294 | 1.539 | .193 |
| | Within Groups | 30.546 | 160 | .191 | | |
| | Total | 31.721 | 164 | | | |
| Respect | Between Groups | 1.142 | 4 | .285 | 1.147 | .337 |
| | Within Groups | 39.839 | 160 | .249 | | |
| | Total | 40.981 | 164 | | | |
| Confidence | Between Groups | 2.258 | 4 | .564 | 1.709 | .151 |
| | Within Groups | 52.861 | 160 | .330 | | |
| | Total | 55.119 | 164 | | | |
| Enjoyment | Between Groups | 1.284 | 4 | .321 | 1.437 | .224 |
| | Within Groups | 35.750 | 160 | .223 | | |
| | Total | 37.034 | 164 | | | |
| Attentiveness | Between Groups | 1.736 | 4 | .434 | 1.268 | .285 |
| | Within Groups | 54.765 | 160 | .342 | | |
| | Total | 56.501 | 164 | | | |

Table 15

*Six ISS Scales by Gender Results for* t *tests*

| | | | | | | 95% *CI* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ISS Scale | *t* | *df* | *p* | *M* Diff. | SE Diff. | Lower | Upper |
| Engage | .724 | 163 | .470 | .055 | .076 | -.096 | .206 |
| Respect | .237 | 163 | .813 | .021 | .087 | -.151 | .193 |
| Confidence | .202 | 163 | .840 | .020 | .101 | -.179 | .220 |
| Enjoyment | -.594 | 163 | .553 | -.049 | .083 | -.212 | .114 |
| Attentiveness | .937 | 163 | .350 | .096 | .102 | -.106 | .297 |
| Overall | .461 | 163 | .646 | .031 | .068 | -.103 | .166 |

Table 16

*Six ISS Scales by Ethnicity Results for* t *tests*

| ISS Scale | *t* | *df* | *p* | *M* Diff. | *SE* Diff. | 95% *CI* Lower | Upper |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Engage | .784 | 162 | .434 | .066 | .085 | -.101 | .234 |
| Respect | 2.107 | 162 | .037* | .200 | .095 | .013 | .388 |
| Confidence | 1.890 | 162 | .061 | .210 | .111 | -.009 | .430 |
| Enjoyment | 2.466 | 162 | .015* | .222 | .090 | .044 | .400 |
| Attentiveness | .446 | 162 | .656 | .050 | .112 | -.171 | .271 |
| Overall | 1.979 | 162 | .050 | .147 | .074 | .000 | .294 |

*Note.* * p is significant at less than .05.

Intercultural sensitivity and years of service. The ANOVA was used to evaluate the relationship between the six ISS scores and department chairs' years of service. The factor variable of years of service as department chair was the following five groups: (a) less than 1 year; (b) 1 to 3 years, (c) 4 to 6 years, (d) 7 to 10 years, and (e) more than 10 years. The ANOVA was not significant for any of the ISS dependent variables. No significant differences were found between Texas public universities department chairs' intercultural sensitivity by years of service as department chair. Table 17 shows the results.

Intercultural sensitivity and region. The ANOVA was used to evaluate the relationship between the department chairs' six ISS scores and the 10 regions of service. The factor variable of regions was 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10. No significant differences were found between department chairs' leadership styles and the 10 regions. Table 18 shows the results.

Summary

The research questions in this study examined the department chairs' leadership styles and intercultural sensitivity at Texas public universities. The data gathered for the first research question indicated a significant correlation between leadership style and intercultural sensitivity. The correlation was a negative correlation which indicated that as the LBDQ scale goes up the ISS scale went down and vice versa. The second and third questions were used to evaluate relationships

between the chairs' demographics, leadership styles (consideration and initiating structure), and intercultural sensitivity. Only the demographic variable ethnicity, measured as a dichotomy of White and minority, demonstrated statistical significance with leadership style (all three variables) and intercultural sensitivity (Respect and Enjoyment variables). For the second and third question the other demographics of gender, age, years as department chair, and the region where they work were also examined. However there were no significant correlations between any of these demographics.

