THE CALL FOR ACADEMIC LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

WHERE HAVE ALL THE LEADERS GONE? HAVE THEY EVER REALLY BEEN HERE? IN THE CORPORATE WORLD, SOME OF THE MOST WIDELY QUOTED EXPERTS IN MANAGEMENT HAVE COMPLAINED THAT ADVANCES IN LEADERSHIP SIMPLY HAVE NOT KEPT UP WITH ACHIEVEMENTS IN OTHER AREAS:

WE HAVE LEARNED A GREAT DEAL OVER THE LAST DECADE ABOUT DESIGNING MORE SOPHISTICATED INTERVENTIONS TO EDUCATE OUR FUTURE LEADERS. YET IN OTHER WAYS, WE HAVE SIMPLY PROGRESSED FROM THE BRONZE AGE OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT TO THE IRON AGE. WE HAVE ADVANCED, BUT WE HAVE YET TO TRULY ENTER THE INFORMATION AGE. (CONGER AND BENJAMIN, 1999, 262–263)

IF THE SITUATION IS THAT DIRE AMONG THE FORTUNE 500, WE IN HIGHER EDUCATION MUST BE IN SEVERE TROUBLE INDEED. BUSINESS MAY NOT YET HAVE MADE IT INTO THE INFORMATION AGE, BUT COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES SHOULD COUNT THEMSELVES LUCKY IF THEY HAVE PROGRESSED BEYOND THE STONE AGE. IN 1996, MORE THAN TWO THOUSAND ACADEMIC LEADERS WERE SURVEYED, AND ONLY 3 PERCENT REPORTED THAT THEY HAD ANY SYSTEMATIC LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS ON THEIR CAMPUSES (GMELCH, WOLVERTON, WOLVERTON, AND HERMANSON, 1996). NOT MUCH HAS CHANGED IN THE PAST TWO DECADES. A 2013 STUDY BY ROBERT CIPRIANO AND RICHARD RICCARDI FOUND THAT ONLY 3.3 PERCENT OF DEPARTMENT CHAIRS CAME TO THEIR POSITIONS WITH FORMAL COURSE WORK IN THE ADMINISTRATIVE SKILLS THEY NEED.

THE SAME SORRY STATE OF AFFAIRS IS LIKELY TO BE TRUE OF DEANS AS WELL. MANY OF THEM ROSE TO THEIR LEADERSHIP POSITIONS BECAUSE OF THEIR SUCCESS AT COMMITTEE WORK AND THEIR DUTIES AS TEACHERS AND SCHOLARS, NOT BECAUSE THEY HAD ANY FORMAL TRAINING IN THE BEST WAY TO RUN A PROGRAM. PRESIDENTS AND PROVOSTS MAY FARE A LITTLE BETTER. ALTHOUGH PRACTICALLY EVERYONE IN HIGHER
education knows of upper administrators who came to their positions as the result of political appointments or successful careers in the military or corporate worlds, most university chief executive officers and chief academic officers have practical, on-the-job experience in academic settings. Most, too, have probably participated in formal leadership training programs like those run by the Harvard Institutes in Higher Education, Higher Education Resource Services, the American Council on Education, and others that are profiled throughout this book. In short, many administrators, at least at the college or department levels, begin their positions without:

- Formal training
- Significant prior experience
- A clear understanding of the ambiguity and complexity of their roles
- A solid grasp of what it means to lead within a system of shared governance
- A realization that full-time administrative work requires not a mere shift in focus but a metamorphic change from what their perspective was as a faculty member, as well as a corresponding change in their self-image (the “Who am I now?” question)
- An awareness of the full cost that administrative assignments will have to their careers as scholars, artists, and researchers
- Preparation to balance their personal and professional lives

To put it bluntly, academic leadership is one of the few professions one can enter today with absolutely no training in, credentials for, or knowledge about the central duties of the position.

As a result, while institutions of higher education become increasingly complex, many academic leaders begin their jobs woefully unprepared for the challenges awaiting them. Only the very rare graduate program, like the PreDoctoral Leadership Development Institute at Rutgers University (www.odl.rutgers.edu/pldi/), makes a sustained effort to provide leadership training to potential faculty members before they receive their PhD. And it is not as though the dangers of a lack of administrative training have not been identified. For years, blue ribbon commissions and executive reports from such organizations as the American Council on Education (Eckel, Hill, and Green, 1998; Kim and Cook, 2013), the Kellogg Commission (Beinike and Sublett, 1999), the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges (Eckel, 2012), and the
Global Consortium of Higher Education (Acker, 1999) have been calling for bolder and better college and university leadership. Nevertheless, little has changed. Despite the high profile given these white papers when they are released, there is still no universally accepted credential or certification process that indicates who is qualified to deal with the opportunities and challenges of higher education today. Even on the campus level, the literature is all but silent on best practices for developing deans, directors, and department chairs. There is simply no broad consensus as to what effective leadership training looks like at the level of the system, institution, program, or individual discipline.

