

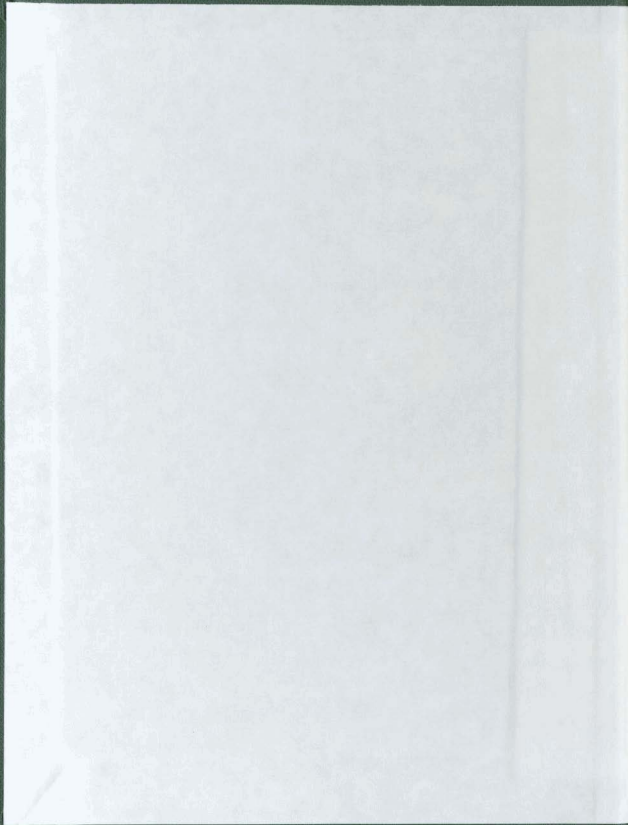
STUDENT SERVICES AND LEADERSHIP
DEVELOPMENT IN A UNIVERSITY SETTING

CENTRE FOR NEWFOUNDLAND STUDIES

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Canada

Student Services and Leadership Development in a University Setting

by

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**A folio presented to the School of Graduate Studies in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Master of Education**

**Department of Educational Leadership
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Introduction: Overview and Rationale for Paper Folio

I have been a student service professional for almost a decade. During this time, I developed a keen interest in issues that affect students. I have seen a variety of leadership styles at all levels of this institution, a small liberal arts college with just under twelve hundred students. Many students have taken on leadership positions and have been active in the governance of the university. *Senior administrators have changed several times since my employment here and issues related to leadership continue to command a great deal of attention, comment and concern.*

Throughout my course work in educational leadership, I became interested in leadership and its impact on the organization. Specifically, it became apparent that leadership style was important to the running of this (and any other) institution.

Observing various leadership styles caused me to ask what style of leadership is suited to student service providers and what style should we be developing in our students? My research on the topic of transformational leadership spoke directly to this question.

Initially, my goal was to understand the student service profession from a historical perspective. This was essential to determine the extent that developing leadership was a key historical role of student service providers who are involved in most aspects of a student's university life. How they model leadership plays a significant role in developing leadership potential in students. In order to be effective role models, student service providers should *examine and understand leadership principles and practices from both a theoretical and historical viewpoint.* They should also reflect on their practices as they interact with students on a daily basis.

The literature clearly identifies transformational leadership as a good framework from which to develop leadership. The first important step in this process is understanding our role within the university setting. This will be the focus of paper number one. A historical review will examine the changing relationship of the student service provider with students and within the university. While there was, initially, a division between the academic and non-academic lives of students, over time this changed to integrating many aspects of student life. The chief student affairs officer played an essential role in making this happen. The new relationship can best be defined by “integration”, “interconnectedness” and “partnerships”.

Understanding the theoretical underpinnings of organizational theory as it has evolved throughout this century is an important step to examining the evolution of leadership theory. Paper number two will provide this framework. The rigid scientific management theory, evident at the turn of the twentieth century, was replaced by a human resource theory which focused on people, groups and relationships. This approach reflected the belief that organizations and people cannot operate in isolation. The behavioral science approach, drawing on other disciplines, emphasized the interactions between people, the organization, and their environment.

Similarly, leadership theory evolved from the trait theory approach, where the intent was to identify specific characteristics of would be leaders. Contingency theories evolved in an attempt to identify the “fit” between the situation and the leader. These theories, reflecting the scientific management approach of that which is observable and measurable, were followed by transformational leadership.

Understanding the historical development of student services, organizational theory and leadership theory was desirable in establishing a framework for developing leadership potential.

This understanding will guide the daily practices of student service professionals as they model and teach leadership for the twenty first century.

Paper #1

Introduction

This first paper will provide a historical review of the evolution of student services in the university setting of North America from the early to mid nineteenth century. The Canadian experience will be highlighted as will the role of the chief student affairs officer during this approximately one hundred year period. The development of the relationship between students and student service providers changed from disciplinarian to custodian to educator, from the acting parent, "in loco parentis", to "information provider" as in the consumer model (Komives, Woodard Jr., and Associates, 1996). This occurred in no small measure because of the growth and diversity of the student population. The role Garland puts forward as required by student service providers for the future of student affairs is that of integrator (1985). This reflects the view that all aspects of student life play an important and significant role in a holistic education.

As scholarship and specialization became the focus for faculty, they saw non-academic functions as falling outside their role. Student service personnel were charged with this responsibility which increased in complexity with the changing student population. This resulting separation of roles left student service personnel on the periphery, ancillary to the primary teaching and research functions of the university.

American and Canadian universities and colleges shared a similar evolution in student services. There was, however, a significant difference in the development of First-Year Experience Programs where the Americans lead the way.

Identifying the needs of students within each institution was (and still is) primarily the responsibility of the chief student affairs officer. The leadership role of this individual is the key to successful integration.

Student Services, A Historical Perspective

Today's student services in North America have their roots in the colonial colleges which were *residential and religious*. Faculty acted in "loco parentis" enforcing a strict, authoritarian and paternalistic method of discipline. The focus was on both the intellectual and moral development of students (Komives et al., 1996).

Deans, who were usually appointed from faculty, were designated to handle problems that arose as the result of students' adjusting to college life (Barr & Keating, 1985). The first student personnel dean in the United States was appointed in 1870 at Harvard, to take the burden of student discipline off the president and faculty who wanted to devote more time to research. Ephraim Gurney was a history professor and as dean he was responsible for instruction, registration and student welfare (Garland, 1985).

Due to the growth of Harvard University, the president, Charles Eliot, divided the deanship in 1890-91, and named Charles Dunbar, dean of faculty, and an English instructor, LeBaron Russell Briggs, dean of the college. It is interesting to note Fley's view of Briggs as dean. "He was the embodiment of the compassionate, loving, patient father figure. He took flowers to the sick, visited students in the hospital, and wrote to parents about their sons" (cited in Sandeen, 1991, p.11).

It was Oberlin College that made the courageous move in 1833 to admit women as students. Eventually the "female department" was headed by Mrs. Adelia Johnston (in 1870). She was to become Dean Johnston before she left the college in 1900. The person who became

the pioneering dean of women, however, was Marion Talbot. Recruited by William Harper, president of the University of Chicago, her duties paralleled those of Dean Briggs at Harvard (Sandeen, 1991).

The extracurricular activities that developed around the middle of the nineteenth century reflected a desire for the development of the whole student: mind, personality, and body. Activities included literary societies, debate clubs, and campus publications and were a student response to the traditional, strictly classical courses of the day. Athletics and physical education were spontaneous and informal, mainly for recreation and enjoyment (Komives et al., 1996).

There were a number of significant happenings during the latter half of the nineteenth century which affected the growth of student affairs. These events coincided with the changing faculty roles and expectations, growing demands on college presidents, and increasing participation of women in higher education. There was a move away from religious to secular concerns as institutions became larger, more complex and more impersonal. Noteworthy was the influence of the German model. American academics studying in Germany were influenced by the focus strictly on the "in class" experiences of students. Faculty there virtually ignored what was happening to students outside the classroom. This model was promoted when the Americans returned home where they argued they should not be expected to be involved with students outside the classroom (Miller, Winston, and Menderhall, 1983).

By the turn of the twentieth century, participation of faculty in student affairs changed from total involvement to detachment. At the same time, there was an obvious increase in the responsibility placed on students, evidenced by growing numbers of student councils and other forms of student government (Fenske, cited in Komives et al., 1996).

Delworth & Hanson (1989) maintain that some of the first services provided by non-faculty individuals centred around safeguarding female students in co-educational colleges and general disciplinary duties. As the end of the century approached, more specific student services were evident: "health and medical services, spiritual guidance provided by campus ministers, and functions related to student matriculation, such as academic advising, admissions and student records" (p.26). Student services continued to grow and diversify adding guidance, counselling, residence supervision and career placement by the first decade of the twentieth century.

By 1910, deans of men and women were found in most colleges and universities, primarily in the role of "social welfare worker" for students. As universities and colleges grew and became more complex, the deans, as suggested by Frederick Rudolph, represented an institutional effort "to maintain collegiate and humane values in an atmosphere of increasing scholarship and specialization" (Sandeen, 1991, p.12).