While these results did not show many significant correlations, the ones that it did show can help us determine some areas in which department chairs at Texas public universities are needing training to better assist them in their role. Training should assist the department chairs in becoming more effective in their role.

Table 17

*ANOVAs for Six ISS Scales by Years of Service*

| LBDQ | | SS | df | MS | F | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Overall | Between Groups | .259 | 4 | .065 | .417 | .796 |
| | Within Groups | 24.793 | 160 | .155 | | |
| | Total | 25.052 | 164 | | | |
| Engage | Between Groups | .596 | 4 | .149 | .766 | .549 |
| | Within Groups | 31.125 | 160 | .195 | | |
| | Total | 31.721 | 164 | | | |
| Respect | Between Groups | .958 | 4 | .239 | .957 | .433 |
| | Within Groups | 40.023 | 160 | .250 | | |
| | Total | 40.981 | 164 | | | |
| Confidence | Between Groups | .190 | 4 | .048 | .139 | .968 |
| | Within Groups | 54.929 | 160 | .343 | | |
| | Total | 55.119 | 164 | | | |
| Enjoyment | Between Groups | .621 | 4 | .155 | .682 | .606 |
| | Within Groups | 36.414 | 160 | .228 | | |
| | Total | 37.034 | 164 | | | |
| Attentiveness | Between Groups | .428 | 4 | .107 | .305 | .874 |
| | Within Groups | 56.073 | 160 | .350 | | |
| | Total | 56.501 | 164 | | | |

Table 18

*ANOVAs for Six ISS Scales by Regions*

| LBDQ | | SS | df | MS | F | P |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Overall | Between Groups | .650 | 9 | .072 | .470 | .893 |
| | Within Groups | 23.661 | 154 | .154 | | |
| | Total | 24.312 | 163 | | | |
| Engage | Between Groups | 1.024 | 9 | .114 | .589 | .804 |
| | Within Groups | 29.727 | 154 | .193 | | |
| | Total | 30.751 | 163 | | | |
| Respect | Between Groups | 2.521 | 9 | .280 | 1.137 | .340 |
| | Within Groups | 37.932 | 154 | .246 | | |
| | Total | 40.453 | 163 | | | |
| Confidence | Between Groups | 1.895 | 9 | .211 | .622 | .777 |
| | Within Groups | 52.186 | 154 | .339 | | |
| | Total | 54.081 | 163 | | | |
| Enjoyment | Between Groups | 1.448 | 9 | .161 | .700 | .708 |
| | Within Groups | 35.384 | 154 | .230 | | |
| | Total | 36.832 | 163 | | | |
| Attentiveness | Between Groups | 1.204 | 9 | .134 | .379 | .944 |
| | Within Groups | 54.327 | 154 | .353 | | |
| | Total | 55.531 | 163 | | | |

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to gain greater knowledge about the leadership styles and cultural sensitivity of department chairs. The department chair position represents that first administrative role into which faculty may step on their way to higher level university or college administration roles. As universities continue to become more diverse, it is important that department chairs become more culturally aware and that institutions facilitate the development of culturally competent department chairs able to understand their students, staff, and faculty and their own leadership styles and cultural sensitivities.

In this study, the sample was department chairs at public universities in the state of Texas who responded ($n = 165$) to the survey containing measurements for their leadership styles and cultural sensitivity. The respondents' demographics were also collected. The Pearson $r$ correlation coefficient was used to determine if there were correlations between Texas public universities department chairs' leadership styles and cultural sensitivity. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and $t$ tests were used to show if any differences between the selected demographics of gender, years of service, race/ethnicity, and age of the participating Texas public university departments chairs and their leadership styles. The remainder of the chapter includes a summary of the findings, discussion, implications, and recommendations.

Summary of the Findings

First, the overall scores on the Leadership Behavior Questionnaire (LBDQ) and on the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS) yielded a statistically significant negative correlation ($r = -.431$, $p < .0001$). As department chairs' LBDQ overall scores increased, their overall ISS scores decreased, suggesting the higher the initiation structure and consideration, the lower the intercultural sensitivity. There is a negative relationship between a department chairs leadership style and their intercultural sensitivity. The total score for the LBDQ was examined to determine if department chairs may have a higher level of skill set with a combination of the two structures, which would yield a more well

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rounded leader. As stated before Halpin (1966) and Hoy and Miskel (2001) believe that both initiating structure and consideration are fundamental for a leader.

