

2017

A Comparison Between Administrative Leadership in Higher Education and Change-Oriented Leadership in Banks

Glenn King Jr
Walden University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations>

 Part of the [Business Administration, Management, and Operations Commons](#), [Finance and Financial Management Commons](#), [Higher Education Administration Commons](#), and the [Management Sciences and Quantitative Methods Commons](#)

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection at ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu.

Walden University

College of Management and Technology

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Glenn King Jr.

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee

Dr. Lee Lee, Committee Chairperson, Management Faculty
Dr. Robert Levasseur, Committee Member, Management Faculty
Dr. Raghu Korrapati, University Reviewer, Management Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2017

Abstract

A Comparison Between Administrative Leadership in Higher Education and Change-
Oriented Leadership in Banks

by

Glenn King, Jr.

MS, Troy University, 2006

BS, Concordia College Selma, 2005

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Management

Walden University

August 2017

Abstract

Organizational environments continually change. Organizations that do not meet the demands for change do not survive. The required changes differ for banks versus universities, suggesting that leaders in each type of organization need to use unique styles to adapt to their unique environments. The purpose of this quantitative research study was to test a contingency theory of leadership that leaders of banks are change-oriented, whereas leaders of higher educational institutions are administrative in their style. The research questions dealt with differences in the uncertainty of internal operations and the external environment of banks versus universities, and the leadership style most appropriate for each type of organization. The research method was a cross-sectional, correlational, field study, with data collected by means of a tested, reliable, and valid standardized survey instrument. From the target population of 2,400 potential participants from three banks and three universities, 203 respondents completed an online survey. A series of *t*-tests confirmed most of the alternative hypotheses. Banks encountered a higher level of internal and external uncertainty and adopted more change-oriented leadership styles than universities. However, a hypothesis test failed to confirm the claim that administrative leadership style is more effective for universities. Findings of the study offer insights to university leaders about the importance of change-oriented leadership styles, which have the potential to engage staff more directly in the strategic changes required for organizational survival and success, thereby bringing about a higher level of individual, organizational, and social change.

A Comparison Between Administrative Leadership in Higher Education and Change-
Oriented Leadership in Banks

by

Glenn King, Jr.

MS, Troy University, 2006

BS, Concordia College Selma, 2005

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Management

Walden University

August 2017

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my Lord and Savior Jesus Christ. The one who died and sacrificed his life to save a wretch like me. I once was lost, but now I'm found, was blind but now I see. This dissertation is also dedicated to my mother, the late Verlene Debrossard and my father, the late Reverend Glenn King, Sr.

Acknowledgments

There are so many who played a vital role in the finalization of this research. I owe my heartfelt thanks and gratitude to many. Dr. Lee W. Lee, Dr. Robert Levesseur, and Dr. Raghu Korrapati thanks for your hard work and willingness to serve on my dissertation committee. From my supervisor, to my coworkers, peers, and all those who supported me toward during my doctoral journey. To those who agreed to participate in this study, yours was the biggest sacrifice, and I am most appreciative. Last but certainly not least, to my family who served as a constant source of support, guidance, and welcomed criticism, I owe you a gracious “Thank you” and all my love. To my grandmother, Mrs. Emma Lean Moore, and my aunt, Mrs. Gwendolyn Diann Miree, I thank you for raising me to become the man I am today. I pray that someday I will make you proud. To my uncles, Mr. Henry Lewis Moore, Sr., and Mr. Lee Anthony Moore, Sr., thank you very much for your love and support. To my mentor, Mrs. Jessie Daniels Dawson, thank you for your prayers, encouragement, and support given me from the beginning of my career in higher education and for being with me during this doctoral stage from Day 1 to current. To Reverend Dr. Alemu Ermias Katiso, thanks for being a huge prayer warrior and supporting me toward completing this milestone.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	v
List of Figures.....	vi
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Background of the Study	1
Statement of Problem.....	3
Purpose of the Study	5
Research Questions and Hypotheses	5
Hypothesis 1.....	6
Hypothesis 2.....	6
Hypothesis 3.....	6
Hypothesis 4.....	6
Theoretical Framework.....	7
Rationale for the Study	12
Nature of the Study.....	13
Definitions of Terms.....	14
Assumptions.....	15
Scope and Delimitations	15
Limitations of the Study.....	17
Significance of this Study.....	17
Significance to Theory	18
Significance to Practice.....	18

Significance to Social Change	19
Summary	19
Chapter 2: Literature Review	20
Literature Search Strategy.....	21
Theoretical Foundation	22
Perspectives on Leadership Traits	24
Trait Theory of Leadership	25
The Big Five Factor Model.....	27
Behavioral Theory of Leadership	34
Contingency Theory of Leadership	36
Change-Oriented Leadership	39
Administrative Leadership in Higher Education	42
Leadership in Higher Education	42
Academic Leadership.....	44
Change-Oriented Leadership in Banks	46
Implications for Higher Education.....	48
Lessons about Leadership from Businesses.....	52
Summary and Conclusions	53
Chapter 3: Research Method.....	55
Research Design and Rationale	55
Research Questions and Hypotheses	56
Hypothesis 1.....	56

Hypothesis 2.....	57
Hypothesis 3.....	57
Hypothesis 4.....	57
Population	58
Instrumentation	59
Validity and Reliability.....	60
Threats to Validity	61
Ethical Considerations and Procedures.....	62
Data Collection	63
Data Analysis.....	64
Summary	64
Chapter 4: Results.....	66
Data Collection	66
Recruitment and Response.....	66
Sample Characteristics.....	67
Study Results	68
Descriptive Statistics of Key Variables	68
Correlations.....	69
Measures: Reliability and Validity	71
Task Variability	73
Task Analyzability	74
Diversity of External Stakeholders	75

Changes of Stakeholders' Demands	75
Administrative Leadership.....	76
Change-Oriented Leadership	77
Hypotheses Testing.....	78
Additional Analyses.....	82
Summary	84
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations.....	86
Interpretation of Findings	87
Limitations of the Study.....	89
Recommendations.....	90
Implications.....	91
Implications to Administrative Best Practices.....	91
Implications to Theory	92
Implications of the Study for Positive Social Change	93
Conclusion	95
References.....	97
Appendix A: Administrative Change and Leadership Survey.....	112

List of Tables

Table 1. Internal Environment of an Organization and Leadership Styles Between Higher Education and Banks.....	8
Table 2. External Environment of an Organization and Leadership Styles Between Higher Education and Banks.....	11
Table 3. Sample Characteristics: Frequencies	68
Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of the Key Variables	69
Table 5. Correlation Coefficients Among Key Variables.....	70
Table 6. Reliability Test of the Measures	72
Table 7. <i>t</i> Test of Equality of Mean Between Banks and Universities.....	79
Table 8. Standardized Scores of the Key Variables.....	83

List of Figures

Figure 1. Comparison of internal operations and environment between banks and universities	84
--	----

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Higher education and banks are two completely different entities. Nevertheless, there is one common goal that these two entities share: to provide value to society. Higher education seeks to promote the value of obtaining advanced knowledge in various disciplines to those individuals who pursue educational advancement (Kandiko, 2012). The mission of banks is to identify the best talent in higher education and to attract individuals towards a company (Boud & Rooney, 2015). Talented, smart, and intellectual employees are able to help corporations maximize profits, produce better quality products and services, and optimize organizational effectiveness (Charan & Conaty, 2011). However, while practices within corporations are consistently changing due to the competitive environment, educational practices have remained the same (Hazelkorn, 2015). The purpose of this quantitative correctional research study was to determine if relationships exist between leadership practices in higher educational institutions and administrative leadership as well as leadership practices in banks and change-oriented leadership.

Background of the Study

Change is dynamic, increasing in velocity, and driven by internal, external, evolutionary, and revolutionary forces (Fullan, 2014). The need to change how organizations carry out daily operations has never been more critical (Kotter, 2012). Sikdar and Payyazhi (2014) asserted that people will never bring about change unless individuals are willing to accept it. Sikdar and Payyazhi further indicated that change-oriented leaders help to understand change and make others relate to it as well.

Organizational leaders should constantly develop themselves, as well as their successors who will follow afterwards (Fullan, 2014). Present-day business leaders in banks have become more flexible and collaborative and have devoted time to continuous training and development (Caldwell et al., 2012). Business leaders of corporations have adopted the philosophy of supporting leaders in preparation for professional development skills and characteristics needed in order to foster change development (Caldwell et al., 2012). Based on globalization, application of new technologies, and dealing with turbulent environments, organizations are constantly experiencing ongoing processes of transformation (Godkin & Allcorn, 2011). In addition, corporations are constantly assigning the responsibility of anticipating change and providing guidance across organizations in order to understand the incoming change. If organizations fail to adopt such practices and do not constantly renew themselves with recent trends, these corporations would fail and fall behind competitors (Hayes, 2014). Moreover, the changing nature of the workforce and the increase in complexity within organizations has necessitated a more collaborative approach to leadership within organizations (Northouse, 2015). In addition, the increased dependence upon technology has placed a greater demand on how leaders interact with others, lead others, and how they prepare their organizations for change (Northouse, 2015). For this reason, the constant changes within corporate organizations have enabled leadership practices to adapt accordingly (Northouse, 2015). Change-oriented leadership within corporations prepares organizations to deal with challenges and obstacles (Abbas & Asghar, 2010; Northouse, 2015).

Statement of Problem

An organizational change involves the ability of leaders to be transparent because transparency is part of change-oriented leadership (Kotter, 2012). Change-oriented leadership is the name given to certainly one of the most flexible styles of leadership (Kotter, 2012). Therefore, available literature indicated that implementation of change-oriented leadership benefits organizations and helps to respond to the changing environment (Kotter, 2012). The problem in this study was that higher education is slow to adopt a change-oriented leadership style (Brennan, 2012). Because of the fact that higher education is slow to respond to the necessary changes and concerns that occur within the 21st century, it tends to face many challenges that could have been avoided if change-oriented leadership were adopted. O'Brien (2008) concluded that there were five ingredients to successful change management: education, transparency, negotiation, support, and inclusion. In support of this position, Kotter (2012) also concluded that organizations that are effective change agents are those that engage the workforce. Even those entities that are not involved with making a profit, such as government and public education, create effective change when promoting employee engagement. Another contributor to effective organizational change may also be positive treatment, which may create a positive atmosphere (Giauque, 2015).

Education has its success rooted in achievement at both the leader and student level. Higher education proponents pride themselves on the values of academic excellence, accountability, community and diversity, social responsibility, and creative expression (Coates & Goedegebuure, 2012). Even though higher educational institutions

are similar to other organizations, accrediting bodies are constantly monitoring educational institutions to determine areas that need improvement. However, researchers have documented that higher educational reforms may not always get implemented, which leads to wasted resources (Brennan, 2012). Although higher education has to endure some change, it can be described as the adoption of innovation, where the ultimate goal is to enhance the outcomes through an alteration within the present practices (Northouse, 2015).

The challenge with change in higher education is that change does not occur as often as in banks (Brennan, 2012). In any situation, making change work is actually a matter of concern. As a result, organizations focus on implementing change-oriented leadership that will facilitate the change process and make the implementation easy and less complicated (Carter, Ulrich, & Goldsmith, 2012). Nevertheless, scholars have often considered that higher education deals with less change and remains true to its common core values (Brennan, 2012).

The present nature and higher education environment makes it more necessary to make changes more rapidly in order to increase innovation and knowledge (Grant, 2012). However, for innovation and knowledge to change more rapidly, leaders should have an understanding of various leadership practices (Grant, 2012). By comparing both leadership practices, leaders can easily recognize the differences between higher education leadership and corporate leadership.