Faculty then, having removed themselves from all but the cognitive development of students, left the responsibilities to others for the students' social and moral development. This created a division between academic and non-academic aspects of student life (Garland, 1985). Trying to re-integrate the two has been a constant challenge for student affairs' professionals. The reason for this was not that the role of non-faculty people was considered unimportant, but rather that the services were outside the two main functions of the university; teaching and research. This left student service professionals to convince faculty and administrators of the importance of students' emotional, spiritual, and social growth to their intellectual development. Integrating these aspects is essential if students are to receive a "holistic" education.

Between the end of World War I and the depression of the 1930s, there were favourable developments in student services in that a supportive educational philosophy evolved and leading figures wanted to re-integrate the academic and social development of students. Also, student service professionals were developing vigorous self-confident organizations (Delworth & Hanson, 1989).

The thrust of the new approach was summed up in such statements as “students are developing organisms demanding a personalized learning experience if they are to profit from college”(Wrenn & Bell, cited in Delworth & Hanson, 1989, p.26). While it was evident to many that student education involved more than intellectual development and attention, other factors had a negative effect on student services.

The climate of the depression resulted in cutbacks in budgets. At the same time a view that was against student services emerged. Robert M. Hutchens was one of its proponents and he argued that faculty not “be diverted from its proper tasks to perform the uncongenial job of improving the conduct and the health of those entrusted to it”(Hutchens, cited in Delworth & Hanson, 1989, p.26).

Despite this negative view, student services continued to prosper after the depression. This period is referred to as the “golden age” for the profession (Deegan, cited by Garland, 1985). Its services were recognized and emphasized as a significant function.

From the mid nineteenth to the mid twentieth century, the role of student services moved from *disciplinarian, to custodian, to educator*. During the 1960s and 1970s a number of services were added in response to a changing student body. These services included financial aid, housing and food services, personal and academic counselling to name a few. In Canada, the

student loan program, for example, began in 1964. The evolution of the relationship with students away from “in loco parentis” and that of disciplinarian and authority figure declined, and the role of coordinator and educator increased. This changing relationship between students and their institution, was viewed by some as contractual. This involved providing students with a wide range of information which would allow them to make informed decisions as in a consumer model (Komives et al., 1996).

Student development theory and research emerged to explain and understand the concept of the development of the whole student. A significant amount of research appeared during the 1950s and 1960s as a result of this focus (Komives et al., 1996).

Silverman (1971) suggests “integrator” as the name for the role of student affairs where it contributes to the entire institution and not to the student alone (cited in Garland, 1985). Smith (1982) suggests:

If the developmental model emerged in part to supply a positive and less reactive approach to student life, then we must now move to the next step to incorporate a positive approach to institutional life and to respond positively to the issues facing our institutions (cited in Garland, 1985, p.8).

Silverman (1980) makes the argument that what has traditionally been a disadvantage to the student affairs organization (being on the periphery of the educational institution) may be its greatest strength:

Our uniqueness as student personnel workers rests on our ability to fashion significant educational environments, using the resources, values, norms, and opportunities of the variety of constituencies on our campuses. To the extent

that we are successful in our work, we will be respected, not because of position, but as a result of the impacts we have on campus life. Truly, student personnel workers have the opportunities to be central figures for campus improvement in an era when resources must be perceived as newly combined rather than as new. (cited in Garland, 1985, p.8)

As integrators, then, student affairs professionals must consider both the needs of the student and the needs of the institution in defining priorities and goals. This certainly makes a great deal of sense considering the broad array of services that come under the label of student services, from admissions, orientation and financial aid, to health services, counselling and campus security to name a few. No longer is student affairs only involved with traditional programs such as student activities, housing and student conduct. Their responsibilities reach into all aspects of a student's university experience. In addition to those cited above we find intercollegiate athletics and recreation, career planning and academic support services in its mandate (Sandeen, 1991). The efforts during the latter half of the twentieth century saw the student services personnel "anticipate changes, to better co-ordinate academic and student affairs programs, and to develop a more comprehensive educational dimension to the student affairs profession" (Miller & Prince, cited in Garland, 1985, p.7).

Very little happens in isolation and the evolution of student services within the university is no exception. The move away from religious and elitist institutions led to a more diverse student population. The result was the need for diverse services to meet the needs of that population. As faculty for the most part relinquished their responsibilities in all but the "cognitive development" of students, non-faculty personnel took on this role.

The next section will briefly examine the Canadian experience in post-secondary education and the impact on first year students. This has significant implications for the evolution of student services throughout the latter decades of the twentieth century.

The Canadian Experience

Post-secondary education in Canada has a similar background to that of our American neighbours. Our universities were also paternalistic, elitist, and controlled by the clergy with a classical content as curriculum. It is actually described by Gilbert, Chapman, Dietsche, Grayson & Gardner (1997) as “academic social Darwinism” (p.9). Students were admitted to university where “only the fittest survive and where academic success and good grades were largely the responsibility of the individual student and not the institution” (p.9).

A number of the same dramatic changes which affected American higher education had a similar impact in Canada. These included increased participation in post-secondary education by members of the armed forces, baby boomers in the 1960s, women, and part-time students.

In the 1960s there was a move to more publicly funded institutions. There was “less traditional, classical, academic and more applied, practical, technical; less male-dominated and more gender-balanced at least in terms of enrollments and graduates; and finally, less concern about research and more concerned with students” (Gilbert et al., 1997, p.10). According to these same authors Canadian advanced education was not as “practical and pragmatic” as education had become in the United States.

Two views had significant impact on these major changes. First, there was a recognition of the positive correlation between education and economic growth. Second, to achieve these goals required an “equal access for all” view of education. An economic motivation for a democratic view of education justified expanding post-secondary opportunities (Gilbert et al., 1997).

Concerns were raised over expansion as to preparedness of undergraduates, quality of education and the role of research versus teaching (similar to those raised in American higher

education). These concerns coupled with the fact that there was a definite emphasis on academic research, resulted in an environment where “teaching, and especially teaching first-year students, was/is a low status and unrewarded activity” (Gilbert et al., 1997, p.11). They go on to describe first-year instruction as students having little interaction with faculty. As well, there were large lecture classes; teaching assistants and sessional lecturers or new faculty as instructors; little personal feedback; a focus on memorization of content in broad survey courses; little emphasis on writing, higher-order thinking and oral communication skills; multiple choice testing; emphasis on grading not learning and student development; and, passive rather than active learning and little involvement and participation. The “Darwinian” approach pervaded. Students were on their own to “sink or swim” and it really was the responsibility of the student to achieve success; the institution held little responsibility for individual success.

It is this latter point that separates developments in the United States from those in Canada. One significant area where it manifests itself is in the emphasis on “First-Year Experiences and Programs”. In Canada, this focus has been slow in its development, unlike the United States. Gilbert et al. (1997) contend that “the experience to date in Canada has been much less intentional, systematic, intense, varied and interwoven” (p.11).

There were dramatic social and economic changes in the 1980s and 1990s which affected higher education and resulted in external demands for public accountability as well as a call for measurable outcomes to determine “value for money”.

Finding ways to be more effective as institutions as well as efficient and productive was and still is a major challenge. The charge to be accountable economically caused post-secondary institutions to rethink their sink or swim philosophy. As a result, concerns emerged concerning

the following: failure rate of students, preparedness of students, problems of students during the first year and the consequences they pose, the role of institutions in enhancing student success, retention, satisfaction and graduation, effective teaching and instructional practices, collaborations and partnerships to facilitate student success, adjusting to an increasingly diverse student population, an aging professoriate, reduced funding, and evaluation of the extent institutional missions are being met (Gilbert et al., 1997, pp.12-13).

These concerns reflected some fundamental changes. Students were brought back into the debate. There was recognition of institutional responsibility for “positive learning outcomes”. The result of the latter change indicated an emphasis on involving and integrating students into the scholarly community.

The emphasis has changed from sink or swim to “providing students with the tools and support that are necessary for success in both college/university life” (Gilbert et al., 1997, p.13). Presently, in most colleges and universities in Canada, student service personnel are directly and actively involved in providing the necessary leadership in identifying the essential “tools and support” and working toward student success through partnerships both within the university setting and the larger community.

A number of “Canadian Pioneers” in student services were interviewed for their perspectives on various aspects of providing student services. *These leaders have been involved in the provision of student services in various post-secondary settings since the 1950s and 1960s, and some are still active in this area. Their comments cover a range of related issues and offer important insight into both the Canadian experience and to the student service’s profession generally. Various topics were discussed including: historical perspective of its role*

within the institution vis a vis administration, faculty, and students; future issues and most importantly a sense of the “essence” of student services-what its all about.

The following is a summary of key comments by these senior student affairs professionals: The first brief comments speak volumes to the struggle that student services went through in finding its accepted “place” in the university.

“University campuses have begrudgingly grown to respect the role of student services on campus-the tendency is for more student service departments to come under the Vice President Academic demonstrating that student services is not just ancillary but rather an essential role”.

“In the 60s and 70s, the academic community saw student services on the periphery but not really essential”. (Education 6940, Video Interviews)

The following comments reflect the institution’s response to the changing culture to which it had to respond:

“In the late 50s and early 60s, campuses were more socially oriented; in the mid 60s there was an increase in political activism. The 70s saw expansion in post secondary education. In the 80s there was a search for income initiatives to support programs and the 90s were characterized by cutbacks”.