Second, the relationships between certain demographics of department chairs at Texas public universities and their leadership style were tested with ANOVAs and *t* tests. The demographics measured were the following: (a) age, (b) gender, (c) ethnicity, (d) years as department chair, and (e) region. The dependent variables were the three LBDQ scores of overall, structure, and consideration. Three discrete tests were conducted for each dependent variable (i.e., one test per dependent variable). No significant differences were found for the demographics of age, gender, years as department chair, and region.

There was a significant difference found between Texas public universities department chairs' leadership styles and ethnicity measured as minority versus non-minority (i.e., White). When looking at ethnicity and the LBDQ, the results showed significance for both subscales of consideration and structure. A difference in leadership style occurred between minority and White department chairs. Minority chairs demonstrated higher leadership scores than did white department chairs. Part of this could be due to cultural differences and how certain cultures view leadership. Minority chairs leadership scores could be higher because minorities are often targeted for mentoring programs in leadership either within the university or groups outside of the university. Therefore they may have demonstrated better leadership skills to attain their positions and may have received more leadership training than their white counterparts.

Third, the relationships between certain demographics of department chairs at Texas public universities and cultural sensitivity were investigated using ANOVAs and *t* tests. The five demographic variables included the following: (a) age, (b) gender, (c) years as department chair, (d) ethnicity, and (e) region. The dependent variable was the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS) score and the ISS sub-scores for interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, interaction enjoyment, and interaction attentiveness. No significant differences were found between department chairs' intercultural sensitivity and the variables of age, gender, years as department chair, or region.

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Significant differences occurred between ethnicities measured as minority versus non-minority (i.e., White) for the two intercultural sensitivity subscales of respect for cultural differences and interaction enjoyment. The minority department chairs' intercultural sensitivity scores were lower than the White department chairs' intercultural sensitivity scores. The differences could be due in part to differences in the chairs' cultural backgrounds. As Brislin (1993) noted the values, attitudes, and identities are what guides a person through life and determines what is acceptable and not acceptable behavior. Minority individuals are required to a certain extent to adapt to the majority culture if they are to be successful. This forced adaptation could be reflected in the low intercultural sensitivity scores of the minority department chairs in this study. However the overall score indicated no significant difference.

## Discussion

The aim of this research was to determine if leadership style and intercultural sensitivity had any correlation or if any demographics were related to either for department chairs in the state of Texas at public universities. The dependent variables of the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS) were used in this quantitative study to determine what relationship there was. When reviewing the overall scores for both instruments, the two scales of interaction confidence and interaction attentiveness were the two highest regarding interacting with people of different cultures. However, all department chairs scores were low for the two scales of interaction enjoyment and respect for cultural differences.

When interacting with people representing other cultures, the sample of all department chairs may not show respect or may display a lack of interest. Bhawuk and Brislin (1992) stated that for someone to operate effectively with people of another culture, that person must be interested in the other culture. Eagly and Chin (2010) stated that leaders who belong to a diverse group tend to have more multicultural competence that can ease the challenges of managing diversity. The contradictory findings of this study could be due to the smaller sample size and/or only being conducted in the state of Texas.

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Another finding was the significant difference found for ethnicity on the LBDQ and the ISS scores. LBDQ scores indicated that minorities do not attend to leadership style in the same way that their White counterparts do. This could be culturally related which is supported by Den Hartog et al. (1999) who surveyed 62 cultures and found that different cultures have different ideas as to what leadership entails which is similar to what this study found with the LBDQ. Den Hartog continued to note that in some cultures there needs to be strong decisive action to be seen as a leader, while in some other cultures being more democratic and consulting is a pre-requisite for the leader. In some cultures a leader who shows sensitivity may be seen as weak, whereas in other cultures this is seen as effective leadership.