The sheer magnitude of this problem is all but overwhelming. Nearly fifty thousand people currently serve as department chairs in the United States, with about a quarter of them being replaced each year. Deans, on the average, serve six years. The training programs provided to most of those who will fill the resulting vacancies may charitably be described as episodic and well intentioned. In-house programs are often only half a day long, with more extensive retreats rarely extending beyond two or three days. Many sessions at these workshops are devoted to legal and fiscal issues; the goal, it would appear, is to keep the institution out of trouble (and out of the Chronicle of Higher Education) rather than to develop well-rounded academic leaders. Even some very good programs, which hire a skilled trainer or experienced administrator for an intense, multiday workshop, often deal with only general issues. Outside consultants may be experts in their areas, but they cannot be expected to know the local culture of every institution they visit. (We know: we are those consultants.) For all these reasons, it is not an exaggeration to conclude that the development of academic leadership is one of the most misunderstood, least studied, and most critical management challenges that exist in higher education today.

The Cost of Poor Administrative Preparation

Our failure to provide adequate training for leaders at colleges and universities affects us in several important ways.

Programs Suffer

Higher education is undergoing a period of intense change. Academic programs are facing increased competition for resources, including students (whom we often describe as our most important resources), as for-profit universities, nonprofit universities, and online universities all compete with one another for the same tuition dollars. Moreover, low-cost or
no-cost sources of higher education—such as MOOCs (massive open online courses), iTunes University, academic podcasts, the Teaching Company, Rosetta Stone Language Courses, and the like—mean that potential students have a far greater menu of educational choices than they ever had before. In order to be nimble enough to respond to all the challenges their programs face, chairs, directors, and deans cannot afford to approach administration with the belief that “I’ll be able to pick it up as I go along.” If these administrators do not hit the ground running, their programs will suffer, perhaps irreparably, because their competitors will be succeeding while they are still winding their way up the learning curve.

Institutions Suffer

Because of their complexity, colleges and universities are governed by what sometimes seems to be a bewildering array of rules and regulations. There are institutional policies, state educational guidelines, state and federal laws, accreditation requirements for both the school as a whole and individual programs, trustee or legislative initiatives, and more. Administrators who are unaware of how all these policies fit together might act in a way that leaves their institutions liable for fines, damages, and other sanctions. For example, someone who is unfamiliar with where academic freedom ends and protection against hate speech begins could make a decision that results in a lawsuit that proves disastrous to the institution and its reputation. Members of a governing board sometimes place pressure on administrators to act in a way that would violate the principles of academic freedom and thus put the school’s accreditation in jeopardy. With legislatures and governing boards taking more of an activist approach in their treatment of universities, even one poor decision—no matter how pure the administrator’s intentions may have been—could set back the goals of the entire institution. Administrators need to know not only where these potential land mines are, but also what effective strategies exist for negotiating their way through them.

Individuals Suffer

Not being adequately prepared for the challenges of leading a college or department can wreak havoc with an administrator’s career. It is not uncommon in higher education to hear about university presidents who either resign or are forced out of their positions in fewer than three years because they were not fully prepared for the job and the public scrutiny that came with it. While one article in the Chronicle of Higher Education describes university presidents as “Bruised, Battered, and
Loving It” (Glassner and Schapiro, 2013), another calls their occupation a “Precarious Profession” and notes that their time in office “is shrinking rapidly” (Fethke and Policano, 2012). That same sort of career damage occurs elsewhere on the institutional hierarchy as well. By not being adequately trained for the challenges they face, chairs, deans, and provosts sometimes experience votes of no confidence from the faculty that result in a swift and painful exit from their positions. Finding another administrative appointment after a public and humiliating failure is difficult. Even returning to the faculty can have its challenges. It can be difficult to restart a research agenda once it has been interrupted for several years. As a result, many well-intentioned administrators find their careers stalled because they got in far over their heads in terms of leadership challenges. Even worse, their personal lives may suffer in the meantime because they end up spending so much time trying to address a rapidly spiraling series of problems that they stint their obligations to their family and other loved ones. They come away from their brief administrative careers convinced that becoming a chair or dean was the worst mistake they ever made.

But Don’t Current Programs for University Administrators Already Fill This Need?

It can seem a little hard to reconcile our claim that leadership training is lacking in higher education with the numerous advertisements found in professional journals that promote conferences, consultants, and publications intended to help administrators improve their performance. Certainly a broad range of programs and resources exists, and these opportunities can be a valuable component in a comprehensive program for academic leadership development. The following are examples of just a few of the programs and services available for training administrators in higher education:

- A number of organizations like the American Council on Education (www.acenet.edu/leadership/Pages/default.aspx) and the Committee on Institutional Cooperation (www.cic.net/faculty/academic-leadership-development) offer well-established programs to groups ranging from potential faculty leaders all the way to university presidents and system chancellors.
- IDEA Education offers a feedback system for department chairs (ideaedu.org/services/department-chairs), as well as access to consultants in a wide variety of administrative areas (ideaedu.org/services/consulting-services).
Kansas State University sponsors the annual Academic Chairpersons Conference that assembles experts on a variety of topics related to leadership issues in higher education (www.dce.k-state.edu/conf/academicchairpersons).