Much literature has addressed the leadership styles in higher education and that of banks. However, there has been a lack of research that compared both leadership styles in

both entities. This study therefore did fill the gap in the literature by comparing the leadership styles implemented by higher education institutions and by banks.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative research study was to test a contingency theory of leadership that leaders of banks are change-oriented whereas leaders of higher educational institutions are administrative in their style. To test the hypotheses, a comparative design was used. Moreover, the purpose behind conducting this study was to analyze administrative leadership and change-oriented leadership and establish any differences between both. This study answered four research questions and four hypotheses aimed at seeking to test whether leaders of banks are change-oriented whereas leaders of higher educational institutions are administrative in their style. It is necessary to understand both aspects of leadership in order to determine how to accommodate leaders in both sectors with similar practices that can better enhance institutions and corporations. Survey data collected from three institutions of higher education and three banks in the southeast area of the United States were analyzed to test these four hypotheses.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions guided the current study:

Research Question 1: To what degree does a difference in the uncertainty of internal operations exist between higher education and banks?

Research Question 2: To what degree does a difference in the uncertainty of external environment exist between higher education institutions and banks?

Research Question 3: Is the administrative leadership reported more by higher education faculty and staff than by employees of banks?

Research Question 4: Is the change-oriented leadership reported more by higher education faculty and staff than by employees of banks?

Hypothesis 1

$H1_0$: Uncertainty of internal operations in higher education is greater than and equal to uncertainty in banks.

$H1_a$: Uncertainty of internal operations in higher education is less than uncertainty of internal operations in banks.

Hypothesis 2

$H2_0$: Uncertainty coming from external environment in higher education is greater than and equal to the uncertainty in banks.

$H2_a$: Uncertainty coming from external environment in higher education is less than the uncertainty of external environment in banks.

Hypothesis 3

$H3_0$: Administrative leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is less than or equal to by bank employees.

$H3_a$: Administrative leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is greater than by bank employees.

Hypothesis 4

$H4_0$: Change-oriented leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is greater than or equal to by bank employees.

H4_a: Change-oriented leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is less than by bank employees.

Theoretical Framework

This study was conducted based on a contingency theory of leadership, which is theory of change (Table 1). According to Kotter (2012), “The typical twentieth century organization has not operated well in a rapidly changing environment” (p. 169). However, the extent to which some organizations implement changes seems to be different than others. According to Brennan (2012), compared to banks, higher education institutions seem to be less reactive to immediate changes of their environment. These different relationships naturally lead to different leadership styles between leaders of the banks and those of the higher education institutions: the former leads to the highly market-driven change-oriented leadership style versus the latter to the system stability-oriented administrative leadership. The purpose of this comparative study, therefore, was to test whether leaders of banks were change-oriented whereas leaders of higher educational institutions were administrative in their style.

Table 1

Internal Environment of an Organization and Leadership Styles Between Higher Education and Banks

<i>Higher Education</i>	<i>Banking Industry</i>
Uncertainty derived from Internal Operations: Task Variability	
Deep professional knowledge required for each discipline and faculty members; and yet yet similar administrative tasks (e.g., reviewing and processing new student admissions and scheduling courses)	Significant change of Information technology changed the banking process (e.g., online services, telebanking, mobile banking services offered recently, etc.)
Relatively routine and independently run classes; significant autonomy allowed to faculty to run their classes	Changeability is often constantly restructuring organizations
Relatively stable and predictably sources of revenues mostly from student tuition, research grants, and community fund-raising	Downsizing
Relatively predictable allocation of budget to significantly prearranged activities (e.g., compensation for instructors of prearranged courses etc.)	Reengineering (Have to change over time in order to stay competitive with competitors) Constant assessment adjustment Focuses on reaching (TQM)
Uncertainty derived from Internal Operations: Task Analyzability	
Faculty join the institution with a significant academic and professional /research training	Employees join corporation with some knowledge, skills, and abilities, but not the knowledge needed to perform a particular job
Faculty need continuous professional training and develop; and yet they are mostly self-motivated and self-administered independently from the institutional leadership	New operations and technology introduced, get complicated and training needs of all staff when procedure and technology is introduced
Relatively routine course offerings semester to semester with occasional change of curriculum	While some tasks are routine (e.g., tellers), other tasks are complex (e.g., meeting the changing and complex lending regulations)
Well-established procedure for curriculum change	Policies and procedures change regularly
More routine and structured internal tasks and operations predictable in terms of process	Less predictable potentially dynamic internal tasks and operations expected in terms of process, though continually attempting to offer structure to employees.

Today's managers need a thorough comprehension of leadership and all the dynamics that shape its success. One of the most important dynamics of any organization is leadership. Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, and Sassenberg (2015) defined leadership as shaped by the behavior of the leader and one's ability to influence others. Through the development of a theoretical framework, I was able to highlight the area under focus for this study. Additionally, the theoretical framework did help me determine major differences between administrative and change-oriented leadership styles. There are numerous key differences between leadership in corporations and higher educational institutions. In terms of the internal operations, higher educational leadership has a proper structure. There is a hierarchy and a set of principles, concepts, and ideas that never change. The structure includes various levels with different positions (Brennan (2012).

The internal operations within some organizations are assessed based on total quality management (TQM). TQM is a management improvement process that is inclusive of all members of the organization and does not rely solely on top-down decision-making (Daft, 2012). Based on internal operations, managers in higher education and managers in banking institutions have completely different leadership practices. However, the TQM model clarified the area under review and the major differences between change-oriented leadership in corporations and administrative leadership in higher education. Due to many bankers' focus on innovation and quality, corporations tend to follow change-oriented leadership practices. For the internal operation within corporations, the structure is constantly updated or restructured. Employees are constantly shuffled in order to remain competitive. For the reason of an

unstable environment, employees have to adapt to change and rapidly accept different roles as needed (Draft, 2012).

According to Draft (2012), a major negative change that organizations are dealing with is downsizing. Employees who fail to perform according to the needs of organizations will be downsized. In the education arena, competition is a secondary concept and downsizing is a last resort action, only enacted in emergency situations. In regards to placement, organizations in banks are constantly changing in order to progress within the global market and to make sure that one can surpass their competitors. Moreover, for this purpose, extensive changes are constantly taking place.

In the situation of higher education, the stakeholders affecting the performance of the institute are the students, the parents, and the agencies providing funds (Brennan (2012). Students affect higher educational institutions by either enrolling with an institution or simply entering directly into the job market (Brennan (2012). Moreover, higher education managers' poor performance can directly affect the performance of an institution (Brennan (2012). The parents of the students can affect the demographics of the students and the number of students enrolling within the educational institute (Brennan (2012). The external environment is predictable in the case of higher education, given that there are only certain factors that can affect the external environment (Table 2).

Table 2

External Environment of an Organization and Leadership Styles Between Higher Education and Banks

<i>Higher Education</i>	<i>Banking Industry</i>
	Uncertainty coming from External Environment
	Diversity of External Stakeholders
Primarily students or prospective students, their parents, community, and potential donors	All types of consumers who need banking services (e.g., individual households, employees of public and private companies, businesses large and small, etc.)
Relatively homogeneous and predictable demands	Diverse banking needs from individual household accounts to public and private businesses
	Uncertainty Coming from External Environment: Change of Stakeholder Demands
Relative predictable student demographics (i.e., 10- to 15-year projections are plausible)	Very unstable, changing over time, depending upon incoming revenue based on delivery of products and services
Relatively calculable demands of quality academic services from relatively invariable stakeholders	Continuously dynamic changes of regulatory and consumer demands from a large number of stakeholders
	Uncertainty derived from Internal Operations: Leadership Style
<i>Value-Driven-Administrative Leadership</i>	<i>Change-Oriented Leadership</i>
Well-established procedure for curriculum change	Policies and procedures change regularly
Support academic freedom	Recognizing changing stakeholders and their changing demands
Supporting learning, education and research	Disseminating the information from the changing environment and presenting a vision of change
Empowering faculty for professional development and continuous self-training	Influencing people to believe in the change
Sharing the academic values and mission with the faculty	Breaking the status quo and initiating the change
Value-driven administrative leaders provide continuous support to uphold the core values of unfading educational and scholarly needs	Change-oriented leaders press internal and external stakeholders to adapt and survive in the continually changing environment

For organizations endeavoring to retain stakeholders, institutions of higher learning are vital as there is immense competition (Draft, 2012). Furthermore, there are other corporations constantly needing suppliers and distributors (Draft, 2012). Once a particular supplier has been chosen, corporations ensure that this process is continued. However, the external environment is quite competitive for corporations, which increases the unpredictability.

Competition is strong in the case of corporations, given the large number of rivals, who all are competing to take over the market and to gain more customers. In regards to the leadership practices, there are certain differences between higher education and banks. According to Bush, Bell, and Middlewood (2010), in higher education the leadership process follows a certain set of practices and principles that have been in operation for years. The competition is intense; however, this competition is mostly from other institutions, which increases the need to adopt better practices to remain ahead of the competitors. However, based on the constant changes and the need for better practices, corporations constantly change leadership processes in order to ensure the organization remains ahead within the global environment (Kotter, 2012). Leaders are constantly creating a vision and seeking buy-in from employees in order to get them to change or to adopt better practices (Kotter, 2012). The goal for corporations is to ensure visions are carried out in order to remain ahead within the global market (Kotter 2012).

Rationale for the Study

Samson and Bevington (2012) acknowledged that the best practices in leading organizations include the principle of embracing change. As change is an issue subject to

choice, higher education and banks both share the need to establish an environment that makes accepting change easier. Leadership is a variable that shapes an organization's ability to readily adapt to change. At present, leadership plays a different role in each organization. Each entity has its own uniqueness and focuses on meeting the respective goals of the organization. The purpose of this study was to test whether leaders of banks are change oriented whereas leaders of higher educational institutions are administrative in their style. In doing so, the match of leadership styles that are practiced in higher education and banks was empirically tested. Notably, change is altering major practices around the world, which has caused business leaders to adopt a more change-oriented form of leadership (Northouse, 2015). However, higher education has continued to focus on administrative leadership in order to impart the knowledge and guidance required in such a diverse and changing environment (Kotter, 2012; Northouse, 2015). I sought to test whether leaders of banks are change oriented whereas leaders of higher educational institutions are administrative in their style.

Nature of the Study

The research method chosen for this study was quantitative comparative design. Through the quantitative research method, numerical data help obtain accurate information (Wells & Stage, 2015), in this case regarding the relationship between administrative leadership and higher education as well as change-oriented leadership and banks. A quantitative correctional research design was used, where the predictor variable included higher education and banks. The criterion variables included administrative leadership and change-oriented leadership. Higher education currently experiences

numerous efforts in order to ensure consistent practices are used, whereas banks strive to create global change on a consistent basis; change being an important factor within banks helps one to remain competitive. Change also ensures that the best products and services are provided to the customers. Hence, change-oriented leadership and administrative leadership were the two leadership styles researched within this study.

A quantitative research design was most appropriate for the study. Quantitative research designs are structured research investigations based on computational and statistical data. They involve a larger number of participants (Cozby & Bates, 2012). It is objective in nature and reproducible because of how the study is structured (Creswell, 2014). The most common types of quantitative research designs according to (Creswell 2014) are as follows: descriptive research designs, correlational research designs, and experimental research design. Descriptive research designs are used to provide systematic information about a phenomenon. Comparative research design is used to compare samples based on their relationship to the studied variables (Cohen et al, 2013). Experimental research design are based on the scientific method in order to establish the cause-effect relationship among variables (Cohen et al, 2013). When using experimental research designs, an independent variable is manipulated to determine the effects on the dependent variables (Cohen et al, 2013). In this study, comparative research design was used.

Definitions of Terms

The following definitions of terms help to clarify the study:

Administrative leadership: The process of planning, organizing, and controlling others (Kotter, 2012).