“In the 1960s institutions expanded quickly; there was pressure of growth and changing culture. There was a move away from “in loco parentis” and there was a struggle as to what the social underpinnings should be”. (Education 6940, Video Interviews)

These student service pioneers were asked for any words of wisdom they could offer new professionals in the field of student services. The comments of these chief student affairs

officers speak loudly and clearly to the primary focus of all that guides and drives student services....students!:

“Emphasize students and what can be learned from students”.

“Consistently be an advocate for students”.

“Speak as loudly as you can to students by listening to them”.

“There is much to learn from students”.

“Get involved with students and get to know them”.

“Never be out of sight/touch with students wherever they are-be there!”(Education 6940, Video Interviews)

The same individuals were asked for their future predictions on issues that will face this profession. Coincidentally, the first two of the areas that they predicted will be of major concern are indeed already commanding a great deal of attention:

“ Employment of students will be a great issue”.

“ Financial Aid will be a big concern”.

“Student Service jobs will become contractual, regardless, we will thrive and survive with closer partnerships with students” was another noteworthy comment. (Education 6940, Video Interviews)

In offering advice to the chief student affairs officer, the following comments from these veterans of student affairs call for an integrator role :

“ In developing missions, there must be interconnectedness between the institution and student affairs”.

“There must be coherence with the overall goals of the institution. The chief student

affairs officer looks both ways- the two must interconnect. A decade ago student services was seen as an add on; but, as institutions look for more ways to add value to students education and as we (the institution) become more competitive, people look at the whole package”.

“As we become more accountable, students expect services to be there. There has to be congruence between strategic vision and outcomes and the ability to benchmark activities to mark progress”. (Education 6940, Video Interviews)

These comments highlight a number of important and significant changes seen in the delivery of student services in the past several decades. The essence of student services is indeed meeting the needs of students, but it should be accomplished through partnerships with students, faculty, staff and other members of the community.

Where better to look in the evolution of student services than to the chief student affairs officer for insight into the role leadership plays in student services. The following section will profile this important student service professional.

The Chief Student Affairs Officer

The chief student affairs officer is responsible for the delivery of a varied and often complex package of programs and services. While each institution defines its own needs as to what services are required, it is the chief student affairs officer who is expected to provide leadership and direction in identifying those needs.

The evolution of this role over the past three decades finds the chief student affairs officer a part of the management team of most universities. In this capacity they are highly visible leaders and "expected to be good managers, *delivering timely services to students while handling large budgets efficiently; effective mediators, resolving difficult disputes and campus conflicts; and sound educators, planning and putting into effect successful cocurricular programs for students*" (Sandeen, 1991, p.xii).

The multifaceted nature of the "job duties" for this position requires skills that are complex. Sandeen (1991) comments on the diversity of expectations that members of the university community hold for the person in this role: "they must be a wizard with the students, a dove with the faculty, a professor chips with the alumni, and a dragon for the president" (p.16).

Sandeen points to a very important consideration in assessing this individual; there must be a good "fit" between the chief student affairs officer and the institution. Equally important, he reflects, there must be an awareness that as the institution changes, the skills and abilities of this person must also change.

In higher education there has been a definite change in the management styles of leaders toward participatory management and collaboration with an emphasis on interaction and cooperation (Sandeen, 1991). *This is evident in many areas. One example is the partnership between academic and student affairs. This reflects the important view that all of students'*

experiences are important to their education.

The role the chief student affairs officer plays vis a vis the chief academic officer is reflected in the educational philosophy of the student affairs profession where

the academic mission of the institution is pre-eminent. Colleges and universities organize their primary activities around the academic experience: the curriculum, the library, the classroom and the laboratory. The work of student affairs should not compete with and cannot substitute for that academic experience. As a partner in the educational enterprise, student affairs enhances and supports the academic mission. (Sandeen, 1991, pp. 28-29)

There are many examples of joint pursuits between academic and student affairs which can improve the institution's educational programs. These include: institutional research, student assessment, recruitment and orientation to name a few.

One of the most important responsibilities of the chief student affairs officer, is to gain an understanding of the student body. They can become experts on who the students they serve are by *listening to many groups, finding out the reasons students attend or do not attend their institution, using available data, listening to parents, consulting with employers, staying in touch, getting into the classroom and understanding student interests* (Sandeen, 1991).

In order to accomplish this, the chief student affairs officer will have to establish a trusting relationship based on honesty and genuine concern. It is important to involve students in policy decisions and follow through on programs. In all responses to student and staff issues, the chief student affairs officer must be fair, equitable and sensitive. This individual will also need to take risks showing courage, openly confronting controversy and speaking out when

necessary on issues (Sandeen,1991).

A particularly important role of this campus leader is to establish a good relationship with members of faculty, ensuring they have an understanding of student life issues. Equally important is the task of responding to staff. Gaining their support is essential. This requires earning their support by demonstrating competence and integrity as well as listening to their concerns (Sandeen, 1991). It is incumbent upon the chief student affairs officer to be a good manager. "Student affairs leaders may establish candid relationships with presidents, students, faculty and the community and other constituencies, but if they do not manage their decisions efficiently, they will be a failure" (Sandeen,1991, p.89). This of course involves developing a plan that reflects knowledge of the institution and the fit that is required if it is to be successful. The plan must also be realistic and strategically implemented attending to the structure of the organization and involving all who have a vested interest.

He goes on to say

The chief student affairs officer must understand that real reform must occur from within departments, as a result of the staff themselves, not as a function of external pressures. The student affairs leader should inspire staff to improve by 'modelling the way' in program development, policy formulation, and team building. Thus a very important task for student affairs managers is to present a vision to the staff of where they want to go, and to convince them they can get there. If this can be done in a manner that excites and challenges them, as opposed to insulting or threatening them, the chief student affairs officer will have accomplished a great deal in his effort to improve performance.(p.108)

The mediation role of the chief student affairs officer is a challenging one. It requires in-

depth knowledge of students and a thorough understanding of the issues affecting student life. This task will not come easy without the development of effective mediation skills. Teamwork is crucial, but not automatic and the chief student affairs officer will need to be a good team builder. The support of the president is essential as is confronting the unpleasant and learning to compromise. Above all, setting an example will go a long way to aiding the role of mediator.

As to the most important role of the chief student affairs officer, Sandeen leaves no doubt, "Student Affairs administrators can be good managers and problem solvers, but if they are not actively engaged in advancing the education of students, then they have abandoned their most important obligation as professionals" (Sandeen, 1991, p.151).

In the early years, student affairs practitioners spent a great deal of time convincing faculty of the importance of student involvement to their education. As they took on the tasks relinquished by faculty, ironically they contributed to the separation of classroom activities and student life. Most educators now realize the important role student involvement plays in learning as well as in the retention and graduation rates of students. In this role then, the chief student affairs officer will attempt to understand student cultures and work with faculty, striving to collaborate and build teams in order to be an effective educator. He or she no longer functions on the periphery of the institution (though the argument of the vulnerability of student services can be made) but, rather, actively participates as part of the management team of the institution. This is done while the traditional roles of student advocate and service provider are retained.

Delworth & Hanson (1989) contend that there has been an ongoing debate throughout the history of student affairs as to its allegiance; to academic mission or to a management role. The debate, they claim, is both unfortunate and unnecessary as both roles are possible and desirable.

This re-affirms Sandeen's position regarding the multi-faceted role of the chief student affairs officer.

Bass & Associates (1993) claim that the educator versus administrator dilemma has been detrimental to the efficacy of the chief student affairs officer who works in an increasingly complex institution.

A competent chief student affairs officer is certainly going to be an exceptional individual who may be described as a competent manager, mediator, and educator. This individual will be heavily involved with the academic programs of the institution. A very significant quality will be the ability to be sensitive and responsive to various constituencies and to help them learn about the needs of the students and the institution. Their skills will have to match the needs of the institution and they should be teachers for their students and staff (Sandeen, 1991).

Summary

Komives et al. (1996) identify two enduring and distinctive concepts about student affairs and services. They are "consistent and persistent emphasis on and commitment to the development of the whole person [and]...sustained commitment to supporting the diversity of institutional and academic missions over time"(p.23). As this historical review of student services in the past one hundred or so years revealed, both these concepts are indeed evident. *The colonial colleges emphasized both the intellectual as well as moral development of students.* As early as 1870, student welfare was a concern of the dean and indicated the importance of students' activities outside the classroom. This concern continued as part of the educational

experience even though the responsibilities transferred for the most part to non-faculty personnel. As the climate of the university changed, so too the services provided had to change. As we have seen the individual responsible for leading the way is the chief student affairs officer. There is no doubt "to be successful and to accomplish the many different goals of the position, chief student affairs officers must be leaders. Everything else depends on this quality!" (Sandeem, 1991, p.208). What type of leadership would be most suited to the role of chief student affairs officer (and other student service professionals)? The next paper will examine the organization and explore some historical and contemporary perspectives on leadership with a focus on transformational leadership as a theory suited to the student services setting.

Paper #2

Introduction

This paper will explore organizational theory from a historical framework as it applies to leadership. Transformational leadership will be analyzed in detail with some of its essential characteristics applied to the role of the chief student affairs officer.