Each summer Harvard University conducts three well-established and intense programs in academic leadership development. The Institute for Educational Management is intended for senior-level administrators like presidents and vice presidents, the Management Development Program is intended for midlevel administrators, and the Institute for Management and Leadership in Education is intended for deans and academic vice presidents who are roughly in the middle of their careers (www.gse.harvard.edu/ppe/programs/higher-education/portfolio/index.html).

Publishers that specialize in topics related to higher education, such as Jossey-Bass (www.departmentchairs.org/online-training.aspx) and Magna Publications (www.magnapubs.com/online/seminars/), regularly sponsor webinars on academic leadership and offer short DVD courses.

Private training firms, such as the Center for Creative Leadership (www.ccl.org), ATLAS: Academic Training, Leadership, and Assessment Services (www.atlasleadership.com), the Center for the Study of Academic Leadership, the Academy of Academic Leaders (www.academicleaders.org), and Elite Leadership Training (www.eliteleadershiptraining.com) conduct workshops on site at host universities or at regional conferences or both. They also offer the services of consultants who can coach individual administrators on possible solutions to their most pressing problems.

We give more examples of national programs in academic leadership development in the appendix.

The fact is that there is no dearth of expertise available on ways in which academic leaders can be more effective in their jobs. The programs we listed are among the resources we return to repeatedly throughout this book as we explore best practices in developing leadership. But there is a difference between a short-term leadership development opportunity and a sustained, ongoing program that provides the infrastructure administrators need in order to learn how to do their jobs better, enough consistency for them to receive reinforcement in their efforts, and a well-scaffolded structure that helps them move from an introductory to a more advanced level of understanding. What academic administrators need is not a program that lasts for a day, a week, or even a month but
a career-long development program that meets them where they are and carries them wherever they need to be.

As Mike Myatt, managing director and chief strategy officer at N2growth, concludes in an article aptly titled “The #1 Reason Leadership Development Fails”:

You don’t train leaders; you develop them—a subtle yet important distinction lost on many. . . . Don’t train leaders, coach them, mentor them, disciple them, and develop them, but please don’t attempt to train them. Where training attempts to standardize by blending to a norm and acclimating to the status quo, development strives to call out the unique and differentiate by shattering the status quo. Training is something leaders dread and will try and avoid, whereas they will embrace and look forward to development. Development is nuanced, contextual, collaborative, fluid, and above all else, actionable. (www.forbes.com/sites/mikemyatt/2012/12/19/the-1-reason-leadership-development-fails/)

In other words, the standard approach to leadership training in higher education tends to be short term and task oriented; it emphasizes strategy, tactics, and techniques and bases its approach on the assumption that if we can only teach administrators the best methods of leadership, then administrators will become the best leaders. But as important as it is in higher education for deans, chairs, and others to master such processes as strategic planning, program review, budget management, and outcomes assessment, these processes are really only the tools that leaders use; they are not keys to leadership itself. The development of genuine academic leadership must be much more comprehensive. It must combine a task orientation (What is our goal?) with a people orientation (How are we treating our stakeholders?). It must build on what administrators already know and who they already are rather than attempt to replace their current knowledge with a universal secret to administrative success. It should avoid giving people false impressions like the belief that all academic leaders fit a specific Myers-Briggs profile. It must, in short, emphasize development rather than training, growth rather than the mastery of technique.

A New Paradigm for Developing Academic Leaders

If higher education is to create a new, more effective paradigm for developing academic leaders, its most important requirement will be a commitment to take the time to do the job right. The transformation from successful faculty member—which involves one set of highly developed
skills and attributes—to effective academic leader—which involves an entirely different set of highly developed skills and attributes—cannot be accomplished by reading a book or attending a seminar. In the corporate world, as well as in such pursuits as athletics and the fine arts, K. Anders Ericsson, Ralph Krampe, Clemens Tesch-Römer, and others have suggested that it takes roughly ten full years of preparation to achieve a world-class level of success (Ericsson, Krampe, and Tesch-Römer, 1993; Ericsson, 1996). In his 2008 book Outliers, Malcolm Gladwell popularized these findings, arguing that it takes ten thousand hours of practice (the equivalent of five years’ worth of forty-hour workweeks) to become an expert in most fields. That timetable is one we should be quite familiar with in higher education. Most American universities, for example, expect that it will take faculty members six or seven years to attain the level of expertise expected for them to receive tenure, with an additional five to seven years required before they can be considered for promotion to the rank of full professor. Moreover, all that preparation comes only after the faculty member has already spent between three and ten years as a graduate student and postdoc. So if we assume that it takes ten to twenty years for a highly intelligent person to become an expert in an academic discipline, why do we assume that we can train academic leaders in a three-day workshop?