Change-oriented leadership: The process of establishing direction with a supported vision, aligning people, and motivating others (Kotter, 2012).

External environment: The elements that occur and affect the boundaries outside of an organization (Tucker, Heisler, & Janisse, 2013).

Internal operations: The factors taking place within the boundaries of the organization (Tucker et al. 2013).

Leadership style: A behavioral approach used in order to lead others (Kotter 2012)

Assumptions

The assumptions associated with any research was the expectations that might have taken place during the conducting of the study. It was assumed in this study that the participants did answer questions honestly. Also, it was assumed that the participants did take part within the study willingly.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this study was not limited to any particular organization or industry. The adaptation of shared leadership practices from both sectors was eventually needed to be implemented for the betterment of the overall environment. Managers from higher education institutions and banking corporations were selected and did share good leadership styles and practices that did lead to providing more innovation and opportunities for both sectors. This study was based on a comparison between two

different leadership styles in two different sectors, higher education and banks, which have different leadership styles. Organizations in both sectors face challenges that happen due to rapid changes in the environment. In order to adapt to these changes, researchers have argued that the difference between higher educational leadership and banks leadership should be researched in order to prepare for an uncertain global marketplace (Brennan, 2012; Caldwell et al., 2012; Carneiro, 2010; O'Loughlin, 2011).

The sample size for the quantitative study was composed of higher education faculty and banking employees. The determination of sample size is a common task for many organizational researchers (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Additionally, researchers use information gathered from the survey to generalize findings from a drawn sample back to a population. A Sample Size Calculator from the Creative Research Systems website (<http://www.surveysystem.com/sscalc.htm>) was used to determine the sample size for the population for the banking employees, $N = 1,200$, 95% confidence level, and an 8% confidence interval. This calculation resulted in a sample size of banking employees ($n = 100$). The aforementioned calculator was also used to determine the sample size for the total population of 1,200 higher education faculty and staff from the three higher education institutions employed in the study. The sample size for the population of higher education faculty and staff ($N = 1,200$, 95% confidence level, and an 8% confidence interval) was $n = 100$. Therefore, the sample for this study did consist of a total of at least 200 higher education faculty and staff as well as employees at a local banking institutions ($n = 200$). In the event that there had been fewer than the expected number of respondents

to the survey, I would have indicated the results only represent the opinions of the population sample and therefore were not generalized to the larger population.

The delimitations of a study are the boundaries and the limits of the study. Only administrative leadership within higher education and change-oriented leadership within banks were included in this study. All other styles and types of leadership within different business sectors were not included. The study was delimited geographically across the southeastern region of the United States and the findings were not applied to other regions.

Limitations of the Study

There were limitations of this study, the primary of which was that there were certain factors that were beyond my control as the researcher. The collection of data was dependent on the willingness of individuals to participate in the study. There was no control over the responses provided by the participants; therefore, the data collected depended on the honesty and integrity of the participants involved in the study within the structures of the data collection process.

Significance of this Study

Changing global trends requires extensive efforts on all fronts in order to accommodate changes. This study added to the body of literature on changes that have transformation in leadership by testing whether leaders of banks are change oriented whereas leaders of higher educational institutions are administrative in their style. Organizations are strongly affected by the changes taking place in the environment. In order to cope with those changes, organizations implement leadership styles that can

facilitate the organization in adopting changes. Therefore, in this research, the contingency theory that leaders of banks are change-oriented whereas leaders of higher educational institutions are administrative in their style was tested. This study was significant by identifying specific leadership styles banks and higher education institutions implement. Testing the theory did help leaders to properly react to the changes happening in the environments in which they operate.

Significance to Theory

This study was based on Kotter's (2012) theory of leading change in organizations. Rapidly changing environment can affect leadership in organizations (Kotter, 2012). However, it is still important to carefully evaluate the current trends before implementing any change in organizational leadership. Compared to banks, higher education is slow to adopt organizational change (Brennan, 2012). Because three of the four null hypotheses were rejected, this laid a foundation for researchers who would be interested in the topic to conduct further study to determine if causal relationships exist. This study compared the trend of change in higher education versus banks.

Significance to Practice

Changing leadership styles in organizations is much needed within the 21st century. Organizations need employees who understand change and the need to adapt to changes. This study was expected to contribute to the realm of higher education and banks to implement appropriate leadership styles.

Significance to Social Change

The primary significance of this study was to lay a foundation for researchers interested in the topic to conduct further study to determine if causal relationships exist. An additional significance of this study was its implications for social change. Based on this study, because a specific leadership is correlated to higher education and banks, leaders in two entities can develop their policies based on the leadership style that corresponds to their organization. This study contributes to social change by providing information regarding the leadership styles that higher education and banks are implementing.

Summary

Chapter 1 consisted of an overview and purpose of the study, the statement of the problem, research questions, methodology, significance, definitions, and limitations and delimitations of the study. Additionally, I highlighted the changing environment in higher education institutions and organizations in banks as a result of leadership practices. Higher education follows a more administrative leadership approach, while banks tends to follow a change-oriented leadership approach. Chapter 2 includes a detailed review of related literature.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This literature review highlighted a variety of topics and findings that touch upon the leadership styles in higher education institutions and corporate organizations. Grüber (2003) documented that employees in banks experience change frequently due to the organization attempting to stay ahead in the global market. To the contrary, higher education leaders do not deal with the uncertainty environment that corporate leaders (Nata, 2005). An effective leader will familiarize themselves with and adjust to changes taking place within the institution and/or organization that may have many implications for the survival of the organizations (Kotter, 2012).

The purpose of this quantitative study, therefore, was to test the contingency theory of leadership that leaders of banks are change-oriented whereas leaders of higher educational institutions are administrative in their style. A secondary purpose of this study was to compare administrative leadership and change-oriented leadership and establish the difference between both. There must be thorough knowledge of both aspects of leadership in order to determine how to accommodate leaders in both sectors with similar practices that can better enhance institutions and corporations.

In this chapter, I have discussed literature as it relates to the administrative leadership of higher education and change-oriented leadership in banks. In addition, the review addresses the factors that lead to environmental uncertainty and uncertainty from internal operations of the organizations. This chapter also includes discussion of the changing workplace environments and the implications for organizations and institutions. In the final section of this chapter, there is an overview of the lessons learned about

leadership for leaders to understand that most employees are resistant to change due to certain unfulfilled human needs (Kotter, 2012).

Literature Search Strategy

The purpose of this review of relevant literature was to synthesize the professional knowledge base concerning the current study. Specifically, the purpose this literature review was to highlight and discuss relevant literature related to the concepts specified within the previous chapter. Studies, articles, books, and journal studies have been included, which assisted in my understanding of the difference between change-oriented leadership in banks and administrative leadership in higher education.

A review of literature can be best defined as a synopsis of books, journals, and other scholarly writings that collectively relate to the current study (Wells & Stage, 2015). To contextualize this study, I examined literature that explored a summary of leadership theories as it relates to organizations in banks and higher education institutions. The key search terms used frequently were *leadership in higher education*, *leadership in banks organizations*, *variables that relate to uncertainty higher education and Banks organizations*, *trait theory*, *change leadership*, and *administrative leadership theories*. I utilized the student access to the Walden University Library to conduct searches for literature relevant to this study. I used the following databases to identify literature to add value to this specific study: Academic Search Premier, Chronicles of Higher Education Online, Education Resource Complete, and ERIC (EBSCO). In addition, I reviewed e-journals to retrieve literature relevant to leadership, which included *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *International Journal of Business and Management*,

Training and Development Journal, *Administrative Science Leadership Review*, and *the Quality Management Journal*. I read and analyzed books, current peer-reviewed literature, and other articles that added value to this study.

Theoretical Foundation

The framework for comparative analysis of organizations given by Perrow (1967) helped elaborate the change-oriented leadership theory. This model focused on conducting a comparative analysis amongst organizations. Perrow claimed that the structure of an organization often relies on the kind of task it performs. All routine tasks performed regularly indicate the specialization, hierarchy, formalization, and centralized power. Perrow claimed that in order to compare organizations, one of the most important implications was that a particular relationship present in one organization will not be present in another organization unless both organizations are similar with respect to the processes and technologies that they use. Perrow stated that there are four primary elements upon which an organization can be compared to another: the processes it uses, the structure within the organization, the conceptualization of an organization as an organization, and lastly the technology used within the organization. Perrow claimed that organizations cannot be compared unless both perform similar operations.

Lizardo (2009) and Blau (1965) documented the comparisons of organizations, focusing on the structure of the organization as the key differentiating element. Perrow (1967) focused on the production process used within the organization to develop an approach upon which two or more organizations can be compared. Leaders within these organizations are individuals who play vital roles at the time of making a better kind of

differentiation among the success as well as failure. According to Day and Sammons (2013), the concepts of leadership, administration, and management often overlap with each other and have been bestowed with different emphases over time and in varying contexts.

Leadership is regarded as of prime importance in raising standards and promoting improvement (Lussier & Achua, 2010). However, Yukl (1989) asserted there is a wide spectrum of definitions of leadership, which have little in common apart from the influence process. According to Firth (1976), leadership is considered crucial during economic, political, and social upheaval throughout a country. From 1968 onwards, leaders on all levels and within all kinds of organizations have been confronted by various conflicting demands and complex situations (Bleak & Fulmer, 2009). Being a guide to action, educators in the realm of higher education have depended on theoretical concepts and explanations of leadership in order to determine how one may need to deal with challenges. Beliefs regarding the phenomenon of leadership have been consistently altered throughout the years (Bleak & Fulmer, 2009).

Early studies on leadership focused on determining the traits of personality, intelligence, physique, and perception, which were deemed as essential characteristics associated with those individuals leading people (Nahavandi, 2012). Also, the characteristics can be used in order to distinguish amongst people and determine those who had the required traits in order to become leaders (Bleak & Fulmer, 2009). For years, researchers have committed to explore the relationships between leadership and certain characteristics and traits.

Although disappointed by the inability to link traits with leadership, philosophers began focusing on style of leadership (Bleak & Fulmar, 2009). In order to understand the concept of leadership and the various practices that have surfaced throughout the years, the following leadership theories is discussed: trait, behavioral, and contingency theories (Nahavandi, 2012).

This chapter explores the perspectives on leadership traits, theoretical foundation perspectives on leadership traits, trait theory of leadership, the big five factor model, behavioral theory of leadership, contingency theory of leadership, change-oriented leadership, administrative leadership in higher education, leadership in higher education, academic leadership, change-oriented leadership in banks, implications for higher education, and lessons about leadership from businesses

Perspectives on Leadership Traits

Leadership, in its most basic form, has existed from the beginning of humankind. Organizational leadership matters. In relation to educational leadership, Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, and Anderson (2010) indicated their research “has uncovered many fine-grained behaviors that are elements of being an effective leader and has pointed to the conditions that encourage or discourage these productive actions” (p. 282). However, Louis et al. concluded that all relationships and interactions with leaders regardless of limitations or restrictions placed upon it by administrative rules “are intertwined in a complex and changing environment” (p. 282). In essence, leaders matter, but leadership, organizations, and the environments in which they operate are complex.

Leadership programs contend that in spite of these complexities, leadership can be studied and leadership can be taught.