The Bass and Avolio (1994) reported that transformational leaders are able to motivate, inspire, and encourage change. These characteristics lend themselves to developing an awareness of differences, such as with diverse cultures, and adjusting to the environment for the purpose of motivating, inspiring, and encouraging appropriately. The full sample of department chairs displayed higher consideration scores, suggesting they were more likely to display transformational leadership characteristics.

Department chairs regularly observe the make-up of their universities and colleges changing semester by semester and need to understand their own cultural lenses as well as those of other peoples and cultures (Javidan, 2008). Department chairs in Texas encounter many different cultures within their staffs, faculties, and communities. They are responsible for leading in a setting able to adjust to the diversity within in their universities. In a culturally diverse university, the department chair should support the cultural needs of students, staff, and faculty in order to produce more effective instructional and organizational practices.

Unfortunately, the scores for the ISS interaction enjoyment scale were low for the entire sample. This finding is of concern. Bhawuk and Brislin (1992) stated that for someone to operate effectively with people of another culture, that person must be interested in the other culture. When department chairs do not show enjoyment or interest, they may not be as effective.

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The ISS scale scores for consideration were among the two highest ISS scores. The overall scores aligned with Daft's (1999) assertion that "successful leaders in an increasingly multicultural world have a responsibility to acknowledge and value cultural differences and understand how diversity affects organizational operations and outcomes" (pp. 300-301). However, Daft's argued that such behavior always requires respect, which represented one of the two lowest scoring subscales on the ISS. Therefore the results tell us that overall this sample of department chairs are able to consider differences when working with people from other cultures. The results partially support what Daft is saying. This may mean that department chairs may need help understanding that while they may acknowledge another culture but ensuring that respect is also shown is important for a leader. The overall findings showed that the department chairs did tend to report transformational leadership behaviors. Kezar (2000) developed the construct of *pluralistic leadership* as the result of studying faculty and administrators. A pluralistic leader can have more than one view toward leadership because of gender, race, or other identity. For department chairs, pluralism or lack of it could affect how they see or interact with other cultures. One of the major themes linked to culturally competent leadership is the ability to adapt to cultural differences (Daft, 1999; Moodian, 2009). The conclusions of Kezar, Daft (1999), and Moodian (2009) were supported by the findings of this study. With the department chairs showing more transformational leadership behaviors they are able to change leadership behaviors based on the culture they may be interacting with which shows them to be a more culturally competent leader. This allows them to be more effective in their interactions with staff, students, and other faculty.

The LBDQ and the ISS differences found for leadership style and cultural sensitivity suggest divergence between White and minority department chairs and could stem from their culturally different personal values and world viewpoints. Moodian (2009) argued that culture is an ingrained part of everyone and represents the knowledge acquired during childhood. Therefore, the currently observed differences could potentially track back to how the department chairs were raised within their home cultures. Moodian also argued that people select what aspects of their cultural heritage they apply to their lives. Some people apply all they have learned about their heritage and use it to

guide their behaviors, personality, and interactions, which at times could lead to others seeing them as ethnocentric, or seeing only their way as the right way based on their own cultural beliefs.  The minority department chairs may have values and beliefs separate from those of the White department chairs that influenced the small significance for both the LBDQ and the ISS.

<center>Implications for Practice</center>

This study is important because academic leaders need to be educated about various cultures as the ability to work with diverse peoples becomes a necessary precondition for effective leadership (Moodian, 2009).  A department chair with certain social behaviors and interpersonal values may work effectively with diverse groups and be more effective in developing relationships as "an essential competency for leading in a global environment" (Daft, 2003).  Kim (1991) said that "a person who is equipped with greater adaptability is likely to be more open to learning different cultural patterns" (p. 268).

Department chairs need to ensure they have developed an awareness of the cultures represented by those around them.  They must be able to adapt to situational encounters with staff, faculty, and students of different cultures.  When these leaders lack comfort or skill with intercultural interactions, they should seek training.  Otherwise stress and frustration may occur daily during interactions within the academic department.  The need for cultural sensitivity training was validated by the findings.  Department chairs should be trained for roles beyond fiscal management, reporting responsibilities, and campus policies.  Training needs to include strategies for adapting to different cultures because leadership is about change and adaptation, not maintaining the status quo (Kouzes & Posner, 2003; Zenger et al., 2000).