Case Study: The Academic Leadership Forum

As a way of understanding how a new paradigm for developing academic leaders might work at a college or university, we consider the example of the Academic Leadership Forum (ALF), a pilot program run by three deans—Walt Gmelch, Jim Melsa, and Ben Allen—at Iowa State University from 2000 until 2004 (Gmelch, 2013). The idea behind ALF was to incorporate learning about academic leadership with applying the concepts learned over an extended period of time. The program would thus be a workshop, learning laboratory, mentoring environment, and support group simultaneously, providing its participants with a more comprehensive understanding of how to be effective administrators than they would have received from course work alone. Its initial goals were:

1. To help its participants develop a better understanding of various leadership styles, motives, and roles played by department chairs and deans
2. To acquire the key leadership skills required to be an effective academic leader
The Call for Academic Leadership Development

3. To build a peer coaching system that could support academic leaders at the institution
4. To help department chairs and deans deal with the professional and personal challenges inherent in their positions

To achieve such ambitious goals, the developers of the program adapted appropriate elements from a corporate concept known as the 7-S model (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Stevens, 2001). The name of the model is derived from seven core components that can be divided into two subsets as follows:

**THE THREE HARD S’S**
1. Strategy
2. Structure
3. Systems

**THE FOUR SOFT S’S**
4. Staff
5. Skills
6. Style
7. Shared values

In order to understand how these seven elements work together to create an effective program of academic leadership development, we examine each of them individually.

**Strategy**

The originators of the ALF program based their strategy on existing research about the best ways to help new department chairs make the transition from faculty to administration (Gmelch and Miskin, 2004, 2011), new deans move through the various stages of their careers (Gmelch, Hopkins, and Damico, 2011), and new school administrators become socialized into their positions (Ortiz, 1982). This research suggested that any successful strategy for developing academic leaders must consist of three ingredients:

1. A conceptual understanding of the unique roles and responsibilities that are associated with academic leadership. Conceptual understanding involves the knowledge that administrators need in order to do their jobs effectively. It includes understanding the organizational culture and mastering the dynamics that distinguish the university from
other work environments. In addition, successful academic leaders have to know the perspectives or frameworks different stakeholders will use in order to understand their relationship to the college or university and how this affects their interactions with other institutional constituencies. In the area of academic leadership, development programs need to address two major aspects of conceptual understanding. First, as faculty members move from teaching and research to positions of administrative leadership, their understanding of their relationship to the institution, their work, and their colleagues will change in ways they may not anticipate. They need to be better prepared for what their new assignments, responsibilities, and relationships will entail. Second, the role that managers and leaders play in higher education is distinctly different from the role that bosses, supervisors, commanders, and directors play in other types of organizations (see Buller, 2013). In the approach developed by Lee Bolman and Terry Deal (2013), we may speak of four major frames through which organizational culture can be examined: its political, symbolic, human, and structural dimensions. As faculty members assume administrative roles, they approach their work in terms of the human and structural aspects of their leadership roles: Who are my primary stakeholders? Where does my area of authority begin and end on the organizational chart? But as they grow in their positions, the political and symbolic aspects of the job assume far more importance: Who possesses more power or influence at the institution than that person’s title would suggest? What are the traditions and values of our institution that affect the way we see things and make decisions? Universities have a great deal of experience in how best to teach students about leadership. That body of conceptual knowledge can also be used to improve the effectiveness of administrators. We can begin by teaching them, for example, what it means to build a community, empower others, and set direction in the distinctive organizational culture of higher education (see Gmelch, Hopkins, and Damico, 2011).

2. Regular practice in the skills necessary to be an effective leader, particularly in how to work successfully with diverse stakeholders, such as faculty, staff, students, other administrators, and external constituencies. In order to perform their roles and fulfill their responsibilities effectively, academic leaders need to hone their skills. While there is much that they can learn through clinical approaches such as seminars, workshops, and lectures, conceptual understanding alone does not guarantee successful leadership. They must then practice what they’ve learned by means of simulations, case studies, role plays, action planning, and on-the-job training. Many of the training opportunities we mentioned are designed
for institutions that can afford to send their administrators off site for a three- or four-day program. While these efforts can be highly effective in conveying the knowledge needed for skill development, Jay Alden Conger (1992) found more than twenty years ago that leadership training has only limited value unless there is appropriate follow-up. Conger discovered that the most effective approach is to provide training in work teams (e.g., a chair along with faculty members from his or her department or a dean with several of his or her chairs and associate deans). The work team would attend the same program, use simulations and role plays to practice what they learned, and then continue supporting and reinforcing each other’s efforts after they returned to campus. Incorporating these ideas, the founders of the ALF program designed it so that it included teams of deans, associate deans, and department chairs in an ongoing activity that would provide sufficient practice of the concepts discussed. (For an example of a leadership development initiative that has skill development as a central focus, see the discussion of Cornell University’s Leadership Development Academy in chapter 5.)