Trait Theory of Leadership

The earliest leadership theories have their foundation in Carlyle's "great man" theory, which hold that the best leaders are naturally born rather than made (Colbert, Judge, Choi, & Wang, 2012). This necessitates that leaders possess heritable traits that distinguish them from nonleaders (Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1948). The great man theory evolved into the trait theory (Colbert, Judge, Choi, & Wang, 2012). Following from this perspective, systemic trait theory research commenced in the 1930s with the driving questions being what traits held by effective leaders differentiated them from ineffective leaders (Colbert, Judge, Choi, & Wang, 2012). Many individual differences were examined as predictors of leader emergence and effectiveness (Colbert, Judge, Choi, & Wang, 2012). Trait theory offered no strong distinctions about whether leadership abilities are innate or acquired (Colbert, Judge, Choi, & Wang, 2012). The dominant part of trait theory of leadership literature, published between 1930 and 1950, was criticized as being futile due to lack of consistency in findings offering clear distinctions between leaders and nonleaders and, moreover, across situations (Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1948). In light of the psychometric capabilities of the time, operationalization and measurement issues contributed to the downfall (Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1948). Recent attempts to integrate the literature have categorized individual difference variables.

The trait theory coincides directly with the beginning of the Industrial Revolution in the early 1800s (Colbert, Judge, Choi, & Wang, 2012). During the period between the

late 1940s and early 1950s, it was no longer thought that personality characteristics defined leadership abilities and the trait theory became unpopular (Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1948). Relying on learned behavior, this theory held that leaders were a product of their upbringing and that personality characteristics defined effective or ineffective leadership (Carter et al., 2012). Researchers set out to identify characteristics of individuals destined to be a leader. Specific personality traits were identified that were believed to be consistent with effective leadership. They included having a nurturing behavior, high performance, and sharing (Carter et al., 2012; Lussier & Achua, 2010). Carter et al. (2012) supported that physical stature as a trait is an effective characteristic found to be influential on followers. For instance, in an investigation done by taking a sample of 12 leaders, it was seen that nine of the individuals were taller than their followers. In another study, it was seen that there were several personality factors found to be related in most, if not all, cases of the effective leadership (Carter et al., 2012).

Kessler (2013) reported that trait theory's central premise is that leadership emergence and effectiveness emanates from stable and consistent variations in how individuals behave, think, and feel. Additionally, the fundamental thesis of trait theory is that possession of certain traits allows individuals to ascend to leadership positions over the collective and to perform their roles well (Kessler 2013). Although conceptualizations of leadership have evolved, traits remain an enduring thread in the progression of leadership research (Kessler, 2013). Individual differences matter across many contexts and, in light of contingency theories, also within context (Kessler, 2013). In the realm of leader perception, traits form the basis by which one evaluates leader ability, which in

turn impacts how followers respond to leadership (Kessler, 2013). Traits or individuality of thought, feelings, and behavior, form the core of trait theory (Kessler, 2013). Relevant to leadership, personality and intelligence are the two most frequently studied traits (Kessler, 2013).

The Big Five Factor Model

According to Costa and McCrae (2013), the big five factor model was introduced in the 1930s, but with technological and statistical advances in the 1980s, it has become the indispensable framework of personality due to its explanatory strength. The big five consists of five distinct factors, including neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (Costa & McCrae, 2013). Neuroticism is related to negative affect, anxiety, and insecurity. On the other hand, extraversion thrives in outward social settings, especially those that generate positive responses and reactions. The ability to consider external input and think creatively is related to openness, which although closely related to the agreeableness model, is different in that it is not as definitive in the level of accommodation or trust (Costa & McCrae, 2013). The final model, conscientiousness, is one that is associated with recognition of achievement and integration of dependence. As a result of these five broad and inclusive categories, personality traits that once yielded only scattered and inconsequential findings in terms of leadership could be studied more systematically (Costa & McCrae, 2013). The results were that the combination of being extraverted, conscientious, and open while less neurotic was more akin to the emerging leader and their ability to be effective. Despite these strengths, some researchers have claimed more than five traits are necessary to

capture the full extent of personality traits described in the common lexicon.

Consequently, the HEXACO Personality Inventory has been developed, which includes an honesty-humility factor in addition to the big five for a total of six underlying dimensions of personality. Research using the HEXACO Personality Inventory has shown both agreeableness and extraversion to be associated with leadership to (Costa & McCrae, 2013). They tended to exhibit moderate effect size HEXACO and leadership (Costa & McCrae, 2013). The strengths of the big five framework is its utilization in organization and psychological research

Although the big five framework and HEXACO Personality Inventory examine personality and its relation to leadership in terms of multiple traits, charisma may be best understood as a combination of traits (Costa & McCrae, 2013). Charismatic leaders are unconventional visionaries who are willing to stand against the status quo in an effort to achieve change in their organization (Costa & McCrae, 2013). Additionally, charismatic leaders have excellent communication skills and know how to use emotion to make others feel competent while inspiring trust and hope. As a result, followers identify with charismatic leaders and go above and beyond what is necessary to assist the leader achieve stated goals and objectives (Costa & McCrae, 2013). Past research showed charismatic leadership was associated with the big five's extraversion, openness, and agreeableness traits. In terms of the HEXACO, charismatic leadership is associated with high levels of extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience, honesty-humility, and low levels of emotionality to (Costa & McCrae, 2013).

Gore and Widiger (2013) reported that while the majority of leadership research has taken place in North America and Western Europe, there has been a steady and increasing recognition that diversity in person and thought may contribute to leadership. To determine whether or not certain leadership traits were universal or culturally contingent, the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) Project examined cultural differences and/or similarities in leadership for over 60 countries around the world. Results of this project showed a universal belief that effective leaders possess charisma, integrity, and successful team-building skills (Gore & Widiger, 2013). In addition, universal impediments to effective leadership were managers who were loners, asocial, noncooperative, irritable, nonexplicit, egocentric, ruthless, and dictatorial. While these positive and negative leader attributes were considered to be universal, traits related to being self-centered and individualistic were viewed by some cultures to be positive and negative in others (Gore & Widiger, 2013).

Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, and Gardner (2011) reported that intelligence has long been identified as one of the most important traits in not only leadership but also job performance in general. Indeed, some of the earliest research in trait theory and leadership found that general cognitive intelligence was one of the only traits perceived to be possessed by all types of leaders and in all contexts. While more recent investigations continue to indicate intelligence is a strong predictor of leader emergence, intelligence is not as strongly associated with leadership effectiveness as other frameworks such as the big five of personality or models of specific intelligences. Research is starting to suggest there are limits to which traditional forms of intelligence

can explain leadership effectiveness. More recently, emotional and social intelligence (ESI) has been investigated as an explanation for leadership effectiveness when traditional views of intelligence fail. Indeed, leaders who show empathy and attempt to understand the emotions of others are consistently rated as more effective leaders. ESI comprises two components, emotional intelligence and social intelligence, and references one's ability to understand and utilize effectively not only their own emotions but those of others as well. As a result, ESI researchers feel that the best leaders are interested in promoting positive affect in followers. Related to emotional intelligence is the concept of cultural intelligence or CQ. Whereas ESI is mainly relegated to the domain of inter individual interactions, cultural intelligence deals with understanding the norms, traditions, and customs of a group. Those who have high levels of CQ are able to recognize shared beliefs, values, and attitudes of a group and are able to effectively apply this knowledge in order to achieve a goal (Chiaburu et al., 2011). The study further states that leaders with the drive to act in an independent way and who are self-assured are the ones who are successful at the time of achieving organizational objectives (Carter et al., 2012). Although with the span of time, there are so many theories which are claimed to be contradictory to the trait theory (Steyer, Geiser, & Fiege, 2012). In spite of so many supportive research material in the context, there are some factors still found to be neglected at the time of application of the particular theory.

- The first factor is that the trait theory of leadership actually ignores the situation of the leadership. For instance, the trait theory didn't take into

account the interaction which is held those who lead and those who follow (Steyer et al., 2012).

- The second factor is that by keeping the study by (Dereli, 2012) aside, the trait theorists usually ignore the relative importance of traits.
- The third factor is that possibly the research evidence is found to be inconsistent (Dereli, 2012).

According to Fleenor (2007), an earlier trait researcher focused on studying the characteristics of the leader, and instead of focusing on understanding and placing emphasis on prior known leaders, leadership was described as a single personality trait that could be specifically defined and grasped by anyone postured for the position of leader (Fleenor, 2007). A significant amount of leadership studies was focused on determining the difference between leaders and followers.

Trait researchers often developed a list of characteristics that are considered relevant and linked with leadership (Gardner, 1989). However, while creating such lists various characteristics and attributes were mixed up. The lists lacked various principles necessary for effective leadership. Today researchers on leadership continue to discuss the list of traits that are considered necessary for effective leadership. According to Wynn (2006), even though the trait theory was focused in its earliest studies on investigating leadership, based on the studies conducted between 1940 and 1960, the trait theory began losing its popularity as a premise for learning about leadership (Wynn, 2006). One major issue lay in the lack of agreement amongst researchers regarding the definitive traits that were responsible for differentiating between leaders. The only element that researchers

agreed upon was that ideal leaders are special and unique and leaders are born with all the leadership qualities (Bolden, 2004). Early criticism of trait theory held that it was more focused on the activity of leadership rather than relationships.

Until the 1980s, trait theory was largely discredited as a theory of leadership. Advances in personality assessment ultimately led to its resurgence. In the 1980s, several seminal studies emerged that directly challenged the evidence leading to the rejection of the trait theory. First, researchers statistically aggregated findings from many separate research studies investigating trait theory and found intelligence, masculinity, and dominance were three traits common among all leaders. They also concluded that much of the confusion surrounding leadership traits resulting from nonsignificant and inconsistent findings in the past might have occurred as a result of poorly defined personality constructs. For example, two different researchers approaching the same personality trait may actually define and measure the construct in very different ways. As a result, publications may refer to one specific personality trait and actually mean something entirely different. Second, researchers have noted the difference in merits between the more distinct and specific personality traits that were originally the emphasis of trait research and the higher order, broader personality categories they create.

Although specific personality traits may be more predictive in one instance, because they are more exact and relevant to the phenomenon of interest, broad personality traits may be easier to define and measure in some cases thanks to the big five personality framework. Recent research findings maintain positive relationships between leader emergence and effectiveness with extraversion, conscientiousness, openness,

charisma, and negative relationships with neuroticism. Charisma, in particular, seems to be associated with leadership emergence and effectiveness; however, this concept is riddled with issues of definition and measurement. As epic failures of leadership at the most important organizational levels became ever prevalent in the early part of the century, for example, Enron and American International Group (AIG), a burgeoning interest in destructive leadership and the traits composing it emerged. Leadership researchers began to examine the possibility that ineffective leadership was the result of dysfunctional or destructive traits rather than the lack of prototypical or effective ones. Eleven traits have been identified as those possessed by “dark” leaders, including excitable, skeptical, cautious, reserved, leisurely, arrogant, dutiful, diligent, imaginative, colorful, and mischievous. It is thought these traits result in a high probability of leader derailment since they make the leader more likely to blow up, show off, or conform when under pressure. Consequently, hiring managers may be well advised to select for candidates that do not possess dark traits. Although this is a sound piece of advice, conflicting and confusing findings regarding these dark traits underscore the difficulty in implementing it. Specifically, narcissism and assertiveness seem to be two traits which have both a “bright side” as well as a dark side.

Narcissism refers to the level of egoism; narcissism leads to abuse of power and rule breaking, but other work has shown that healthy levels of narcissism may be associated with positive leadership qualities, such as vision and creativity. Assertiveness describes the extent to which one proactively pursues self-interests, either by voice or action. Assertiveness, like narcissism, is a trait which has plagued leadership researchers.

Despite numerous studies attempting to pin down the role of assertiveness in leadership, this construct is surrounded by confusion. Too much assertiveness is associated with ineffective leadership and is characterized by displays of hostility and competitiveness. On the other hand, leaders who display too little assertiveness are marked as pushovers and are unable to reach goals. While one of the difficulties with the dark side is the challenge of understanding the role of certain dark traits in leadership, it has also been an opportunity for researchers to start examining traits in combinations rather than as sole determinants of effective leadership. Indeed, the value of assertiveness and narcissism cannot be described in terms of linear combinations. Rather, the impact of traits, both bright and dark, is best understood in terms of whole configurations or patterns where certain traits complement or detract from one another.