The populations of people with whom department chairs work has changed over time. Department chairs must possess cultural sensitivity since 25% to 50% of basic values stem from culture (Gannon, 2004).  Department chairs need tools to identify and understand their own cultures, to work with people representing other cultures, and to be more effective in their roles.  The results of this study indicate that department chairs need assistance in understanding cultural differences particularly in the areas of that showed a low score on the ISS.  Department chairs need training to

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assist them in having a better understanding of those they are working with so they can be more effective. The department chair plays a vital role in serving as the link between upper-level administrators and faculty, staff, and students. As Moodian (2009) said, "viewing cultures is having a distribution of behaviors which allows for us to accommodate for individual differences" (p. 193).

Finally, with respect and enjoyment representing the lowest scale scores, evaluating the cultural sensitivity training offered, if any, at Texas or other states' universities is warranted. If training is offered, evaluating the effectiveness of the training, the content covered in the training, and whether training is or is not mandatory could be important. This type of study could facilitate understanding the scores obtained in my study. For instances when no training is offered, an intervention study could be conducted for determine how these department chairs learn about new cultures, for ascertaining questions about cultures and how to be respectful of other cultures, and for determining whether or not cultural training can be effective in environments with none presently available.

<div align="center">Recommendations for Research</div>

This study was conducted with department chairs in the state of Texas. While the whole state was sampled, further studies need to be conducted in other parts of the United States and nationally to understand and address needs related to leadership styles and intercultural sensitivity.

The second recommendation is to conduct interviews with department chairs to determine how they adapt when exposed to new cultures. Given that this study's results showed that the department chairs were confident and attentive with their intercultural sensitivity, it could be important to investigate how these department chairs came to develop this confidence. It could also be important to find out about the cultures and countries within which the department chairs were raised as such might play a part in how they adapt to new cultures.

In this study the number of participating minority department chairs was not equitable with the number of participating White department chairs. A study that oversamples minorities for the distribution of surveys or for conducting interviews allows for a better understanding of leadership styles and intercultural sensitivity. With this sample including such a small number of minorities, it

was important to have a better comparison between White department chairs and those representing specific minority groups, such as African American, Hispanic/Latino, Asian, etc. Also by oversampling each minority group could be better represented for examination of leadership and cultural sensitivity.

I only surveyed department chairs. Future studies need to interview students, staff, and faculty of different cultures to understand their perceptions of and experiences with their department chairs' leadership styles and intercultural sensitivity. This could also include how they rate their department chair overall. Surveys distributed to gain perceptions about department chairs could be compared to the results from surveys of department chairs. With a limitation of the study being the biases implicit in self-report data, this comparison would be one form of external validation.

The last recommendation would be to look at the department chairs based on subject discipline. This would determine if there are differences between department chairs of various academic areas. The purpose would be to determine if subject disciplines affects department chairs leadership styles or cultural sensitivity. This could further help in determining specific training needs.

Summary

Recognition of the tasks and relationships with which department chairs deal and of how the student population is changing gave direction to this research. Department chairs perform their functions by forming relationships with people across the campus, including students, and community, all of whom are becoming more diverse. This research experience has brought new awareness about department chairs and their work within diverse campus cultures. This study provided a new avenue for researching intercultural sensitivity in higher education that did not exist previously, and the results might aid both department chairs and universities in serving their culturally diverse students effectively and respectfully.

APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographic Items

Time as Department Chair      Less than 1 year \_\_\_\_\_            1-3 years _____

                                       4-6 years _____           7-10 years _____

                                       Greater than 10 years \_\_\_\_\_

Ethnicity:

White (Not of Hispanic origin)        \_\_\_\_\_

Black or African American (Not of Hispanic origin) \_\_\_\_\_

American Indian or Alaska Native  \_\_\_\_\_

Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander  \_\_\_\_\_

Asian  \_\_\_\_\_

Hispanic (person of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central/South America, or other Spanish origin) \_\_\_\_\_

Age        Under 29 \_\_\_\_\_    29-40 _____    41-50 _____

                51-60 _____    61-70 _____    71-80 _____

Gender     Male _____      Female _____

APPENDIX B

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE–FORM XII SELF

Originated by Staff Members of The Ohio State Leadership Studies

and Revised by

Personnel Research Board at The Ohio State University


On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe how you behave as a leader.  This is not a test of ability.  It simply asks you to describe as accurately as you can, how you behave as a leader of the group that you supervise.