3. A formal process of reflection that helps leaders learn from their mistakes, base their decisions on solid core values, act with greater integrity and transparency, and continue to grow as dedicated professionals. Even when administrators understand their roles and possess the skills needed to perform their duties, they are not yet in a position to make the leap that Jim Collins (2001) calls the transition “from good to great.” Leadership development is first and foremost an inner journey. Self-knowledge, personal awareness, and corrective feedback must be part of the strategy for each leader’s development. In The Reflective Practitioner, Donald Schön (1983) asked, “What is the kind of knowing in which competent practitioners engage? How is professional knowing like and unlike the kinds of knowledge presented in academic textbooks, scientific papers, and learned journals?” (p. viii). Schön’s thesis is that effective professionals engage in what he calls reflection-in-action, an attempt to understand what can be learned from situations that do not go as planned. Results that deviate from our expectations cause us to question our underlying assumptions and, Schön concluded, successful leaders develop by allowing these underlying assumptions to evolve continually. Merely engaging in activities by rote or enforcing policies “because that’s what the manual says” results in stagnation, not personal growth. The goal for college administrators therefore should be to reflect continually on what it is they are trying to do, why they made that decision, whether their actions lead to the desired results, and how they might respond differently to similar situations in the future.
In our conversations with directors of various leadership development programs around the world, we found that these three ingredients recur frequently in highly effective initiatives. We will encounter them again in our discussion of best practices in preparing faculty members for leadership roles.

An important aspect of the strategy behind the ALF program was a consideration of how each of these three ingredients related to the other two. For instance, at the intersection of developing conceptual understanding and practicing leadership skills, participants in the program would be required to apply what they learned to real situations. By reflecting on how their leadership skills were improving, they would discover new ways to incorporate these skills into their regular practices. And by reflecting on the insights gained from their development of conceptual understanding, they would find new ways to ground leadership theory in application. Putting all these elements together, the participants in ALF would, it was hoped, emerge from the program with a much more nuanced approach to academic administration, one we might call comprehensive academic leadership (CAL; see figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1 Academic Leadership Development

Note: CAL = comprehensive academic leadership.
Structure

When we talk about the structure of a leadership development program, what we are referring to is its operating procedure and basic principles of organization. In the case of ALF, this structure was determined by a steering committee consisting of the deans, administrative assistants, and one department chair from each of the three colleges represented. The charge of this group was to determine how content for the program would be selected, what form the group’s various activities would take, and which research design would be used to determine the project’s effectiveness. After exploring several options, this steering committee recommended that the program start with a series of monthly three-hour sessions devoted to topics that were identified as important by the participants themselves. This core structure would be supplemented with workshops, guest presentations, and seminars that were available either through the university or in the community. For example, early in the program’s operation, Peter Senge, the director of the Center for Organizational Learning at the MIT Sloan School of Management, was visiting the local education community to discuss systems thinking; that opportunity was incorporated into ALF. Between sessions, the participants expanded their knowledge by reading a set of resources they developed, including articles, handouts, websites, and books. The goal of this structure was to provide regularity to the program, giving it substance and a predictable schedule, while preserving momentum between formal activities through “homework assignments” and the chance to put theory into practice on the job.

Systems

A key system developed to improve the effectiveness of ALF was the creation of peer support pairs that were called partners in academic leadership (PAL). Each PAL consisted of two administrators who held comparable positions in different colleges. The goal of this initiative was to provide a system in which participants could examine each other’s administrative decisions in a supportive and nonjudgmental manner. The PALs met periodically to expand their understanding of college administration by offering a small platform in which the members could discuss their leadership challenges and opportunities in a practical way, provide honest assessment of each other’s strengths and weaknesses through candid but collegial feedback, offer a high degree of confidentiality when sensitive matters needed to be considered, and provide participants with a chance to focus on issues that were too specific to individual situations to be explored by the whole group. Each PAL was also charged with
creating a learning experience or leadership development session devoted to one of the topics selected by ALF participants. This system had the benefit of bringing the PALs together around a common task and taking full advantage of each member’s expertise. To enable them to try out new ideas, each participant received a stipend of $250 to use as he or she deemed appropriate. The participants could thus pilot training materials or acquire books on academic leadership without cost to themselves or their academic units.

Staff

In designing an effective program for developing campus leadership, certain personnel questions arise immediately. Who is the program’s target audience? Who will develop and supervise the program’s activities? How many participants should be included in the program so that it will reach the critical mass needed for meaningful interaction and exchange of ideas without becoming so large as to be unwieldy?