Behavioral Theory of Leadership

Trait theory's failure opened the door for the behavioral theory of leadership, which was offered in the early stages of World War II (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2012). One of the earliest behavioral theorists was Kurt Lewin, who is recognized as a leader in this research area (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939). Lewin carried out numerous studies seeking to understand the behaviors associated with leadership and different situations (Lewin et al., 1939). Based on the findings Lewin was able to conclude that behavior alone is not sufficient; instead the leadership style followed has a greater impact on leadership performance (Luthans, 1973). Born from the behavioral studies that occurred between the mid-1940s and mid-1950s was the University of Michigan Studies on

Leadership as well as The Ohio State Leadership Studies (Burmiester, 2003; Howarth & Rafferty, 2009; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2012; Lussier & Achua, 2010).

According to Penn (2010), the behavioral theory focused on understanding what an effective leader actually did as a leader. Penn determined that leadership is a trait that people are not born with, nor is there a common set of traits widely accepted which can be associated with leadership (Penn, 2010). One misconception associated with the behavior theory is the idea that outward behavior is enough in order to establish leadership. However, the one claim that can be made regarding leadership is the fact that leadership relies on the right behavior of the leaders. If a leader is to be deemed effective, it is necessary that his or her behavior easily change according to the requirements and the situations (Dana & Olson, 2007). The behavior theories of leadership depend on certain categories of behavior and leadership styles and kinds. One misconception associated with the behavior theory is the fact that outward behavior is enough in order to establish leadership. In the 1970s, the behavior theory was considered invalid (Yaverbaum & Sherman, 2008). However, the behavior theory is still considered as an important theory. The behavior theory of leadership evolved after the trait theory of leadership failed to explain the effectiveness of leadership (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2012).

This particular school of leadership concentrates on various different styles of leadership. This style is democratic, laissez-faire/alternatively, autocratic, task/production-oriented and also people/relationship-oriented (Kezar, 2009). A basic proposition indicates that only a person with highly complex behavior is a person who possesses the requisite variety of behavior needed (Ashby, 1952) in order to meet and

fulfill the paradoxical pressures inherent within an organization (Denison, Hooijberg, & Quinn, 1995). However, there is no certainty that an individual with behavioral complexity will be able to make the right decision regarding the type of behavior needed in certain situations. This behavior also does not enable a leader to consider wider repertoire of behaviors in order meet the competing demands within different organizations (Kerr, Murphy, & Stogdill, 1974). Leading researchers suggested that an idyllic style of leadership is the one that could promote a positive attitude from among followers (Kerr et al., 1974). In terms of behavior, it could be associated with the attitude of followers such as morale and satisfaction (Judge, Piccolo, & Llies, 2004).

There are differences between behavior leadership and trait theory, one of the primary being that behaviors can be learned while traits cannot. However, researchers of trait theory attempted to study the person to find a great individual who would have the natural characteristics necessary to become a good leader (Rumsey, 2013). Behavior, on the other hand, can be taught. Therefore, behavioral research focused on finding the most appropriate course of action that leaders should take (Judge et al., 2004).

In the 1970s, behavior theory was considered invalid (Yaverbaum & Sherman, 2008); essentially, behavior theory is still considered important. The behavior theory of leadership evolved after the trait theory of leadership failed to explain the effectiveness of leadership (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2012).

Contingency Theory of Leadership

The contingency theory is a product of behavior theory that states that there is no effective manner of leading an organization, making decisions, and leading an

organization except for the actions taken which are in return dependent on external and internal environments (Ven de Ven & Drazin, 1984). A contingent leader is one who is capable of devising an effective leadership style according to different situations (Daft, 2012). Furthermore, it can be stated that the contingency theory follows the assumption that there is no preferred way to perform certain tasks (Daft, 2012). However, the contingency theory suggests that the most effective organizations are likely to attract the most suitable leaders (Lester & Parnell, 2007). The common theme among leadership theory relates to the style of the leader and how it is necessary to deviate based on the demands of the prospective outcome. Furthermore, four theories associated with the contingency theory and the respective leadership style.

Hersey and Blanchard (1969) introduced the situational leadership model, which holds that leaders need to adjust their style of leadership according to the abilities and the preparedness of the employees (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). Associated with this theory are four styles: telling, selling, participating and delegating (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). These styles differ based on the ability of the employee and their confidence regarding the required work.

Vroom and Yetton (1973) provided the normative decision model. This model is usually established in the form of a decision tree that takes into account a number of probabilities regarding a certain task or issue apparent within the organization (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). The purpose of the model is to establish a pattern that suggests when it is appropriate for the leader to seek help from the employees compared to when the leader could make unilateral decisions (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). There are usually three

possible outcomes: the leader makes the decision on his or her own, the leader gathers and utilizes the input of the group and finally, the leader relies solely on the group to make the decision (Vroom & Yetton, 1973).

House (1971) suggested the path goal theory, which claims there are four main leadership styles present that can assist employees to attain success and improve the performance of the organization (House, 1971). These styles consist of directive, participative, supportive and achievement-oriented (House, 1971). The respective style depends on the personal characteristics of the employees, including the locus of control and other traits present in their current setting (House, 1971).

The contingency theory of leadership effectiveness put forth by Fiedler (1967) has an alternative concept of leadership. The model holds that those in position of leadership have a permanent leadership style (Fiedler, 1967). Therefore, it is the responsibility of the leader to determine the position that fits the respective style of leadership. Fiedler (1967), claimed that only two styles exist which may be held by a leader. They are either task oriented or relationship oriented. However, he doesn't need to change leadership style, only the mode of leadership assignment (Fiedler, 1967). Luthans (1973) claimed that the contingency theory could be considered as a unified management theory. Before the contingency theory was presented, all management theories proliferated; however, contingency theories were separate and competitive. For example, the process theory focused on looking after four major functions in practice; planning, organizing, controlling and directing. The operations research theory represented a quantitative style that gradually developed into a theory model dubbed management science. The human

relations theory grew into the organizational behavior theory and the system theory focused on the importance of interrelatedness and the interdependency of all major components within the organization. A contingent leader could use any of these theories as he or she considered necessary and fit for the respective situation. The contingency theory demands that a careful link is made between the (Foster, 2006). It also needs exactness in its conclusion of the respective changes that were considered effective for the organization in different situations (Foster, 2006).

Theories discussed above were included with the study because these are some of the major theories which have helped in understanding how the effective deal and interact with people, particularly in respect to leadership. After the traditional leadership theories, the researcher will look into more recent theories related to the area under study.

Change-Oriented Leadership

The change-oriented leader is one who is constantly interested in innovation, change, creativity and finding new ways of performing old tasks (Kotter, 2012). A change-oriented leader is automatically considered as a promoter and supporter of change and growth; under such leadership the organization is constantly identifying innovative practices and better processes in order to carry out activities (Kotter, 2012). Such leaders are risk takers and willing to take risks and make decisions that will be the most suitable for the organization (Bass & Bass, 2008).

As mentioned by Mohan (1993) leaders need to become obsessed with creating an environment that fosters constant innovation. Leaders should be forced to dissect their old corporate practices and establish radical new corporation based on a love for change.

For this to be possible, a leader must implement change-oriented leadership which focuses on constantly assessing changes and planning efforts in order to implement those changes efficiently (Kotter, 2012). Yukl (1989) further claimed that change-oriented leadership is meaningful in the present environment, as it focuses on creating a link with different outcomes and solutions that need to be considered while implementing any change. Any other form of leadership would not focus on constantly assessing the environment for uncertainties and taking the required measures in order to implement those changes.

For any organization to be successful, it must be able to manage effectively. Effective management includes the ability to lead and control others in the structured effort to reach designed goals and objectives. Understanding the theoretical concepts that guide management is an important quality to possess. This section will discuss with clarity the framework of theories that guide management. Jeanjean and Ramirez (2009) described two types of business management theories, inductive and deductive. The deductive style of management theory begins with a specific theory and then uses the process of investigation to reach a logical conclusion. Deduction is the exact opposite and begins with a broad idea and makes specific conclusions based on observations. Managers can use the result to assist them with in making appropriate decisions that guide business management. (Jeanjean & Ramirez, 2009).

Proposing a multi-theory business approach to management, Yi, Davey, and Eggleton (2011) pointed out that effective business management brings together agency theory, stakeholder theory and legitimacy theory. The signaling theory holds that

necessary information is communicated via signaling (Yi et al., 2011). The legitimacy theory suggests that organizational behavior is defined by the belief that relationships are proper, necessary and legitimate (Yi et al., 2011).

Baldrige (2012) also shared a category of management theory. Baldrige (2012) noted seven distinct types that link superior organizational practices. They include (a) leadership; (b) strategic planning; (c) customer focus; (d) measurement, analysis, and knowledge management; (e) workforce focus; (f) operation's focus, and (g) results. According to Baldrige (2012), leadership exemplifies a superior/subordinate relationship with the superior responsible for decision-making. Strategic planning encompasses the need for a structured idea or plan that when followed leads to success, while customer focus defines success from the standpoint of the consumer. Consumer satisfaction or dissatisfaction determines success or failure. Measurement analysis utilizes data to determine success. A workforce focus stresses management based on the qualifications and abilities of the workforce and relies on their input and skills for success. Operational focus is more specific to the logistics and policies of the organization.

Jeanjean and Ramirez (2009), Yi et al. (2011), Baker (2011), and Baldrige (2012) all postulated theories that put primary emphasis on leadership within a business organization, which was different from the concepts offered by Fullan (2012), whose primary emphasis was on institutional change. Fullan's approach to business management reflected that considered all stakeholders within an organization as the key to success. He suggests that a definitive understanding and communication of roles and responsibilities as the driver of effective management and key to achievement of goals and objectives.

Administrative Leadership in Higher Education

According to Bush et al. (2010), leadership at the executive level in higher education focuses on preserving the status quo and continuing the same practices followed throughout the years. Although, such practices might have been effective in the past (Bush et al., 2010). Presently there is a greater need to provide a more diverse and innovative form of leadership which can prepare future leaders (Nielsen, 2004). Changing the leadership practiced in higher education seems tedious, however; it is now a necessity that cannot be dismissed.

Leadership in Higher Education

Higher Education leadership has often sought from the corporate sector, tools and resources necessary to mirror the success of effective business management. Driven by a need and desire to promote effective economic and organizational practices, higher education has sought to apply corporate best practices to its operational functions (Muijs, 2011). Emulating effective leadership can lead to major improvements in organizational operations (Obiwuru, Okwu, Akpa, & Nwankwere, 2011). Transformational theory has risen as focus from researchers over the years (Wang & Berger, 2010). Transformational leadership works when leaders and followers utilize their skills and experiences to motivate each other to great works. In higher education, similar experiences of transformational leadership that build on quality and performance provide have resulted in organizational effectiveness. (Siddique et al., 2011). Studies on higher education leadership Bryman and Lilley (2009) concluded that poor leadership tends to be more prevalent in higher education than superior leadership Several factors identified relative

to this finding are laissez faire attitudes in relation to leadership in academia and a lack of trust and integrity. Effective higher education leadership is defined as more than academic development, knowledge, and strategic planning. (Ong, 2012).

Trow (1985), through his analysis of the exercise of leadership by college and university presidents in American universities, concluded that their method of leadership is based on the primary need to ensure that appropriate initiatives are implemented that positively impact the vision and actions pursued by the organization and define its character. In that regard, he observed that higher education leadership can be characterized along four dimensions; managerial, academic, political and symbolic forms of leadership (Trow, 1985).