Understanding the organization and its evolution provides a framework within which we can examine the type of leadership suited to the provision of student services. Views towards leadership and the organization have changed dramatically throughout this century. The first part of this paper will provide a review of these changing perspectives.

The "great man theory" or "trait approach" to leadership was well suited to the organization at the turn of the century which was influenced by a scientific management, efficiency at all cost model. This hierarchical and bureaucratic approach was characterized by control, command and specialization.

Human resource theory saw a move away from this rigid approach and a focus on relationships. Meeting the human needs of employees ensured organizational needs would be met according to these theorists. The behavioral approach to organizational life expanded on the approaches of the classical and human relations' theories while drawing on a number of disciplines in the process. Its proponents looked at both the social relations and the formal structure of the organization.

Leadership theory expanded from the simplistic trait approach to a view towards analyzing leadership behavior. Lacking theoretical foundations, contingency theories evolved where researchers looked at the situation the leader was in for insight and understanding about

leadership. These approaches to leadership were well suited to the scientific approach which searches for that which is observable and measurable.

It is the leadership theory that followed, that of transformational leadership as coined by James MacGregor Burns, where we find a description of leadership suited to the student services profession. The first part of the second paper will provide a review of leadership and organizational theory while an analysis of transformational leadership will be the focus of the second part.

**Historical Perspective on Organizational Theory and the Evolution of thought as it
Pertains to the Study of Leadership**

According to Shafritz and Ott (1992), "there is no such thing as the theory of organization. Rather there are many theories that attempt to explain and predict how organizations and the people in them will behave..."(p.5). These theories are only intellectual concepts whose main purpose is to organize and extend knowledge of organizations.

Classical theory, until the 1920s and 1930s, was viewed as the ideal model of organizational theory. It proposed that scientific management was the primary way to ensure maximum production. Frederick Taylor, considered the father of scientific management, demonstrates this approach to management in the following sample of his ideals:

1. A large daily task: Each person in the establishment, high or low, should have a clearly defined daily task. The carefully circumscribed task should require a full day's effort to complete.
2. *Standard conditions:* The worker should be given standardized conditions and appliances to accomplish the task with certainty.
3. High pay for success: High pay should be tied to successful completion.
4. Loss in case of failure: Failure should be personally costly.
5. Expertise in large organizations: As organizations become increasingly sophisticated, tasks should be made so difficult as to be accomplished only by a first-rate worker. (Hoy & Miskel, 1991, p.9)

The focus then was on efficiency by accomplishing tasks in the shortest amount of time.

The German social theorist, Max Weber, was a great ally for the scientific management approach. He viewed an ideal organization as one with “a strict chain of command, detailed rules, high specialization, centralized power, and selection and promotion based on technical competence” (Johns, 1996, p.12). The term bureaucracy was made famous by Weber who thought this model “would standardize behavior in organizations and provide workers with security and a sense of purpose” (p.13).

Henry Fayol, a French mining engineer and successful executive, took the same approach to administration espoused by Taylor. He proposed the following functions as essential to *administrative behavior*:

1. To plan which means to study the future and arrange the plan of operations.
2. To organize which means to build up material and human organization of the business, organizing both people and materials.
3. To command which means to make the staff do their work.
4. To coordinate which means to unite and correlate all activities.
5. To control which means to see that everything is done in accordance with the rules which have been laid down and the instructions which have been given. (Hoy & Miskel, 1991, p.10)

Lyndall Urwick, another proponent of this approach, responded with POSDCORB as an explanation of the work of the “chief executive”. This stands for: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting (p.10).

The following are the essential tenets of the classical model of administration:

1. **Time and motion studies:** The task is carried out in a way that minimizes time and effort.
2. **Division of labor and specialization:** efficiency can be attained by subdividing any operation into its basic components to ensure workers' performance.
3. **Standardization of tasks:** Breaking tasks into component parts allows for routinized performance.
4. **Unity of command:** To coordinate the organization, decision making is centralized, with responsibility flowing from top to bottom.
5. **Span of control:** Unity of command and coordination are possible only if each superior at any level has a limited number of subordinates (five to ten) to direct.
6. **Uniqueness of function:** One department of an organization should not duplicate the functions performed by another.
7. **Formal organization:** The focus of analysis is on the official organizational blueprint; semiformal and informal structures created by the dynamic interaction of people within the formal organization are not analyzed. (Hoy & Miskel, 1991, pp.11-12)

March & Simon claim the organization can be influenced to varying degrees by events happening outside the organization altogether as well as by events that take place inside the organization and there is no way of predicting them before they happen. The "machine theory" then is really too rigid a conception of an organization and this is its greatest shortcoming (cited in Hoy & Miskel, 1991).

It was Mary Parker Follett, a business philosopher, who noted that the classical view of

management assumed an essential conflict of interest between managers and employees (Johns, 1996). She believed this conflict was “not necessarily a wasteful outbreak of incompatibilities, but a normal process by which socially valuable differences register themselves for enrichment of all concerned” (Hoy & Miskel, 1991, p.12). Her beliefs were a reaction to the classical models of administration and the early beginnings of a human relations approach to organizational management where she believed “the fundamental problem [in all organizations] was developing and maintaining dynamic and harmonious relationships” (p.12). Despite these early insights of Parker’s, it is usually the Hawthorne studies of the 1920s and 1930s which reference the beginnings of the human relation’s movement.

These experiments, carried out at the Western Electrical Company near Chicago, examined issues relevant to human behavior in the workplace. Researchers (including Harvard University’s Elton Mayo & Fritz Roethlisberger and Hawthorne’s William J. Dickson) began to notice that productivity and work adjustments were affected by psychological and social processes. One of the experiments involved an illumination study designed to determine the relationship between lighting and productivity. The results surprisingly showed both groups improved productivity. Lighting had no effect on production outcome. Production improved because of the researcher’s presence.

Another experiment had the researchers observe workers on the job. These researchers discovered that a new employee produced more when first employed than he did after he gained experience. The significance of these new findings relate directly to human resource theory. Even during the Depression, socially established norms were more important to the worker than the financial gain he could expect from higher production (Smither, 1988). These results have

often been referred to as the "Hawthorne Effect" which, says Smither, describes the "phenomenon of individuals altering their behavior not because of specific changes but because of the influence of the persons making the changes" (p.14).

Results such as these provided the foundation for the human resource theory, which eventually replaced classical organizational theory. This theory maintains that people are motivated through complex interactional variables. Organizations are not independent variables, but they influence human behavior which in turn shapes the organization (Shafritz & Ott, 1992). *The basic premise of this theory is that people respond according to the way they are treated. The focus of the organizational environment is people, groups and relationships. There is a high value placed on humans as individuals and there is much interdependency.*

In this model, employees are provided with maximum information in an open and honest style enabling them to make their own informed decisions. Organizations exist to serve human needs; and through providing for the individual's needs, the needs of the organization are also met. According to Shafritz, organizations and people cannot operate in isolation. When they do, *there is exploitation of the individual or the organization or both.* A management style which considers both the individual and the organization provides meaningful and satisfying work for the employee and human talent and energy for the organization. Authors of the human resource theory assume that creativity, flexibility and prosperity flow naturally from employee growth and development (Shafritz & Ott, 1992).

After World War II, theorists such as Chris Argyris, Alvin Gouldner, and Rensis Likert continued to develop the human relations movement. The following problems consistent with classical *management and bureaucracy* were identified as dysfunctional:

1. Strict specialization is incompatible with human needs for growth and achievement.

This can lead to employee alienation from the organization and its clients.

2. Strong centralization and reliance upon formal authority often fail to take advantage of the

creative ideas and knowledge of lower-level members, who are often closer to the customer.

As a result, the organization will fail to learn from its mistakes, which threatens innovation and adaptation. Resistance to change will occur as a matter of course.

3. Strict, impersonal rules lead members to adopt the minimum acceptable level of performance that the rules specify. If a rule states that employees must process at least eight claims a day, eight claims will become the norm, even though higher performance levels are possible.

4. Strong specialization causes employees to lose sight of the overall goals of the organization. Forms, procedures and required signatures become ends in themselves, divorced from the true needs of customers, clients, and other departments in the organization. This is the 'red-tape mentality' that we sometimes observe in bureaucracies. (Johns, 1996, p.14).

It is the work of Chester I. Bernard that is credited with founding the behavioral approach to organizational life. This view draws on the disciplines of psychology, sociology, political science and economics in addition to the classical and human relations approaches. Its proponents claim the latter two have not included the important impact of social relations and formal structure on the organization (Hoy & Miskel, 1992).

Bernard defined formal and informal organizations and their interactions. He used the terms structural and dynamic to identify important concepts in analyzing the organization. The structural ones that he considered important were the individual, the cooperative system, the formal organization, the complex formal organization and the informal organization. The dynamic ones were free will, cooperation, authority, the decision process and dynamic equilibrium (Hoy & Miskel, 1992).

Herbert Simon added to the work of Bernard and introduced the concept of the organization as a system of exchange, inducements for work. He also identified the notion of 'satisficing' rather than 'optimizing' in terms of problem solving, accepting the most satisfactory solution when no best one exists (Hoy & Miskel, 1992).