At Iowa State, it seemed most appropriate to pilot the project in three colleges: Business, Education, and Engineering. As professional colleges, these units had missions more similar to one another than those of some of the other colleges. In addition, these three colleges had what struck the developers of the program as the right number of deans, associate deans, and department chairs to make the program viable. It would be large enough for the pilot project to make a noticeable difference in the quality of the university’s academic leadership, but it was small and nimble enough to respond quickly if midcourse corrections proved to be necessary. Finally, the three colleges chosen for the pilot were those in which the administrative staff members were most supportive of the idea. This last factor proved to be the most significant. Every complex initiative encounters rough spots during its implementation. As workloads increase and other issues arise throughout the academic year, it is easy for leadership development to be placed on a back burner. Having an initial set of participants with a strong personal commitment to the idea became essential. Activities ended up being successful because they mattered to those who engaged in them. This, then, became an important insight into building an academic leadership program that is truly effective.

The staff of pilot programs should be people who are strongly committed to its success. While there may be a temptation to pilot a concept with a representative sample of academic disciplines, if the first group of participants is not heavily invested in the program’s success, it is likely to die on the vine.
There was also one unanticipated advantage derived from ALF’s original staffing: the colleges of Business, Education, and Engineering were units in which there was a great deal of disciplinary expertise in such areas as management, strategic planning, budgeting, education leadership, benchmarking, and entrepreneurial approaches to new opportunities. By being able to draw from a large pool of knowledge and experience, the program could act as an in-house think tank. Expenses were low since there was little need to hire external consultants who might know a great deal about relevant topics but not about the distinctive organizational culture of Iowa State University. In terms of staffing, therefore, launching a successful leadership development program is a matter of exploring where three major factors come together:

1. Which units have the strongest interest in such a program?
2. Which units have the type of expertise that this program needs?
3. Which units are sufficiently similar to one another that they’ll be able to learn from each other’s mistakes, best practices, and past experience?

**Skills**

In terms of the content of the program, the ALF participants needed to identify the skills that they regarded as most important for successful academic leadership. This information was provided through focus groups and a survey similar to one administered to academic leaders nationally (Gmelch and Miskin, 2004, 2011) and internationally (Gmelch, Wolverton, Wolverton, and Sarros, 1999). Use of this instrument allowed a high degree of reliability and validity, as well as an opportunity to draw comparisons between the ALF participants and the national sample. The survey consisted of five general sections:

1. Background and demographic information
2. Job satisfaction as an academic leader: Cronbach standardized alpha (.90)
3. Stress: Cronbach standardized alpha (.96), including role conflict and ambiguity
4. Perceptions of preparation and training
5. Measured levels of reflective practices including six subsections on leadership identity and self-evaluation

(Note: The Cronbach standardized alpha is a measure of internal consistency. The goal on a survey of this kind is to get as close as possible to 1, indicating that respondents were consistent in their answers to
different survey items that asked essentially the same question. In general, any score equal to or greater than .9 is considered excellent.) The survey addressed thirty-six common administrative tasks and yielded useful information about the skills ALF most needed to address. Chief among these needs were:

1. Managing time properly, particularly the ability to maintain currency in research while performing administrative duties
2. Providing genuine leadership, not mere management, within the distinctive organizational structure of higher education
3. Instituting effective faculty development programs
4. Strategic thinking and creating a compelling vision for the future
5. Coaching and counseling faculty members so as to improve their performance
6. Making sound decisions
7. Communicating effectively with stakeholders
8. Managing conflict
9. Working harmoniously with upper administrative levels
10. Promoting teamwork
11. Building community
12. Leading change

As a further validation of the importance of these topics, it was discovered that they mirrored those found in most leadership development programs available at that time (Conger and Benjamin, 1999).

Style

Every organization, large and small, has its distinctive culture or style. From the frugal environment at Amazon.com where everyone’s focus is expected to be on work all day long to the mixture of work and play at Google, where massages are subsidized and the food is free, organizations develop a style based on both the personalities of their leaders and the needs of their industries (efficiency versus innovation, swift execution versus long-term development). Leadership initiatives are no different from any other. Some express clarity of organization—detailed workshop plans every month, online request forms for mentors, constantly updated libraries of new resources—while others encourage a more relaxed approach to leadership—an informal agreement to have lunch once
or twice a month to discuss leadership issues, a website that’s updated whenever someone has something new to contribute, a swap-and-share system for exchanging books rather than a highly organized library.

The style of ALF may best be described as business casual. It relied on a regular series of programs and meetings that helped provide structure to the endeavor but did not find the need for more elaborate rules, bylaws, votes, and even the keeping of minutes. Each leadership development initiative will have its own style that reflects the personalities of the participants, the needs of the institution, and the leadership philosophy that led to its creation.

Shared Values

One book that guided ALF’s conceptual framework was *Common Fire* (1996), in which Laurent Parks Daloz, Cheryl Keen, James P. Keen, and Sharon Daloz Parks posit that the pace of modern life has robbed people of “hearth time”—time to sit in front of the fire, reflect, and engage in meaningful conversation. In a similar way, families have lost “table time,” the time to sit together and share their experiences, and communities have lost “plaza time,” the time to engage in conversations about what occurred that day and why it should be regarded as important. A major goal of ALF was to reverse this trend and create “commons time” for deans and chairs that would help them reflect on their experiences and learn from each other’s successes and failures. To some extent, the PALs helped achieve this goal. Twice a month, these pairs would meet to talk informally about what went well, what got in the way, and what that person may have done differently if given a chance for a “do over.” But in a larger sense, it also became apparent that the entire program provided an opportunity for administrators to explore shared values and recognize how these values, even more than the skills and techniques they learned, helped guide their administrative practice. In fact, institutions that are developing their own programs in academic leadership would do well by considering the following principle:

> No one has ever transformed a college or university by adopting a clever technique. They transformed it by embodying worthy values.