Trow (1985), provided a description of the four dimensions noting that administrative leadership refers to the ability to manage the organization's support activities through the effective exercise of staff selection, budget management, goal setting and other infrastructure concerns. The academic dimension describes administrative leadership that recognizes excellence in teaching, learning, and research and innovatively strengthens academic structures (Trow, 1985). Political leadership is reflected through the resolution of internal and external demands and pressures, while advancing the organization's goals and symbolic leadership is evidenced through the leader's ability to project and embody the character, goals and values of the institution (Trow, 1985).

Trow (1985) observed that leaders need not excel at all times in all the dimensions and suggested that various situations require the application of the appropriate frame(s).

He contended that individual leader attributes and styles help determine the degree to which a leader's talents and energies contribute to their diverse responsibilities that vary from issues of academic life to organizational, community, and governance goals (Trow, 1985). However, Trow (1985) was also careful to point out the intricacies of the organizational characteristics at the postsecondary level and its impact on its leaders. Trow (1985) contended that regardless of the leadership role in the institutional hierarchy, whatever the emphasis or however a leader defines the character and purpose and fills the dimensions of the leadership role, leader effectiveness requires "the legal authority and resources to act, to choose among alternatives, even to create alternatives, in short, to exercise discretion. Without that discretion and the authority and resources behind it, [the leader] cannot exercise leadership, whatever his personal qualities" (p. 144).

Academic Leadership

In the 1980s, leadership became an increasingly important issue covered in numerous scholarly articles highlighting the importance of leading well. Within the academy, researchers began examining how leadership was being and ought to be studied, as well as best leadership practices. Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989) outlined the prevailing leadership theories and their application to higher education administration. The authors focused their efforts on examining leadership at the executive level and on providing insight for faculty in higher education. This work contributed to the higher education community, assisting those who desired to understand leadership in that context; it also became a frequently cited source for those studying leadership

(Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006). Birnbaum (1992), conducted a qualitative study examined the dynamics of the college presidency with regard to the culture of the university, perceptions of faculty, and relationships with various other stakeholders in the leadership process. Birnbaum's findings offer insight into how college and university administration could attain success by improving personal leadership as well as university culture.

In the same vein of studying higher education as Birnbaum (1992), Bergquist (1992) examined what he considered to be four different cultures, collegial, managerial, developmental, and negotiating or advocacy) that exist simultaneously within the college or university context. Bergquist's work was the result of a nearly 40-year study examining the cultural climates on college and university campuses (Bergquist, 1992). According to Bergquist, university leaders who understood these four cultures; experienced improved communication, leadership, decision-making, and collaborative endeavors between university stakeholders. In 2008, Bergquist and Pawlak expanded these four cultures of the academy by adding two additional cultures: the virtual and tangible cultures. Administrative Leaders who understood the cultures of their campuses were aware of how to keep their institutions healthy and hone their personal leadership skills, thereby ostensibly creating environments for integrity to be practiced (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008).

Padilla (2005) outlined the lives of six successful administrative leaders, and found 10 commonalities in the administrators' adolescence, and 11 themes from their adult leadership careers, one of which was the avoidance of behavior that could lead to 49

leadership pitfalls. Padilla concluded his work with suggestions for the development of future collegiate leaders and approaches to foster the health of the nation's higher educational institutions and universities. Bensimon et al. (1989) and Kezar et al. (2006) examined newer paradigms that researchers were using to understand leadership, and research was conducted through the positivist paradigm. Kezar et al. also examined leadership studies through the social constructivist, critical, and postmodern paradigms. These philosophies have expanded interest in looking at administrative leadership only as rudimentary comprehension of leadership to a more nuanced and complex understanding of the way values, emotions, collaboration, organizational cultures, and ethics affect leadership (Kezar et al., 2006). Kezar et al. examined how these newer theories can be beneficial by providing greater insight to academic leadership and the college environment, thus providing a place to study leadership qualities like integrity.

Change-Oriented Leadership in Banks

Change-oriented leadership is the name given to certainly one of the most flexible styles of leadership. It is able to be categorized as a neo-charismatic theory which has made the context enriched more than ever before. This theory is original, it was coined as a phrase by Johansson and Siverbo (2009). The theory was implemented as an agent to help discern those leaders driven by power and influence versus those emphasizing cooperation and inclusion (Hartog & Koopman, 2011).

Overall, many researchers have described change agents as being accommodating, power hungry, masterful, talented and attentive to others. Such leaders are able to inspire, motivate, and promote trust and loyalty; moreover, followers are able

to alter their organizational views and held beliefs as a result. When leaders can promote these feelings among their subordinates that leaders are considered, they are looked upon as human beings, thereby helping organizations recognize problems from a different standpoint (Johansson & Siverbo, 2009). Kotter (1997) acknowledged that the people of his era were not prepared, and are reluctant when it comes to something unfamiliar. The business environment years ago were also not running as fast as today, and this is one of the most important reasons that the challenges of today are entirely different. Depicting all of these changes in the correct time is the true essence of change-oriented leadership. This is somehow lacking in the context of higher education (Militello, Friend, Hurley, & Mead, 2011).

A study by Rouzbahani, Mahdian, Garshasbi, and Goudarzi (2012) was conducted to explore the relationship between change-agents and the qualitative effect of their leadership on service delivery goals. This was done by taking 268 employees of Lorestan Keshavarzi Bank Branches as a part of the research (Rouzbahani et al., 2012). Out of these, 96 persons were selected as the final sample. The results of the research were positive in showing that there was indeed a relationship between being a change-agent and quality of services delivered. (Nielsen, 2004). The conclusions of the research indicate that variables for relating to the change-oriented leadership are associated with individual consideration that is along with the correlation coefficient of 69%, idealized correlation which is with the correlation coefficient of 62% (Nielsen, 2004). The inspirational motivation has a correlation coefficient of 58%. Along with the intellectual stimulation which is having a correlation coefficient of 56%, and in the end idealized

behaviors which are with a correlation coefficient of 51% are the ones that have a substantial level of influence on the overall qualitative level of services that are provided. In addition to that, another alternative finding is that the research has found out that there had been no amount of significance in the association between change-oriented management and the qualitative level of work and even more there is actually a negative relationship between hands-off interventions and service quality (Rouzbahani et al., 2012).

Implications for Higher Education

According to Cuban (2004), traditional concepts concerning education can no longer be considered as adequate in order to prepare a workforce for the dynamic world. Presently, information we can point to information, technologies and globalization as the driving forces behind this era. They have been responsible for altering people's lifestyles, changing the way people think and work. In order to cope with all the changes taking place there is a need to educate the human mind to keep up with the changes that occur constantly (Department of Education, 1998).

According to Fusch (1997), there is evidence that several factors are responsible for influencing widespread changes in the workplaces. The three predominant changes are the rapid advancements in new technologies within the workplace, new organizational structures, and new organizational management methods. Although these advances are considered formidable, additionally the advances enhanced the operations, the innovation has caused modernization to nations (Peterson, 2002). Within the changing environment that focuses on continuous improvement and teamwork requires employees that possess

cognitive, technical, communication and interpersonal knowledge and skills. Formal and informal education and training are increasingly becoming intrinsic features of ongoing technological and organizations change in various organizations. Additionally, workplaces are constantly looking for new knowledge and skills in their entry level employees (Peterson, 2002).

Based on the ever-changing conditions in the workforce, workers must constantly upgrade their skills and frame of thought. Constant restructuring and shifts in traditions are constantly bringing forward modifications to the working life of the employees. Furthermore, this makes it all the more necessary to promote continual learning in order to continue enjoying work and secondly remain competitive. Constructivist theorists (Anderson, Greeno, Reder, & Simon, 2000; Applefield, Huber, & Moallem, 2001) argue that learning is a most effective and useful tool when it occurs in the same arena where it is primarily utilized (Kihlstrom, 2013). Similarly many occupations require a set of skills that are also incorporated as part of learning process in most university degrees. These learning processes, which are becoming a part of the life-long education process driven by current economies and the increase in globalization are in return contributing to the restructuring of the educational system (Johanson, 2004).

However, at this stage understanding the place of higher education and its role in the modernization of all that is taking place is somewhat unknown. Whereas, certain higher education institutions support workplace learning, Nata (2005) states that a significant number are not taking the necessary and opportunistic measures to respond to economic and technological changes taking place. The overarching considerations of

current changes in the workplace, the requirements of the workforce and the type of knowledge the graduates are expected to possess, there are many changes being made to promote a more balanced concept of learning including various different and new kinds of skills and knowledge. A certain method that can assure achieving a thoroughly well balanced educational structure is by providing skill attainment via work-based experiences. According to Reeve and Gallacher (2000) the changes that need to be made with the educational system can be considered as a wider set of reforms that will help to meet the needs of workers, who are limited by time constraints, yet need to learn skills relevant to the present workplace. The process of work-based learning is indeed different than tradition higher education teaching; however, it will include more translation of applicable knowledge to the workplace, which will be a huge advantage for the students (Boud & Solomon, 2001). Certain changes to the learning process have already started including integration of vocational learning and flexibility of course scheduling. According to Billet (2002) whose results concluded certain skill attainment programs include workplace practices and experiential learning in order to help learners contextualize and understand vocational skills. Organizations depend on such changes in higher education in order to facilitate student learning about the changes taking place in the organization and how to adapt to those changes.

Developing leaders is considered to be an extremely difficult task that the higher education institutions within the U. S. presently face. Moreover, there are a number of issues that people working in academic leadership face. Many have reported a constant tension between teaching and leadership (Fullan, 2014). Many times the academic leaders

are forced to make choices between their responsibility towards the people and the disciple obligations. In regards to the people responsibilities, it is completely out of the control of the leaders. Given that these leaders are often overburdened with a number of responsibilities, their focus is on the present assignments and ensuring that the work is performed on time. This reduces their concentration over other important elements that need to be given importance. The leaders tend to overlook key areas like strategy, innovation and preparing students for the future. Without focusing on such areas the purpose of an academic leader is of no purpose.

The academic leaders have to see themselves as the change agents; academic leaders are responsible for bringing the change that is required to institutions of higher learning (Abbas & Asghar, 2010). However, based on the present hierarchy system still followed in practically every institution the number one problem is the fact that these leaders hardly see acknowledge bringing the change. To the contrary, leaders continue to be identified as the change targets who are responsible for bringing the changes requested by the senior management. It has also been seen that many leaders believe that being a part of the senior management would provide the autonomy required in order to bring the changes that can help in developing future leaders. Another major issue on behalf of the administrative leadership is the fact that academic leaders tend to overlook the fact that change is far too diverse; organizations are constantly transforming in order to survive in the market. Those organizations that want to excel in the corporate world need to make changes constantly. Organizations might consider adopting better practices, making better products, and provide better customer services (Aaron & Nelson 2008).

There are a number of areas upon which present leaders need to focus on. There are far too many changes required in every aspect, which makes it difficult for the leaders to perform accordingly, hence the element of change should not be kept to the senior management; instead, the administrators must be given the right to make the required variations deemed critical in dealing with the constant changes taking place. The purpose of administrative leadership has been fuddled which has caused the senior management to overlook the fact that these leaders are present to establish an example on how the students are required to perform (Cooper & Finkelstein, 2012).

Lessons about Leadership from Businesses

Even though the concept of changing leadership practices still appears to be relatively new significant research has been carried out related to leadership development (Burke & Cooper, 2006). According to Carneiro (2010), leadership development is far less complicated in the business world, because the leaders are in positions to bring about changes and are hesitant about leading the business. Whereas, for a student participating in a leadership curriculum, the same confidence cannot be expected. Generally, leaders in any business are usually rewarded for their work, and provided with recognition; hence students in higher education can benefit greatly from the experiences of the leaders present within the corporate world. Through the example of corporate leaders, students can learn how to make certain changes that will help in dealing with different situations (Marturano & Gosling, 2008). The following elements can be considered in regards to leadership and how it can be implemented in the workplace and in other organizations.