The behavioral science approach to organizational analysis includes three perspectives: rational systems, natural systems, and open systems. Proponents of the rational systems approach focus on "the extent to which a set of actions is organized and implemented to achieve predetermined goals with maximum efficiency" (Hoy & Miskel, 1992, p.17). The focus is on efficiency, effectiveness and design, which reflects its evolution from the classical organizational thought of scientific managers with their machine metaphor approach to managing the organization. The focus then would be on goals and formal structure.

The natural systems approach however, stresses the importance of the organization as a social group trying to adapt and survive. This view is the direct opposite to the rational one previously noted. This approach which stresses the individual in the organization evolved from the human relations perspective of Follett, Mayo & Roethlisberger.

The open systems perspective acknowledges the reality that the organization is affected

by its environment. As such, it is dynamic and must change in order to survive. "The interdependence of the organization and its environment is critical" (Hoy & Miskel, 1992, p.22).

Proponents of this perspective maintain it can bring together the first two because

organizations have planned and unplanned features, rational and irrational characteristics, and formal and informal structures. In some organizations, however, rational concerns dominate the relationships while natural, social relationships predominate in others; in fact, over time the relative emphasis on rational and natural concerns changes, and these shifts in structure are associated with environmental conditions. In all organizations, however, both rational and natural elements co-exist within a system that is open to its environment. (p.23)

Organizational theory then evolved from the classical, scientific management viewpoint best described with a machine metaphor to a focus on the behavior of individuals within the organization. The behavioral science approach to organizational theory introduced several perspectives with the open systems approach of behavioral science providing the broadest and most inclusive viewpoint where people, the organization and their environments interact and affect each other.

The view towards leadership in the organization has evolved considerably during this same period. According to Johns (1996), "Leadership occurs when particular individuals exert influence upon the goal achievement of others in an organizational context" (p.309). Decades of theory and research on this fascinating topic affirms the significant interest it has for those who study organizations.

During the 1970s, a number of scholars questioned the usefulness of the leadership

concept in our understanding organizations; such as, Lieberman & O'Connor, Salancik & Pfeffer, McCall & Lombardo and Kerr & Jermier (cited in Hoy & Miskel, 1991, p.251).

However, there are many individuals who believe the exact opposite to be true. As to the impact on schools, Bennis (cited in Hoy & Miskel, 1991) states a number of reasons to explain why leaders play an important role

First, they are responsible for the effectiveness of organizations. The success of all organizations rests on the perceived quality of leaders. Second, change and upheaval make it essential for our institutions to have anchors and guiding purposes. Leaders fill that need. Third, there are pervasive national concerns about our schools. Educational leaders have a key role in alleviating the public's concerns. (p.251)

The majority of studies on leadership during this century focus on the great man theory or trait approach which tries to identify specific, identifiable characteristics of would be leaders. It was the search for potential leaders for the war effort during World War I that led to a focus on traits as indicators of leadership potential. This continued through World War II and expanded to the general population (Johns,1996).

Ralph Stogdill's extensive review of traits of leadership from 1904-1947 and again from 1949-1974 are indicative of this approach. This influence was far reaching and is still alive and well today even though the focus now is on job related skills.

A good example of this approach is that of the assessment center which was developed by German Psychologists around the turn of the century. This was then adapted for use by the German and British military in choosing officers. The practice was then resurrected by AT&T when it launched its Management Progress Study of the careers of over 400 young executives to

determine and select potential managers. Today, there are over fifty assessment centers in the world for the selection of secondary school principals. This procedure which looks at personal traits and job-related skills still reflects its war time origins with its “debriefing interview”.

While some traits appear related to leadership (intelligence, self-confidence, dominance, motivation to lead, emotional stability, honesty, integrity, and need for achievement), this approach is limited. Identifying traits does not answer the important question of how influence occurs. A reaction to the trait approach resulted in an over emphasis on the role situation plays.

Analyzing the behavior of assigned leaders became the focus of the most involved systematic study of leadership to date at Ohio State University in the 1940s. Subordinates described the behavior of their superiors and these descriptions were summarized in two dimensions. The behavior was one of consideration or initiating structure, the former characterized by the extent to which a leader is approachable and shows personal concern for subordinates and the latter the degree to which a leader concentrates on group goal attainment. Not at all surprising were the findings that the effects of these were dependent on the task, the subordinate and the setting (Johns, 1996).

At the same time, studies were conducted at the University of Michigan which attempted to “locate clusters of leader characteristics that are closely related to each other and to effectiveness criteria” (Hoy & Miskel, 1991, p.268). These studies complemented the Ohio State studies but neglected situational factors.

These behavioral approaches lack strong theoretical foundations. Contemporary theories of leadership are referred to as contingency theories which maintain that effectiveness is dependent upon the fit between personality characteristics, leader behavior and situational

variables (Hoy & Miskel, 1991).

Contingency Leadership was the focus of Fred Fiedler and other researchers who emphasized the importance of looking at the situation the leader is in for a more complete and accurate understanding about leadership. This focus was not only more realistic, but also reflected an important implication about the very nature of leadership-that it is neither good nor bad and both change and improvement are possible (Hoy & Miskel, 1991).

Robert House's path-goal theory is concerned with the situations under which various leader behaviors (directive, supportive, participative, achievement-oriented) are most effective. This contingency theory views leadership behavior as adaptable (Johns, 1996).

These approaches to the study of leadership largely fall under transactional leadership, primarily an exchange between leader and follower in order to bring behavior within the goals of the organization. These models reflect a scientific approach consisting of the search for observable and measurable phenomena that dominated the thinking about leadership. As the view towards the organization was evolving away from a scientific and rational approach, views toward the type of leadership required in the changing organization were also evolving. The climate was indeed ready for a new theory of leadership and James MacGregor Burns was a key player in laying the foundation for this new theory. Transformational leadership, a term he coined in his book Leadership, was written in 1978.

Transformational Leadership

An Analysis

As with most “new” theories, transformational leadership combines aspects of the old and the new. Bennis (1984) noted that in 1941 Mary Follett Parker wrote: “...the most successful leader of all is the one who sees another picture not yet actualized. He sees things which belong to his present picture but which are not yet part of it...” (p.139).

This “old” idea is considered one of the main qualities noted when identifying an individual leader as transformational. Again building on one of Parker’s ideas, Burns (thirty years later in 1978) defines this style of leadership to be present “...when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality...their purposes (which may have started out as separate) become fused” (p.20). Other ideas proposed by Burns; “that one-man leadership is a contradiction in terms” (p.452), can be referenced to earlier writings of Mary Parker Follett who maintained “one person should not give orders from the situation” (cited in Dessler, 1980, p.38). Similarly, Burn’s reference to “morally purposeful leadership” is evident in the writings of Thomas Sergiovanni (1990) who wrote that leaders should ask “what do I stand for; what, of value, do I want to contribute to young people and to society?” (p.viii).

Burns (1978) was one of a number of scholars who broke away from the mainstream thinking about leadership in the latter part of the twentieth century. Two others were Robert Greenleaf (1970) and William Foster (1986). Greenleaf’s book The Servant as Leader, was a radical move away from the “industrial” paradigm’s conception of the all knowing and powerful leader. Foster’s critical theorist approach focused on the “content” of the change in transformational leadership which requires reflection and analysis in order to change the human

condition.

Burns (1978) maintains there are two essential qualities of transformational leadership; it is relational and it produces real change. Leadership as a process, he claims, is “a stream of evolving interrelationships in which leaders are continuously evoking motivational responses from followers and modifying their behaviour as they meet responsiveness or resistance, in a ceaseless process of flow and counterflow” (p.440).

It was a number of years after Burns wrote about transformational leadership before others embraced the theory. In the late 1980's, Bass (1987) applied these ideas to organizational management. He conceptualized the notion of the ordinary and extraordinary leadership. Ordinary leadership, he stated, is concerned with various exchanges or transactions where the leader specifies what must be done to meet certain expectations. This type of leadership is associated with management. The extraordinary leadership Bass refers to is the transformational style which goes beyond transactional leadership. This leadership motivates others to do more than they thought possible in the interest of the whole group. This is the type of leadership required for and associated with change. Bass maintains that perhaps the greatest contribution of transformational leadership is understanding and identifying the following four I's which it uses to stimulate and engage followers:

1. Individualized Consideration: Give personal attention to others, making each individual feel uniquely valued.
2. Intellectual Stimulation: Actively encourages a new look at old methods, stimulates creativity, encourages others to look at problems and issues in a new way.
3. Inspirational Motivation: Increases optimism and enthusiasm, communicates high

expectations, points out possibilities not previously considered .

4. **Idealized Influence:** Provides vision and a sense of purpose . Elicits respect, trust, and confidence from followers.

Bass is quick to point out that the two concepts of leadership are necessary and not generally independent of one another and in actual fact the combination of the two has been shown to be the most successful.

Leithwood (1992) also maintains that transformational and transactional leadership are complementary. Bass (1987) and Sergiovanni (1990) concur, where the day to day needs of an organization require transactional leadership practices, improvements of those day to day activities require transformational leadership. It is for this reason Avolio & Bass (1988), call transformational leadership “value-added leadership”.