But if that is the case, which values should leadership programs be promoting? And is it really possible to instill these values in someone who
does not already have them? There are several ways of answering these questions. In one sense, of course, our answer must be that the values leaders should follow as they seek to develop their own leadership skills are those they truly believe in and already have. In other words, one aspect of leadership development requires us to find out who we really are and what our core principles are. Almost any set of values a person currently has can open the door to effective academic leadership—for example:

- If you are the sort of person who always sticks up for the underdog, you can base your leadership on giving a voice to the voiceless.
- If you are a natural-born teacher who only reluctantly accepted an administrative role, you can be the type of leader who mentors others on the best ways to succeed in their own teaching.
- If you find yourself aggravated by even minor examples of carelessness and insignificant typographical errors, you can be the type of leader who sets and embodies the highest possible standards for accuracy.
- Even if you regard yourself as the most self-centered person on the faculty, you can be the type of leader who encourages others to act independently without relying on others to clean up the mistakes they themselves made.

In short, leadership development does not require administrators to embrace any specific set of core values. But it does require them to be candid with themselves about what their own core values are. A good leadership development program helps administrators find the best possible way to advocate for their stakeholders that remains true to the values he or she regards as most important (Cashman, 2008).

But, as we said, that is only one way of answering the question of which values should be promoted in a leadership development program. Another school of thought claims, to paraphrase George Orwell, that all values are equal, but some values are more equal than others.

Various researchers argue that certain values are essential to the value systems of good leaders. These primarily include honesty and integrity, but also encompass other important values such as concern for others, fairness, and justice. . . . Honesty is the most admired characteristic of leaders, followed by their forward-looking nature, ability to inspire, and competence. (Russell, 2001, 77, citing Kouzes and Posner, 1993, and Posner and Schmidt, 1992)
James Kouzes and Barry Posner surveyed fifteen hundred managers in many fields, not merely in higher education, and found three most important values they wanted in their supervisors:

1. **Integrity** (is truthful, is trustworthy, has character, has convictions)
2. **Competence** (is capable, is productive, is efficient)
3. **Leadership** (is inspiring, is decisive, provides direction) (Kouzes and Posner, 1993)

Moreover, when Kouzes and Posner broadened their study, surveying more than seventy-five thousand people in 1987, 2002, and 2010, they discovered great consistency in the values people wanted their leaders to demonstrate. In order of preference, these are the top five adjectives people say they want their leaders to be:

1. Honest
2. Forward looking
3. Inspiring
4. Competent
5. Intelligent

It is interesting to note that these characteristics consistently ranked far higher in Kouzes and Posner's survey than other traits we might expect to head the list, such as being cooperative, courageous, caring, and loyal. For this reason, it might be preferable to conclude that while there's no single list of values that determines which academic leaders succeed and which fail, most people expect their leaders to demonstrate integrity, honesty, transparency, and reliability. If leaders make a mistake, admit it, and indicate what they have learned from the process, most faculties tend to be forgiving. But once leaders violate the trust of the faculty, it is all but impossible to heal the rift.

As a way of helping leaders align their decisions more fully with their core values, ALF was designed to guide administrators toward becoming more intentional about their decisions before they made them (How does the action I'm about to take reflect the values that I deem important? How does it benefit my stakeholders?) and more reflective about those decisions once their consequences were clear (Were there any unintended and undesirable outcomes of my action? Is it appropriate to make a mid-course correction to produce better outcomes?). The question then arose: How could the creators of the program determine whether their efforts in making these improvements were successful?
Assessment Methodology

The impact of ALF was measured using a value-added approach. Various assessments were made of the participants before the beginning of the program in order to obtain baseline data: What was their current level of knowledge, skill, and use of established best practices? Then those same assessments were conducted again as the program continued in order to determine whether it was making a difference. One of the methods used in this assessment was the survey described in the “Skills” section above. An additional method was the use of focus groups, which began being conducted four months after the completion of the ALF program’s first year. Staff from the Research Institute for Studies in Education (RISE) conducted two focus groups, one of department chairs and the other of deans and associate deans, to help determine what impact (if any) participation in the program had on their leadership. Using the same theoretical framework that guided other ALF activities, the questions posed to the participants focused on their conceptual understanding, skill development, and use of reflective practice in their professional activities (Gmelch, Reason, Schuh, and Shelley, 2002).