According to Truss, Kelliher, and Mankin (2012), aligning people with the organization, practices and processes can be considered a difficult task. However, by aligning the employees with the organization it is more likely that the organization will be able to integrate the people with the business. Walsh (2011) further claims that by aligning all employees towards the attainment of common group goals the leader is creating an appropriate environment for employees to develop relationships with fellow employees. Once the employees are used to working in teams and interacting with others in the case of changes making those changes will become easier. According to Tosti and Jackson (2001) by aligning the employees with the organizational goal it is easy to specify a certain goal that needs to be met and also create a vision for the employees to follow. During the aligning process is the leader will communicate with the employees, and willingly accept change and also to encourage others to accept the changes taking place.

Summary and Conclusions

The literature offered in Chapter 2 focused on the foundation for this study. Literature is critical for the success of any study and for that matter a considerable amount of effort has been made on behalf of the researcher to formulate a study which could help in providing readers with beneficial material. Much literature has been conducted regarding the leadership styles in higher education and that of banks. However, there is a lack of literature that compares and contrasts both leadership styles in both entities. This study therefore, did fill the gap in the literature by testing a

contingency theory that leaders of banks are change-oriented whereas leaders of higher educational institutions are administrative in their style.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this comparative study was to test whether leaders of banks are change oriented whereas leaders of higher educational institutions are administrative in their style. In Chapter 1, the background to the problem and the research questions guiding this study were introduced. In Chapter 2, literature specifically in the area of administrative leadership and change-oriented leadership styles was reviewed. The primary research methodology is presented in the Chapter 3. In Chapter 3, the research design and rationale, research questions, and hypotheses are included. The methodology also includes information on the population and sample, instrumentation, reliability and validity, data collection procedures, data analysis procedures, and ethical considerations.

Research Design and Rationale

The study involved a quantitative research method. To compare the leadership styles between banks and higher education institutions, comparative research design and two samples *t* test were used. Wells and Stage (2015) asserted that using quantitative research techniques permits researchers to recognize the depth of inquiry of specific topics that frequently begin with an indistinct sense of certainty. Hence, the research methodology chosen for this study was quantitative design. One of the quantitative research methods was comparative research design, where the researcher seeks to compare a group or groups by using variables. Because this study was intended to test a theory that leaders of banks are change oriented whereas leaders of higher educational institutions are administrative in their style, a comparative research design was utilized. The study focused on four hypotheses and variables such as higher education institutions,

banks, internal operations, external environments, administrative leadership, and change-oriented leadership. The findings of this study laid a foundation to understand whether uncertainty in higher education is equal or greater to the uncertainty in corporations; if administrators in higher education face similar levels of uncertainty as corporations, then leaders in institutions might consider incorporating practices and strategies from change-oriented leadership in order to cope with the uncertainties. The results obtained from this study addressed the hypotheses, tentative propositions surrounding the relationship of the theoretical constructs, derived from the research questions.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions guided the current study:

Research Question 1: To what degree does a difference in the uncertainty of internal operations exist between higher education and banks?

Research Question 2: To what degree does a difference in the uncertainty of external environment exist between higher education institutions and banks?

Research Question 3: Is the administrative leadership reported more by higher education faculty and staff than by employees of banks?

Research Question 4: Is the change-oriented leadership reported more by higher education faculty and staff than by employees of banks?

Hypothesis 1

H1₀: Uncertainty of internal operations in higher education is greater than and equal to uncertainty in banks.

$H1_a$: Uncertainty of internal operations in higher education is less than uncertainty of internal operations in banks.

Hypothesis 2

$H2_0$: Uncertainty coming from external environment in higher education is greater than and equal to the uncertainty in banks.

$H2_a$: Uncertainty coming from external environment in higher education is less than the uncertainty of external environment in banks.

Hypothesis 3

$H3_0$: Administrative leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is less than or equal to by bank employees.

$H3_a$: Administrative leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is greater than by bank employees.

Hypothesis 4

$H4_0$: Change-oriented leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is greater than or equal to by bank employees.

$H4_a$: Change-oriented leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is less than by bank employees.

In this methodology chapter, after discussing the research design and rationale that preceded the hypotheses, the population, instrumentation, validity and reliability, ethical considerations and procedures, data collection, and data analysis will be explored.

Population

The total population for this study consisted of a total of about 2,400 employees, who included higher education faculty and staff members and bank employees. The survey was sent to 1,200 higher education faculty and staff members from three institutions located in the southeastern region of the United States. The other 1,200 surveys were sent to banking employees. SurveyMonkey was used to send the surveys to the potential participants. The employees e-mail addresses were used to send the survey link to the potential participants. The three banks from which the data were collected were also located in the southeastern region of the United States.

The determination of sample size is a common task for many organizational researchers (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Additionally, researchers utilize information gathered from the survey to generalize findings from a drawn sample back to a population. One advantage of a quantitative research design is the utilization of smaller groups of people to make inferences about larger groups (Bryman & Bell, 2015). A Sample Size Calculator from the Creative Research Systems website (<http://www.surveysystem.com/sscalc.htm>) was used to determine the sample size for the population for the banking employees, $N = 1,200$, with 95% confidence level and an 8% confidence interval. This calculation resulted in a sample size of $n = 100$. The aforementioned calculator was also used to determine the sample size for the total population of 1,200 higher education faculty and staff from the three higher education institutions employed in the study. The sample size for the population of higher education faculty and staff was $N = 1,200$, with 95% confidence level and an 8% confidence

interval ($n = 100$). Therefore, the sample for this study consisted of a total of at least 200 higher education faculty and staff as well as employees at local banking institutions ($n = 200$). In the event that there had been fewer than 200 respondents to the survey, I would have indicated the results only represented the opinions of the population sample and therefore would not be generalized to the larger population.

Instrumentation

An instrument is a primary component of a quantitative analysis study (Harwell, 2011). Quantitative methods are frequently distinguished as assuming that there is a single truth that exists, independent of human perception (Wells & Stage, 2015). Marsden and Wright (2010) defined a survey as a tool used for collecting data from participants regarding their perspective regarding a certain matter. Data for this study were collected through the use of a survey instrument I designed as the researcher. Administrative Change and Leadership Survey (ACLS) was designed for the purpose of collecting data for this study (Appendix A). For the validity of the instrument, a pilot test was conducted. In addition, Cronbach's alpha was used to test the instrument's reliability.

The ACLS includes 39 items and consists of two parts. The first part (Part I) of the instrument includes the demographics regarding the participants. Participants responded to three statements relevant to entity of work, gender, and age. Part II of the ACLS involves three sections. The first section assesses the uncertainty derived from internal operations. This part of the instrument consists of 10 items that examine task variability and analyzability. Moreover, in this study, the variable of internal operations

involves the capability of individuals understanding the inside aspects of the organization.

Section 2 of Part II assesses the uncertainty coming from external environment. This section involves nine Likert-type scale items to identify the factors that contribute to external environment, to include diversity of external stakeholders and the changes of stakeholders' demands. The third section of Part II includes 20 Likert-type scale statements related to administrative leadership and change-oriented leadership in an effort of maintaining stability and adapting the new driven market. The 5-point Likert-type scale of *Strongly Agree* (5), *Somewhat Agree* (4), *Somewhat Disagree* (3), *Disagree* (2), and *Strongly Disagree* (1) measures the tasks employees in their company/organization perform.

While 10 items (Items 20 to 29) of ACLS were used to acquire data to determine if administrative leadership is correlated to higher education, 10 items (Items 30 to 39) of ACLS were used to collect data to determine if change-oriented leadership is used in banks. Item 1 of the demographic items of ACLS was used to identify whether participants were employed in banking or higher education.

Validity and Reliability

Throughout the process of research, a researcher has to make certain that the validity and reliability of an instrument is properly handled. According to Huck (2008), "Whereas the best one-word synonym for reliability is consistency, the core essence of validity is captured nicely by the word accuracy" (p. 88). Therefore, in this study, the

threats to validity and reliability were carefully identified. Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of ACLS.

Threats to Validity

Research studies, specifically dissertations, can experience a variety of potential threats to validity (Wells & Stage, 2015). Wells and Stage (2015) noted that validity can be affected by external factors that result in alterations to outcomes derived from cause-and-effect relationships. Such relationships are driven by tangible variables such as participant characteristics, geography, and time/space. Similarly, Wells and Stage also acknowledged that valid or invalid outcomes can be generalized based on the treatment of variables across a variety of settings. The threats to external validity in this study were the different environments of higher education and banks in which the instrument was administered. A challenge particularly related to this study was taking all the data from the quantitative sources from two different environments and aligning the analysis in a consistent and understandable manner. Another threat to validity is the limited amount of control the researcher has over the environments (Wells & Stage, 2015). Due to the reactive effects of the experimental arrangements, it was difficult for me to generalize the results of the study to a broader population.

A threat that may have occurred was the interaction effects of selection biases and the experimental variables in this study. I selected participants who were currently in the field, to include at least 200 individuals from higher educational institutions and banking institutions located within the southern region of the United States. There was a possibility that some participants may have particular biases. For example, the survey

was submitted to participants online, which may have affected the response rate, because only participants who were comfortable using the Internet and computers completed the instrumentation for the study. Therefore, I was not able to allow participants the option to complete a hardcopy of the instrument to suit their comfort level. To prevent construct or statistical conclusion validity, expert opinions were solicited to establish content and face validity. Content validity refers to the appropriateness of the items with respect to the content being measured. Also, face validity refers to the appearance that the test measured what it claimed to measure (Wells & Stage, 2015).

Ethical Considerations and Procedures

According to Miller, Birch, Mauthner, and Jessop (2012), the ethical nature of research is necessary in order to prevent any undue influence of outcomes that can be gained by impure data. While conducting this study, I adhered to the procedures established by Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) to ensure the ethical protection and anonymity of all participants in the study. Singleton and Straits (2010) acknowledged that there are four issues that researchers must be aware of that if overlooked can produce incorrect outcomes or jeopardize research participants. They are informed consent, participant risk or harm, deception, and privacy. There are no known outstanding ethical considerations in this study, and there are no issues with confidentiality and anonymity. The study was voluntary, and I did inform the participants that there were no known risks for participating in the study. Notably, the participants of this study were not considered at-risk groups. Therefore, the study did not pose a psychological or emotional harm to the participants.

Data Collection

The following procedures were used to conduct this study. Data collection is an essential element of a quantitative study (Wells & Stage, 2015). The IRB approval number for this study is 05-02-17-0251615. Upon approval from the Walden University IRB, the data collection for this study began immediately. Additionally, before the IRB application was filed, permission letters were obtained from the data collection sites. After the IRB approval, the survey link that contained a consent form was sent to the potential participants. Obtaining the permission was essential because the survey was sent to the participants through their e-mail addresses that were only accessed through the human resources departments. A cross-sectional survey (ACLS) I had developed was submitted to participants electronically. Stewart and Brent (2011) acknowledged that utilizing an online survey tool to collect data allows the researcher to present data in a short period of time and is less expensive (Stewart & Brent, 2011). In addition, Stewart and Brent acknowledged that using a host site such as SurveyMonkey to deliver surveys to participants can be useful for research. Therefore, it was determined that I would use SurveyMonkey as the method for data collection. Also, I selected SurveyMonkey as the data collection method to meet the IRB requirement for data security.

Accessing the survey required a computer and access to the Internet. A letter seeking voluntary permission to participate in the study was sent via e-mail to the participants at both the financial institutions and higher education institutions. In the letter, participants were informed of their rights, the purpose of the study, and that by completing the survey participants were giving me authorization to utilize the results in

the study. Additionally, the letter did contain a link to the ACLS where the participant was informed that their participation was voluntary. Most importantly, I maintained participant anonymity. The data for this study were gathered within a 2-week period. The length of time consisted of a 30-minute maximum time rate.