Directions:

    a. Read each item carefully.
    b. Think about how frequently you engage in the behavior described by the item.
    c. Decide whether you (A) Always, (B) Often, (C) Occasionally, (D) Seldom or € Never act as described by the item.
    d. Select the appropriate letter (A B C D E) following the item to show the answer you selected.

        A= Always
        B= Often
        C = Occasionally
        D = Seldom
        E = Never

1. I let group members know what is expected of them      A B C D E

2. I am friendly and approachable      A B C D E

3. I encourage the use of uniform procedures      A B C D E

4. I do little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group      A B C D E

5. I try out my ideas in the group      A B C D E

6. I put suggestions made by the group into operation      A B C D E

7. I make my attitudes clear to the group      A B C D E

8. I treat all group members as my equals      A B C D E

9. I decide what shall be done and how it shall be done      A B C D E

10. I give advance notice of changes      A B C D E

11. I assign group members to particular tasks      A B C D E

12. I keep to myself      A B C D E

13. I make sure that my part in the group is understood by the group members      A B C D E

14. I look out for the personal welfare of group members      A B C D E

15. I schedule the work to be done      A B C D E

16. I am willing to make changes      A B C D E

17. I maintain definite standards of performance      A B C D E

18. I refuse to explain my actions      A B C D E

19. I ask that group members follow standard rules      A B C D E

20. I act without consulting the group      A B C D E

APPENDIX C

PERMISSION TO USE INTERCULTURAL SENSITIVITY SCALE

310 Davis Hall

gmchen@uri.edu
Dear Dr. Chen,

My name is Melissa Hernandez-Katz, a doctoral student from The University of North Texas writing my dissertation titled Leadership Styles and Cultural Adaptability of Department Chairs at Texas Public Universities. This is all under the direction of my dissertation committee chaired by Dr. Beverly Bower.

I would like to request your permission to use the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale in my research study. I would like to use your instrument under the following conditions:
• I will use the instrument only for my research study and will not sell or use it with any compensated or curriculum development activities.
• I will send you a completed copy of my dissertation which will contain the results from the use of this instrument.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by signing one copy of this letter and returning it to me either through postal mail or email:

Melissa Hernandez-Katz
The University of North Texas
mhkatz@utdallas.edu

Sincerely,
Melissa Hernandez-Katz
Doctoral Candidate
*************************************************************************
Dear Melissa, you have our permission to use ISS for the purpose of non-profit research.
Best.
Guo-Ming Chen

APPENDIX D

TEXAS PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES BY REGION

Region 1     Texas Tech; West Texas A&M

Region 2     Midwestern State

Region 3     University of Texas at Dallas; University of Texas at Arlington; University of North
             Texas – Denton; University of North Texas – Dallas; Texas Women's University;
             Tarleton State; Texas A&M Commerce

Region 4     University of Texas Tyler

Region 5     Lamar University; Stephen F. Austin University

Region 6     University of Houston – Main, Downtown, Clear Lake; Sam Houston State University;
             Texas Southern University; Texas A&M Prairie View; Texas A&M Galveston

Region 7     Texas A&M College Station; Texas A&M Central Texas; Texas State University;
             University of Texas Austin

Region 8     University of Texas at San Antonio; University of Texas Pan American; University of
             Texas Brownsville; University of Houston Victoria; Texas A&M Corpus Christi; Texas
             A&M Kingsville; Texas A&M San Antonio; Texas A&M International University; Sul
             Ross Rio Grande