Information obtained from surveys was examined using the Wilcoxon signed-ranks test (Green, Salkind, and Akey, 2000) in order to determine where statistically significant patterns arose. In addition, responses made in the focus groups sessions were transcribed, coded, and examined for consistent themes. The interpretation of these results focused on themes that emerged within each transcript, a process that Elliot Mishler (1986) called interpretive coding. Themes across the two transcripts were also identified, using a process known as inductive coding (Strauss, 1987) in which the researcher does not force the data to fit into preselected categories (a priori coding) but allows themes and connections to emerge logically from the responses themselves. Finally, these repeated themes were verified independently by two professional staff members from RISE using the approach pioneered by Richard Krueger (1998).

Leadership Development Results

Before participating in ALF, nearly half of the participants (47.6 percent) described themselves as “equally a faculty and an administrator.” A third of the respondents (33.3 percent) considered their professional identity to be solely “academic faculty members,” while only 19 percent (none of them department chairs) indicated that they saw themselves entirely as administrators. One interesting effect of the program was a change in
this self-perception. Once ALF was under way, 74 percent of the respondents indicated that they were “equally” faculty and administration, and approximately a fifth (21 percent) indicated they were administrators alone. Only one respondent (5 percent) saw his or her sole professional identity as a member of the faculty. That conclusion was corroborated by the survey results. When the Wilcoxon signed-ranks test was applied to the data, it was clear that the program had produced a significant change ($Z = -2.236, p < .05$) in terms of how the participants viewed their professional identities: Overall the participants experienced a shift away from viewing their roles primarily as faculty members and toward an identity that balanced faculty and administrative components. In the focus groups as well, analysis of their comments indicated that the participants were demonstrating a more sophisticated understanding of their academic leadership roles as the program continued.

When the survey responses were examined in terms of the Bolman and Deal (2013) four frames model described earlier, the self-identified strengths of the administrators fell into distinct frames of leadership. For example, leaders with a structural frame tended to emphasize the importance of organizational goals, rules, polices, and hierarchies. Those with a human resources frame recognized the interdependence between the organization and the people composing it and gave priority to the issue of how each individual fit into the overall organization. Leaders with a political frame tended to view power, the formation of coalitions, and bargaining to advance their work, while those with a symbolic frame relied more heavily on the emotional impact of images, traditions, and rituals.

On the presurvey, the participants as a whole scored highest in the human resources frame, followed by the structural frame, the symbolic frame, and the political frame. While no statistically significant differences were found between the pre- and postsurvey results, the symbolic and political frame somewhat increased both their raw scores and their relationship with the other frames; consequently, the structural frame demonstrated the largest decrease in importance. Bolman and Deal (2013) and Tierney (1987) highlight the importance of symbolism in leadership, especially in leadership that truly transforms an organization. For this reason, the movement from the structural and human resource frames toward the political and symbolic observed in ALF participants, although minor, was regarded as a sign of progress. In addition, Tierney suggested that symbolic communication is essential to communicating organizational values, a vital component of transformational leadership. Finally, the movement toward political and symbolic leadership indicates that the participants were developing a more sophisticated conceptual understanding
of leadership (as opposed to mere management of their programs) as a result of their participation in ALF. That sophistication was demonstrated through a shift in the participants’ emphasis on transactional motivations (career advancement, financial gain, power) to transformational motivations (the chance to contribute to an organization, influence faculty development, experience personal growth).

Participation in ALF appeared to demonstrate a strong correlation with increases in such skills as time management and achieving work-life balance. Respondents reported that they felt more prepared and effective in thirty-two of the thirty-six administrative tasks addressed in the pre- and postprogram survey. They also reported a greater ability to balance their own professional needs with the needs of the institution. Nevertheless, ALF participants reported little progress in being able to better integrate scholarly activity into their administrative duties. Fully two-thirds of the respondents reported they were “dissatisfied” with the level of their scholarship and believed that it suffered after they assumed their leadership positions.

Perhaps the greatest progress indicated by the participants came in the area of reflective practice. The conceptual understanding part of the program increased the participants’ awareness of the importance of reflection, and their work in the PAL groups gave them an opportunity to put these ideas into practice. Survey results indicated that the participants were highly appreciative of the networking component of ALF and the opportunity it provided to reflect on the experience from a broader perspective. In fact, one of the most salient findings of the ALF study related to the participants’ increased job satisfaction. The administrators left the program with a renewed commitment to and enthusiasm for their academic leadership positions. They reported statistically significant increases in satisfaction with the pace of their work, administrative workload, and overall job satisfaction.

Conclusion

Although ALF served only a limited group of administrators for a limited period of time, the lessons learned from this pilot provide valuable insights into other academic units, institutions, and university systems as they proceed to develop their own academic leadership programs. In the next chapter, we outline these lessons and what they can tell us about ways of helping administrators become more effective at their jobs. Then we proceed to apply those lessons to the 7-S model described earlier, relate them to the best practices in use in other academic leadership programs,
and provide a flexible blueprint for how others can create their own programs for developing academic leadership.

REFERENCES


**RESOURCES**