Evans (1996) provides an excellent overview of transformational leadership as a human resource administrative practice. He explores ten “theoretical subconstructs” which help us understand this theory. These include: “vision, motivation, power, decision-making, supervision, followership, organizational culture, organizational conflict, organizational change and organizational learning” (p.3). A brief look at each of these will assist in analysing this theory.

Vision

Many writers identify the important role of vision in transformational leadership. Bennis (1984) claims vision to be the key ingredient of leadership. To Bennis & Nanus (1985), this vision will “move followers to higher degrees of consciousness, such as liberty, freedom, justice, and self-actualization” (p.218). Clearly, forming a vision is not a static event but rather an on-going one as Evans (1996) contends: “By instilling meaning and trust in their followers the

leaders enable the organization to build a culture around the vision. This culture is characterized by much professional reflection and constant, innovative group as well as individual problem-solving" (p.10).

Motivation

The transformational leader must be aware of what motivates individuals. We can look to Owen (1987) for insight here as he contends it is essential in order to gain the support of followers. Owen believes "Motivation is not a behaviour, it is a complex internal state that we cannot observe directly but that affects behaviour" (cited in Evans, 1996, p.11).

Some theories to help understand motivation come from Maslow and Herzberg. Maslow believes there are lower order needs that are satisfied and then replaced with higher order needs. Herzberg's two factor theory (motivational factors and maintenance factors) offers insight into this sub-construct. Herzberg (1966) gives three main ideas for anyone wishing to practice his theory: "enrich the job, increase autonomy, and expand personal administration" (cited in Evans, 1996, p.11).

Burns (1978) obviously recognizes the important role of motivation in understanding transformational leadership as he emphatically states "There is nothing so powerful, nothing so effective, nothing so causal as common purpose...Moreover, unity of purpose and congruence of motivation foster causal influence far down the line" (p.439).

Power

Power as energy is evident to Bennis and Nanus (1985) who claim it is "the basic energy to initiate and sustain action translating intention into reality, the quality without which leaders cannot lead" (p.15). Burns says power itself is neither good nor evil; its value lies in how it is

used. According to Yukl (1989) "Effective leaders rely more on personal power (referent and expert) and not positional power (legitimate, reward, and coercive)" (cited in Evans, 1996, p.13).

Decision- Making

Owens (1987) maintains "the transformational leader attempts to create conditions within an organization that are consistent with the theory of human resources development rather than perpetuating the hierarchical, bureaucratic relationships that are still too characteristic of modern institutional life" (cited in Evans, 1996, p.14). He further states that the transformational leader "supports the use of participative style in the management of decision-making" (p.15). The leader then must promote participative decision-making to achieve more humane institutional conditions influenced by a human resource development perspective on what motivates people at work; the desirability of a full flow of information up, down, and across the organization; the best ways of maintaining organizational control and discipline; and the value of involving people throughout all levels of the organization in decision-making.

Supervision

The type of supervision that would likely be characteristic of the transformational leader would emphasize the promotion of reflective practice and interaction with an emphasis on continuous improvement and the development of quality. In discussing the supervision of teachers, Sergiovanni & Starratt (1993) view supervision as occurring "within an existing moral environment created by the professionalism of teachers" (p.53). The focus on morality contrasts with the familiar notion which is modelled on the natural sciences' "objective approach". Supervision continues to reflect this viewpoint even though the authors claim there is a shift in thinking that supervision is more of a "moral action". The "community" metaphor continues to

be relevant in understanding "supervision as a moral action". Sergiovanni & Starratt see supervisors within the "community of other moral agents" (p.52), all working together or rather "struggling" to make sense of values. As Sergiovanni (1992) contends, "Supervision would then emerge from within education, rather than being externally imposed, ending forever supervision as we now know it" (p.205). This approach would leave leaders to carry out other important administrative functions leaving individuals to be responsible for their own professional development and improvement.

Followership

The important and essential role of "followership" is emphasized by Burns (1978) who says "Leadership over human beings is exercised when persons with certain purposes mobilize, in competition or conflict with others, institutional, political, psychological and other resources so as to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers" (p.18).

Gronn (1996) reminds us that Max Weber, who was the originator of the "concept of charisma"; placed a great deal of emphasis on the role of the follower. He cites Weber who said "It is the recognition on the part of those subject to authority which is decisive for the validity of charisma" (p.12).

Kelly (1992) believes "The ultimate test of leadership is the quality of the followers. Exemplary leaders attract exemplary followers. As co-adventurers, they embark on a worthwhile journey together. They rely on each other to arrive there safely and successfully" (cited in Evans, 1996, p.18). He goes on to say "In essence leaders should create environments where exemplary followers flourish and strive to be more of a hero maker than a hero" (p.19).

Burns (1978) states "leaders and followers exchange roles over time and in different

political settings. Many persons are leaders and followers at the same time” (p.134). This is echoed by Depree (1989) with his notion of the “roving leader” in an organization.

Organizational Culture

We can look to Sergiovanni (1995) for further explanation of this sub-construct of transformational leadership. In terms of the school, he contends “The net effect of the cultural force of leadership is to bond students, teachers and others together and to bind them to the work of the school as believers” (p.88). We can see then the school, or any organization “is not defined by brick and mortar, but by ideas and relationships” (p.74).

Evans (1996) cites Starratt, Owens, and Hodgkinson who lend to an understanding of organizational culture. Starratt claims it is “exercised not so much by *scientific management* as by guarding essential values of the culture, by reminding people in the organization of the essential meanings of the culture, by promoting rituals and celebrating which sustain those *essential meanings and values of the organization*” (p.20). Owens (1987) maintains “the central mechanism through which the organization exercises coordination and control is the socialization of participants to the values and goals of the organization, rather than through written rules and close supervision” (p.20).

Organizational Conflict

The importance of managing conflict is evident as Burns (1978) observed, “The potential for conflict permeates the relations of human kind, and that potential is a force for health and growth as well as for destruction and barbarism” (p.37). He went on to say “Leaders, whatever their professions of harmony, do not shun conflict; they confront it, exploit it, ultimately embody it” (p.39). Hanson (1991) contends “Conflict and attempts toward its resolution are seen as

perhaps the most powerful force existing for bringing about changes in patterns of organizational behaviour" (p.282). According to Hanson, conflict is present in all organizations to some degree or other and it should not be "repressed or fuelled" (p.282). The secret is in managing the conflict. It is managed when, according to Hanson, "it no longer interferes with the ongoing activities of the parties involved" (p.283). He does not suggest the conflict disappears but the positive aspect of collaboration has replaced the "restraining aspects of conflict" (p.283).

Organizational Change

Turan & Sny (1996) maintain "both transformational leadership as well as strategic planning are necessary for an organization to respond to the changes and uncertainties of organizational life" (p.1). They go on to say the role of the leader in this process of planning for change is critical. They cite Cook (1990) who states "After all, a leader is just someone who gets to the future before anyone else; and his or her greatness is measured by the time of his or her arrival and the number of people who followed" (cited in Turan & Sny, 1996, p.18).

Owens (1987) states that the "normative-re-educative strategies of change posits that culture (attitudes, beliefs and values) can be deliberately shifted to more productive norms by collaborative action of the people in the organization" (cited in Evans, 1996, p.25). This strategy relies on problem-solving to change organizations. There must be a shift from the hierarchical approach (bureaucratic, mechanistic, classical) in an organization to an atmosphere conducive to and supportive of creativity and problem-solving which is on-going. This requires: identifying problems, establishing goals, objectives, and priorities, generating valid alternate solutions and implementing one of those alternatives. The effective organization uses a systems approach with an emphasis on the wholeness of the organization and the dynamics of its subsystems. Owens

also contrasts the organic system versus the mechanical one. The organic one is characterized by continuous reassessment of tasks and responsibilities, coordination and control through participation, extensive and open communication, emphasis on mutual confidence, consultation and information sharing, team leadership style featuring high levels of trust and group problem solving, and wide sharing of responsibility for decision-making. (Owens, 1987, cited in Evans, 1996).

This contrasts with the mechanical systems which operate from a traditional, classical viewpoint as opposed to human resources perspective and there is an emphasis on rationality and technology. This approach is characterized by highly differentiated and specialized tasks, hierarchical supervision, communication with the external environment controlled at the top, strong downward oriented line of command, emphasis on authority-obedience relationships, and decision-making authority reserved for the top levels of the hierarchy (Owens, 1987, cited in Evans, 1996).

Organizational Learning

Kramlinger (1992) defined a learning organization as a “large body of aligned individuals whose members at all levels spontaneously learn and innovate in ways that promote the well-being and mission of the organization” (cited in Evans, 1996, p.27). He goes on to say, “In such an environment, leadership that is proactive in its problem-solving orientation and that values creativity at all organizational levels is essential for increasing its readiness to cope with new changes and opportunities” (pp.27-28).

Stata (1989) reminds us that “the rate at which individuals and organizations learn may become the only sustainable competitive advantage, especially in knowledge-intensive

industries" (cited in Evans, 1996, p.28). Senge (1990) helps identify the profile of learning organizations:

These are organizations where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free and where people are continually learning how to learn together. (p.3)

Senge (1990) maintains that in order for organizations to learn there are five dimensions necessary: systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, building shared vision and team learning (pp.6-10). Systems thinking is the one that determines whether or not the others will be successful. He puts forward the example where shared vision without systems thinking "ends up painting a lovely picture of a future but with no deep understanding of the forces which must be mastered to move from here to there" (p.12).