Region 9     University of Texas Permian Basin; Angelo State University

Region 10    University of Texas El Paso; Sul Ross University

Surveys by Region

| Region | Total surveys sent out | Usable Surveys Received | Surveys Not Usable |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 45 | 15 | |
| 2 | 30 | 16 | 2 |
| 3 | 45 | 12 | 1 |
| 4 | 22 | 13 | |
| 5 | 45 | 18 | 2 |
| 6 | 45 | 17 | 1 |
| 7 | 45 | 15 | 2 |
| 8 | 45 | 16 | |
| 9 | 39 | 18 | |
| 10 | 45 | 24 | |
| Region Unknown | | 1 | |
| Total | 406 | 165 | 8 |

APPENDIX E

IRB APPROVAL

# UNT

**A green light to greatness.™**

## Office of the Vice President of Research and Economic Development

February 22, 2013

Supervising Investigator: Dr. Beverly Bower
Student Investigator: Melissa Hernandez-Katz
Department of Counseling and Higher Education
University of North Texas

RE: Human Subjects Application No. 13-079

Dear Dr. Bower:

In accordance with 45 CFR Part 46 Section 46.101, your study titled "Leadership Styles and Cultural Adaptability of Department Chairs at Texas Public Universities" has been determined to qualify for an exemption from further review by the UNT Institutional Review Board (IRB).

Enclosed is the consent document with stamped IRB approval. Please copy and **use this form only** for your study subjects.

No changes may be made to your study's procedures or forms without prior written approval from the UNT IRB. Please contact Shelia Bourns, Research Compliance Analyst, ext. 4643, if you wish to make any such changes. Any changes to your procedures or forms after three years will require completion of a new IRB application.

We wish you success with your study.

Sincerely,

Before agreeing to participate in this research study, it is important that you read and understand the following explanation of the purpose, benefits and risks of the study and how it will be conducted. After reading the statements below, if you agree to the terms of consent are willing to participate, please indicate your consent by clicking the "Consent" button.

**Title of Study**: Leadership styles and cultural adaptability of department chairs at Texas public universities.

**Student Investigator**: Melissa Hernandez-Katz, University of North Texas (UNT), Department of Higher Education.

**Supervising Investigator**: Dr. Beverly Bower, University of North Texas (UNT), Department of Higher Education.

**Purpose of the Study**: You are being asked to participate in a research study which involves department chairs from Texas Public Universities. The purpose is to study department chairs' leadership styles and cultural adaptability. It may be possible to determine if there is a relationship between the two which could help determine which leadership style is more culturally adaptable.

**Study Procedures**: You will be asked a series of questions based on the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS). You will also be asked demographic information which will be used to determine if there is any relationship between leadership style and cultural adaptability and selected demographics. This survey should take approximately 20 30 minutes of your time.

**Foreseeable Risks**: No foreseeable risks are involved in this study.

**Benefits to the subjects or others:** The research results may provide important information for universities concerning department chairs leadership styles and cultural adaptability which could have an impact on how they carry out day to day activities with staff, faculty, students. Consequently, this research may benefit you as a department chair at a public university.

**Compensation for Participants:** None

**Procedure for Maintaining Confidentiality of Research Record:** Your name will not be associated in any publication or presentation with the information collected or with the research findings from this study. Email addresses will not be associated with the survey, nor will individuals be asked to identify themselves within the survey. No summaries or other reports of the study's findings will contain

information about particular individuals. All survey responses will be kept in a locked office on a secure password protected computer for three years.

**Questions about the Study:** If you have any questions about the study you may contact Melissa Hernandez-Katz at MelissaHernandez-Katz@unt.edu or Dr. Beverly Bower at Beverly.Bower@unt.edu.

**Review for the Protection of Participants:** This research study has been reviewed and approved by the UNT institutional Review Board (IRB). The UNT IRB can be contacted at (940) 565-3940 with any questions regarding the rights of research subjects.

**Research Participants' Rights:**
Your participation in the survey confirms that you have read all of the above and that you agree to all of the following:

- Melissa Hernandez-Katz has explained the study to you and you have had an opportunity to contact her with any questions about the study. You have been informed of the possible benefits and the potential risks of the study.
- You understand that you do not have to take part in this study, and your refusal to participate or your decision to withdraw will involve no penalty or loss of rights or benefits.
- You understand why the study is being conducted and how it will be performed.
- You understand your rights as a research participant and you voluntarily consent to participate in this study.
- You understand you may print a copy of this form for your records.

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