Senge (1990) defines the multifaceted role of the leader when he claims "In learning organizations, leaders must exercise new leadership skills as they take on the new roles of designers, teachers, and stewards" (p.9). He challenges the leaders of learning organizations about their duties:

These roles require new skills: the ability to build shared vision, to bring to the surface and challenge prevailing mental models, and to foster more systemic patterns of thinking. In short, leaders in learning organizations are responsible for building organizations where people are continually expanding their capabilities to shape their future...that is, leaders are responsible for learning. (p.9)

Summary

This analysis identifies the tenets of transformational leadership, its evolution as a theory, and the essential characteristics identified by such authors as: Burns (1978), Bass (1987), Leithwood (1992), Avolio & Bass (1988), & Bennis & Nanus (1985). Evan's (1996) exploration of this theory, using ten theoretical subconstructs, leads to an understanding of the transformational leader's mindset. Sergiovanni (1992) and later Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach (1999), reference their comments to the school setting but the qualities and practices of the transformational leader can be applied to many organizations as they themselves indicate. Other authors, as will be shown in the third paper of this folio, identify transformational leadership as suited to the university setting. The following shows the "fit" of this theory with the role of the chief student affairs officer.

Chief Student Affairs Officer as Transformational Leader

Organizations are witnessing rapid and frequent change and leaders need to be able to respond and adapt to the sudden and the unexpected in organizational life. The literature identifies transformational leadership as capable of fulfilling this role. The essential characteristics and practices of this type of leadership are well suited to those required of a chief student affairs officer.

Responding to and initiating change is important to the transformational leader but the process by which these changes occur is equally important. Steeped in the human resource perspective, with its focus on people, groups, and relationships, the transformational leader recognizes that the organization and its workers are interdependent. He or she utilizes a participative style leadership that involves people throughout all levels of the organization in decision making. The chief student affairs officer will demonstrate these attributes while

engaging with staff in joint pursuits with all members of their community, internal and external. This leader will require the ability to build relationships with faculty while responding to staff and gaining their support. This support will have to be earned by demonstrating competence and integrity. These people must be vision and team builders, good mediators and role models.

The transformational leader will take responsibility for creating an environment where followers flourish. This is indeed the ultimate test of leadership, the quality of the followers, and often the two exchange roles. As a supervisor, this leader works together with the follower as both struggle to make sense of values. Supervision promotes reflective practice and emerges from within; it is not externally imposed. In demonstrating this quality, the chief student affairs officer will be fair, equitable and sensitive while at the same time a risk-taker who shows courage. He or she will, as transformational leader, make every effort to understand the members of his or her organization and what motivates them. In managing conflict, an essential component of life, the chief student affairs officer will use referent and expert power rather than authoritative positional power. Power is viewed as energy flowing throughout the organization. This style of managing conflict will serve the chief student affairs officer in his or her in role as change agent who must confront, exploit and embody conflict, use innovative problem-solving skills and creativity while frequently challenging the status quo.

In order to initiate change, the transformational leader must find the common purpose that all or most individuals in the organization can strive to attain, a purpose that sees the interests of individuals and the organization converge. This vision must not be static but rather on-going. To achieve this, the chief student affairs officer will require, in their large repertoire of complex skills, an essential fit with the institution and the ability to change as the needs of the institution

demand. Above all, he or she will work to support and enhance the academic mission of the institution, the active engagement of students in their education being the most important obligation.

A recent appointment of dean of student affairs and services at a large university is noteworthy. Her duties and past accomplishments reflect the important qualities this position demands and are consistent with those of transformational leader.

She is responsible for a broad range of services that affect the well-being of students, including employment, counselling, housing, health and wellness, and scholarships...she has provided dynamic, creative leadership in developing innovative student life programs...[noted was] her commitment to enhancing the educational experience of university students [which] has led to the creation of student leadership programs, curriculum changes, academic support programs for aboriginal and mature students, and campus-wide orientation initiatives. She is well known for her collaboration with campus communities in the development of student-centred policies that address the changing needs of students. Her community involvement is reflected in her research on rural families as well her teaching abilities have received positive comments. (*Gazette*, March, 2000)

Paper #3

Introduction

Student service providers, as was shown in the first paper of this folio, are involved in most aspects of a student's university life. Gold & Quatroche (1994), Allen (1996) and Rogers (1996) affirm the important role that student service providers play in developing leadership among students. Gold & Quatroche & Allen further claim that transformational leadership should be both modeled and taught.

Leithwood, Jantz & Steinbeck (1999) recognize the value of transformational leadership, but see it as a starting point, a place to begin. Rost (1991) and Rogers (1996) build on the theory of transformational leadership, including it in their discussion and analysis of the "postindustrial" paradigm. These writers give direction to student service professionals who wish to develop both their own and their students' leadership potential.

The third paper will review important guiding principles for leadership development extracted from the literature on transformational leadership and other "postindustrial" views. The application of these principles to the student service setting will be explored.

Developing Leadership Potential

As the previous paper demonstrated, transformational leadership practices are well suited to the practices of a chief student affairs officer. Gold & Quatroche (1994) look beyond the role of this individual and propose that all “student affairs staff will be interested in transformational leadership principles in order to actualize their own leadership potential and to model appropriate leadership characteristics for student government leaders” (p.31).

Gold & Quatroche (1994) remind us that training is not only for student leaders but for followers as well. They go on to claim:

a student leadership curriculum...should consist of transformational leadership principles as a means to create collegial governance that is inclusive, energizing and ethically superior. [These authors] believe that student leaders require considerable encouragement, education and strategic tutelage if they are to actualize the transformational characteristics of personal charisma, virtue, self-awareness, and ability to motivate and merge with others. The goal is to ennoble relationships defined as mutually enhancing, respectful, and inspiring. (p.32)

They go on to claim that the reality for student leaders in a “turbulent” environment is they have “few opportunities to practice the more sophisticated transformational leadership skills needed to lead beyond the modest transactional roles of recognizing student organizations and funding activities and services” (p.33). In actual fact much more is required: “If students are to have a role in broad institutional governance matters as well as in faculty and administrator evaluation, they should be prepared to behaviourally recognize and appropriately affirm transformational leadership traits” (p.33). For the most part student leaders have been taught the necessary skills to “manage” the practical matters of their job: accounting, directing meetings,

reflective listening for example are all useful skills. The authors challenge student affairs leaders to go beyond these practical matters and challenge students “to consider a realistic potential to substantially transform others, including themselves as learners and leaders” (p.33).

It is interesting to note a study by Downey, Bosco, & Silver (cited in Gold & Quatroche, 1994), where student government participants were compared to non participants. The results showed no unique long-term effects from student government participation. The authors suggest that if we want to make a difference we should be creating transformational training programs for students (p.33).

There are many factors that impact on the development of individuals who become successful leaders. Upbringing and opportunity both play a significant role. Education also is a major contributing factor. According to the findings of Bass & Stogdill (1990):

research indicates, not unexpectedly, that the effectiveness of training depends on the trainee, the trainer, the composition of the training group, follow-up reinforcement and feedback, and particularly whether there is congruence between the training and the organizational environment for which the trainee is being prepared. In all, meta-analyses of available evaluative studies have provided evidence that leadership and management training, education, and development are usually effective. (p.856)

Allen (1996), challenges colleges and universities to develop a coherent vision of leadership as a prerequisite to developing leaders. It is essential to teach leadership with cognitive work, as well as provide opportunities for action and reflection. Most importantly, she asserts, an integrated approach is necessary which requires “an institutional rather than a compartmental perspective” (p.12).

It is the departmental orientation of our colleges and universities that is a major barrier to our ability to practice transformative change (Allen, 1996). She challenges those in higher education "to seriously consider how to develop a system within organizations that will sustain movements of change over the years" (p.12).

Allen (1996) suggests modelling transformational leadership to students and providing a leadership program which integrates education, development and culture.

Rogers (1996) further challenges *student affairs professionals* who "will be expected to exercise leadership to successfully initiate and implement change processes in institutions of higher education, and to create and implement campus programs to empower students to develop *such leadership as well*" (p.299).

While the tenets of transformational leadership will be helpful in developing leadership potential, student service providers may want to view them as a "place to begin". Leithwood et al. (1999), proponents of transformational leadership, remind us that there is no final word on a definition of "good leadership". The qualities that are identified are merely "the basic skills" of leadership. As far as understanding how to exercise "outstanding leadership", these qualities can't tell us anything important "because outstanding leadership is exquisitely sensitive to the context in which it is exercised" (p.4).

This speaks directly to the relational aspect of leadership so pertinent to Burn's (1978) view of transformational leadership. This theme is one of several that emerges after the "industrial" paradigm of leadership (Rogers, 1996). Other themes centre around followership, change, critical reflection and analysis and the belief that leadership can be done by anyone (Rogers, 1996).

Rost (1994) expands on the work of Burns, Greenleaf and Foster, offering a “postindustrial” paradigm of leadership. He defines leadership as “an influence relationship among leaders and their collaborators who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes” (p.7). The essential four elements in a “leadership relationship” are: noncoercive influence, leaders and collaborators who “do” leadership, collaborators and leaders who intend real change, and the changes pursued reflect mutual purpose (Rost, 1994).

Another scholar who has contributed to the understanding of postindustrial leadership is Wheatley (1992). In her writing about leadership and the new science, she provides insight as to how work, people, and life can be transformed. Student service professionals would be wise to look to her insights into leadership to both model and integrate into leadership development programs. She reminds us of an often quoted saying of Einstein’s: “No problem can be solved from the same consciousness that created it. We must learn to see the world anew” (p.5). She argues that our organizations have been profoundly influenced by the “Newtonian” model of the world, “a focus on things rather than relationships and a search, in physics, for the basic building blocks of matter” (p.9). This influence manages by separating things into parts while in the “New Science, the underlying currents are a movement toward holism and toward understanding the system and giving primary value to the relationships that exist among seemingly discrete parts” (p.9).

Wheatley (1992) identifies “informal leadership” (similar to Depree’s “roving leadership”) as the ability of the organization to respond to the needs of the organization by the “indispensible people in our lives who are there when we need them” (p.22). And, she concurs with Burn’s (1978) view of the major problem caused by “fragmentation” in our organizations.

The important focus then, in an organization, is on its relationships. According to Wheatley, “We will need to become savvy about how to build relationships, how to nurture *growing, evolving things*. All of us will need better skills in listening, communicating, and facilitating groups, because these are talents that build strong relationships” (p.38). This clearly gives direction to where student service professionals need to focus their efforts on leadership development for themselves and for their students.

The positive or negative energy in an organization is determined by the quality of its relationships, with a positive one utilizing participative management and self-managed teams to accomplish its objectives (Wheatley, 1992). She maintains, “Participation, seriously done, is a way out from the uncertainties and ghostly qualities of this nonobjective world we live in. We need a broad distribution of the information, viewpoints, and interpretations if we are to make sense of the world” (p.64).

An important underlying principle that runs through Wheatley’s (1992) Leadership and the New Science, is that, “Leadership is always dependent on the context, but the context is established by the relationships we value” (p.144).

Apps (1994) presents some fundamental challenges for leaders in his book, Leadership for the Emerging Age. His observations and suggestions are noteworthy. He maintains that there needs to be a fundamental shift in thinking from “either-or” to “both-and”. It is from this view that individuals can look at the best in opposing perspectives. He goes on to identify other fundamental challenges: accepting paradox and ambiguity as reality rather than anomaly, developing diverse perspectives, developing global awareness, reconsidering empowerment by recognizing and accepting the power that people already have, examining the basic elements of

education, and building on the past and creating new approaches based on the assumptions of the emerging age.

Leaders in the emerging age then should view the process as a journey, one that is continuous and definitely NOT linear. Apps (1994) uses the metaphor of a spiral where “similar themes are returned to again and again, each time at a deeper level of understanding” (p.230). He challenges leaders to continuously reflect, be holistic in their own lives and be courageous in trying new ideas.

Apps, Allen, Burns and others believe that developing leadership takes time and is a collective process. The support of the entire organization is essential to pursue this journey. This presents a significant and often frustrating challenge in an organization as conservative and resistant to change as the university. Apps (1994) identifies the paradox that the same individuals considered “the most liberal and most forward-thinking people in the community...scramble to protect the status quo at all costs when discussion of curriculum change, organizational adjustment, or any number of other issues arises” (p.234).

This environment presents a number of challenges:

1. Moving past the antiquated assumption that all knowledge should be organized by discipline and managed by departments.
2. Restructuring promotion and salary increase policies to encourage cooperative work as well as individual achievement and in the process recognize new ways of defining research and scholarship.
3. Examining the concept of tenure and deciding where it serves a college or university well and where it prevents change and innovation.

4. Challenging continuing education units to relate in new ways to their home institutions, as well as to external groups.
5. Rethinking programs for new and often overlooked audiences. (Apps, 1994, pp.235-236)

A major obstacle to organizational change is their being buried under rules, regulations, and policies. Osbourne & Gaebler (1993) believe organizations should be mission driven, not slaves to rules. They claim:

We embrace our rules and red tape to prevent bad things from happening...but those same rules prevent good things from happening. They slow [organizations] to a snail's pace. They make it impossible to respond to rapidly changing environments. They build wasted time and effort into the very fabric of the organization. (cited in Apps, 1994, p.237)

Apps (1994) believes "leadership development programs must themselves become transformed" (p.238). This is because many programs are based on current and outdated practices unsuited to the future environment. He challenges leaders to take charge of their own learning and develop their own learning plans (with help from others as needed).

Some overall guidelines for development Apps (1994) puts forward for leaders for the emerging age include:

1. Provide a combination of externally planned and self-directed activities-keeping in mind an interactive approach between teacher and learner.
2. Encourage experiential as well as traditional learning activities (reading extensively, writing regularly, attending formal lectures, interviewing people, and travelling).

3. Encouraging time for reflection (allowing people to get in touch with who they are, what they know, and what they believe).
4. Develop a program over time.
5. Consider curriculum themes in a leadership development program.
6. Encourage and support practical projects as part of a leadership development curriculum. (pp.238-243)

Apps (1994) contends the greatest challenge of all is to constantly re-examine his proposed concept of leadership “which focuses on developing a personal philosophy of leadership and includes examining fundamental beliefs and values, considering a variety of leader qualities and characteristics, exploring several leadership approaches, and understanding perspectives on education” (p.244). This approach should be used as a guide and should be “freeing rather than confining” (p.244). In this way, new approaches can emerge as the situation develops. “The unknown, chaotic future will require that and much more” (p.244).

Practical Application of Postindustrial Paradigm of Leadership

Rogers (1996) makes an interesting observation. While this paradigm may only recently have been recognized, it is not new. She gives the example of a "peer education drama troupe", prevalent on some college campuses. These individuals address social issues through education by performing skits. Leadership "roves" among its members as required. The individual that is the most visionary may have the most influence. Enthusiastic members may be the fund-raisers. The designated "leader" may take a leadership role at times but he or she is not the real leader all the time. Other behaviours of the group in this setting which demonstrates postindustrial leadership is the way it collaborates, uses noncoercive persuasion (coming from all directions), and acts as collaborators/leaders in a give and take relationship. There is a desire to bring about real change and that change reflects mutual purpose.

Another example of postindustrial leadership found in the university community may be found in Total Quality Management. This management philosophy requires cross-functional task forces and committees, which, "when truly empowered to make decisions, establish new policy, and transform the institution, postindustrial leadership is likely taking place" (Rogers, 1996, p.309). The key here is creating the conditions that allows leadership to come from anywhere and everywhere: from faculty, staff or students. Any group within the university might operate this way. "It simply requires individuals who have the commitment and the competencies necessary to create the conditions in which postindustrial leadership relationships can form; together, such a community of believers can pursue a transformational cause (p.309).

Rogers (1996) suggests the following competencies as a foundation for student affairs professionals who want to practice this type of leadership, while emphasizing this is not meant to be a "recipe" or how to engage in leadership, because, as indicated, each relationship is unique

to its context. These suggestions are rather to enhance the relationship:

1. Develop skills that include understanding groups and how they develop; reading the group, analysing and interpreting its actions; understanding the roles group members play; knowing how to influence the group's process; and providing feedback to group members.
2. Learn to work through the inevitable conflict that will result from engaging diverse perspectives seeking mutual purposes.
3. Create environments based on trust and empowerment.
4. Encourage diverse voices.
5. Engage in continual critical reflection and evaluation.
6. Create and articulate a shared vision.
7. Understand and use the political process using noncoercive means of persuasion.
8. Develop a multiperspective view to interpret the experiences of the leadership group and understand the context in which the change is to be initiated. This will enhance the work of student affairs professionals as postindustrial leaders and collaborators. (pp.310-315)

Rogers (1996) contends, there are two main principles applicable to teaching postindustrial competencies. The first applies to teaching individuals to engage in leadership rather than teaching individuals to be leaders. The second principle applies to the methods used and they must reflect the principles of postindustrial leadership. This latter principle, according to Rogers, is a powerful teaching tool and can occur in every area of student affairs. She maintains: professional development programs, student leadership retreats, and staff training

sessions can not only be used to explain postindustrial leadership competencies but also to demonstrate them, in the very way the programs are structured and the participants included in the process. Even more ideal, the entire student affairs function could become a living laboratory for students and staff alike to engage in the processes of postindustrial leadership and acquire the skills necessary to engage in it. This would entail putting the principles and competencies of postindustrial leadership into practice in the day-to-day functions of student affairs offices. (pp.316-317)

Summary

This paper explored guidelines for developing leadership potential. The literature clearly shows that the process is complex. The focus on “relationships” and “context” preclude a “formula” approach that can be applied to all settings.

The basic tenets of transformational leadership provides an excellent foundation for developing leadership for student service professionals and for the students they serve. The ideas proposed by this theory transformed our notions of leadership over the past two decades (Rogers, 1996).

The expansion and development of these ideas are found in the postindustrial paradigm, an appropriate model for student affairs practice.

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