Data Analysis

The hypotheses were tested in order to determine if higher education use administrative leadership and banks use change-oriented leadership. The key variables for this study included the criterion variables which were administrative leadership and the change-oriented leadership. The predictor variables included higher education and banks. The data was entered into SPSS before the analysis was conducted. SPSS Version 21.0 was also used for the analysis.

Descriptive statistics was used in this study to identify and provide frequency distribution of the variables (Wells & Stage, 2015). Specifically, descriptive statistical analysis, including frequencies and percentages, was used to determine the demographic variables of the respondents of the ACLS. Importantly, Pearson's coefficients was used to determine if relationship existed between higher education and administrative leadership as well as banks and change-oriented leadership.

Summary

This quantitative comparative study was designed to evaluate the leadership practices in higher education and banks. The aim of this research was to gain insight toward the differences in the leadership styles in higher education institutions and organizations in banks. Moreover, the purpose behind conducting this study was to

compare administrative leadership and change-oriented leadership and establish the difference between both. It is necessary to understand both aspects of leadership in order to determine how to accommodate leaders in both sectors with similar practices that can better enhance institutions and corporations. Within this chapter details about the research methodology that was utilized upon IRB approval to carry out the purpose of the study. Research methodology plays a pivotal role in the success of any study and thus, a great deal of importance was laid over the selection and implementation of the most suitable research methodology.

Chapter 4: Results

In Chapter 1, the background of the study, the problem statement, the purpose of the study, the hypotheses, the conceptual framework of the study, the nature of the study, the definitions, the scope of the study, the limitations, the assumptions, and the potential significance of the study in order to advance knowledge in the area of the discipline were introduced. Chapter 2 explored the available literature on administrative leadership, change-oriented leadership, behavioral theory of leadership, and contingency theory of leadership. Chapter 3 dealt with research design and rationale, the methodology, and threats to validity. The purpose of this quantitative comparative study was to test a contingency theory of leadership that leaders of banks are change oriented whereas leaders of higher educational institutions are administrative in their style by answering the key research question: Are leaders of banks more change-oriented and less administrative in their leadership styles than those of higher-educational institutions? This chapter also explored the data collection that included actual response rate, demographic and descriptive statistics, external validity, as well as the result of the study.

Data Collection

Recruitment and Response

Three banks and three higher educational institutions were identified as target organizations to participate in this research study. The three banks and three higher educational institutions are located in the southeastern region of the United States. Moreover, the chief executive officer (CEO) of each bank as well as the college president of each higher educational institutions were asked if their respective organization would

like to participate in the study. Each leader of the respective entities responded with a letter of agreement to serve as a data collection site for this research study. An invitation for participation letter that included the survey link and the electronic consent form was sent to the potential employee participants in the banks and the higher education institutions. After a week, a follow-up e-mail was sent to participants to expedite the data collection and increase the number of the respondents as planned. The survey site was closed after receiving 203 responses. The data were exported from SurveyMonkey to SPSS and checked for completeness.

Sample Characteristics

The demographic and descriptive statistics of the participants are indicated in Table 3. Out of 203 participants, 102 participants identified as bank employees and 101 participants identified as university employees. The demographic sample of the 102 participants of the bank employees comprised 42.2% male, 54.9% female, and 2.9% unidentified. Out of the 101 participants of the university employees, 36.6% were male and 63.9% were female.

Out of 102 participants who worked at banks, 26.5% were of age 19 to 36 years, 44.1% of age 37 to 48, 28.4% of age 49 or older, and 1% unknown. The 101 participants of university employees comprised 19.8% of age 19 to 36, 33.7% of age 37 to 48, 45.5% of age 49 or older, and 1% unknown.

Table 3

Sample Characteristics: Frequencies

by Gender	Bank	%	University	%	total
Male	43	42.2%	37	36.6%	80
Female	56	54.9%	64	63.4%	120
Unidentified	3	2.9%	0	0.0%	2
Total	102	100.0%	101	100.0%	203

by Age	Bank	%	University	%	total
Age 19-36	27	26.5%	20	19.8%	47
Age 37-48	45	44.1%	34	33.7%	79
Age 49 or older	29	28.4%	46	45.5%	75
Unknown	1	1.0%	1	1.0%	2
Total	102	100.0%	101	100.0%	203

Study Results**Descriptive Statistics of Key Variables**

The means and standard deviations of the task variability, task analyzability, diversity of external stakeholders, change of stakeholder demands, administrative leadership, and change-oriented leadership of the participants are shown in Table 4. Shown in the table are the means for task variability ($M = 3.52$, $SD = 1.02$), task analyzability ($M = 3.53$, $SD = 1.09$), diversity of external stakeholders ($M = 3.59$, $SD = 1.20$), change of stakeholders ($M = 3.73$, $SD = 1.13$), administrative leadership ($M = 3.73$, $SD = 1.13$), and change-oriented leadership ($M = 3.69$, $SD = 1.12$).

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics of the Key Variables

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std Dev	# of Items	Cronbach- α
TaskVar	193	1	5	3.52	1.02	5	.77
TaskAnal	192	1	5	3.53	1.09	5	.83
Divers	191	1	5	3.59	1.20	5	.91
Change	191	1	5	3.73	1.13	4	.86
AdLead	191	1	5	3.73	1.13	10	.94
ChLead	192	1	5	3.69	1.12	10	.94

Note. TaskVar refers to Task Variability; TaskAna refers to Task Analyzability; Divers refers to Diversity; Change refers to Changes in Demand; AdLead refers to Administrative Leadership; ChLead refers to Change-Oriented Leadership

No unusual means or variations were detected; all of these multiitem scales demonstrated relatively high internal consistency (Cronbach alphas: from .77 for Task Variability to .94 for Change Leadership), and standard deviations were within expected ranges from 1.02 to 1.20.

Correlations

Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to determine if relationships existed between key variables. The correlations between key variables are described in Table 5. Task variability was positively correlated with diversity of external stakeholders ($r = .76$, $p < .05$), task analyzability ($r = .77$, $p < .05$), change of stakeholder demand ($r = .75$, $p < .05$), administrative leadership ($r = .75$, $p < .05$), and change-oriented leadership ($r = .68$, $p < .05$). Task analyzability was positively correlated with diversity of external stakeholders ($r = .78$, $p < .05$), change of stakeholder demand ($r = .77$, $p < .05$), administrative leadership ($r = .76$, $p < .05$), and change-oriented leadership ($r = .67$, $p < .05$). Diversity of external stakeholders was positively correlated with change of

stakeholder demand ($r = .84, p < .05$), administrative leadership ($r = .80, p < .05$), and change-oriented leadership ($r = .75, p < .05$). Change of stakeholder demand was positively correlated with administrative leadership ($r = .82, p < .05$), and change-oriented leadership ($r = .76, p < .05$). Administrative leadership was positively correlated with change-oriented leadership ($r = .87, p < .05$)

Table 5

Correlation Coefficients Among Key Variables

	Ent	Sex	Age	TaskVar	TaskAnal	Divers	Change	AdL	ChLead
Ent	1	.10	.15*	-.23**	-.21**	-.28**	-.22**	-.24**	-.27**
Sex		1	-.02	.09	.03	.07	.13	.11	.09
Age			1	.08	.03	-.02	.05	-.04	-.06
TaskVar				1	.77**	.76**	.74**	.75**	.68**
TaskAnal					1	.78**	.77**	.76**	.69**
Divers						1	.84**	.80**	.75**
Change							1	.82**	.76**
AdLead								1	.87**
ChLead									1

Note. Ent refers to entity, Sex refers to gender; Age refers to age of participant; TaskVar refers to Task Variability; TaskAna refers to Task Analyzability; Divers refers to Diversity; Change refers to Changes in Demand; AdLead refers to Administrative Leadership; ChLead refers to Change-Oriented Leadership

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

No unusual correlations were found in the bi-variate correlation matrix as shown on Table 5 and as discussed with selected correlations. Most of them were as expected with moderate amount of association. Further reliability tests were conducted and reported in the next section.

Measures: Reliability and Validity

Reliability test of measures is shown in Table 6. Cronbach's alpha is used to test the internal consistency of the instrument. This part of the instrument consists of 10 items that examine task variability and analyzability. Moreover, in this study, the variable of internal operations involves the capability of individuals understanding the inside aspects of the organization.

Table 6

Reliability Test of the Measures

Scale: Task-Variety

	Mean	Std dev	tv1	tv2	tv3	tv4	tv5	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
tv1	3.73	1.40	1.00	0.50	0.26	0.45	0.46	0.71
tv2	3.44	1.45		1.00	0.22	0.63	0.45	0.69
tv3	3.44	1.51			1.00	0.35	0.16	0.80
tv4	3.62	1.40				1.00	0.52	0.67
tv5	3.32	1.39					1.00	0.72

Note: tv1 to tv5 are task-variety question 1 to 5.

Scale: Task-Analyzability

	Mean	Std dev	ta1	ta2	ta3	ta4	ta5	
ta1	3.49	1.41	1.00	0.70	0.59	0.65	0.36	0.75
ta2	3.46	1.46		1.00	0.45	0.66	0.28	0.78
ta3	3.73	1.36			1.00	0.48	0.43	0.79
ta4	3.43	1.41				1.00	0.32	0.78
ta5	3.50	1.45					1.00	0.85

Note: ta1 to ta5 are task-analyzability question 1 to 5.

Scale: Diversity

	Mean	Std dev	dv1	dv2	dv3	dv4	dv5	
dv1	3.61	1.45	1.00	0.61	0.63	0.59	0.65	0.89
dv2	3.55	1.45		1.00	0.68	0.73	0.63	0.88
dv3	3.43	1.48			1.00	0.77	0.64	0.88
dv4	3.53	1.43				1.00	0.62	0.88
dv5	3.88	1.37					1.00	0.89

Note: dv1 to dv5 are diversity Item 1 to 5.

Scale: Changes

	Mean	Std dev	ch1	ch2	ch3	ch4	
ch1	3.91	1.34	1.00	0.49	0.48	0.41	0.90
ch2	3.72	1.37		1.00	0.80	0.74	0.78
ch3	3.77	1.32			1.00	0.73	0.78
ch4	3.56	1.36				1.00	0.81

Note: ch1 to ch4 are Change Item 1 to 4.

Scale: Administrative Leadership

	Mean	Std dev	al1	al2	al3	al4	al5	al6	al7	al8	al9	al10	
al1	3.85	1.38	1.0	.66	.74	.60	.78	.64	.69	.41	.57	.66	.93
al2	3.82	1.42		1.0	.68	.80	.64	.64	.62	.39	.41	.68	.93
al3	3.81	1.38			1.0	.71	.83	.73	.83	.39	.56	.66	.93
al4	3.75	1.41				1.0	.72	.71	.68	.32	.36	.76	.93
al5	3.83	1.45					1.0	.78	.81	.40	.55	.62	.93
al6	3.76	1.43						1.0	.75	.52	.54	.68	.93
al7	3.81	1.37							1.0	.45	.61	.65	.93
al8	3.38	1.59								1.0	.71	.43	.95
al9	3.53	1.43									1.0	.40	.94
al10	3.71	1.41										1.0	.93

Scale: Change-oriented Leadership

	Mean	Std dev	cl1	cl2	cl3	cl4	cl5	cl6	cl7	cl8	cl9	cl10	
cl1	3.73	1.37	1.0	.25	.32	.25	.33	.25	.29	.29	.27	.20	.96
cl2	3.83	1.38		1.0	.76	.71	.73	.75	.70	.74	.66	.67	.94
cl3	3.74	1.38			1.0	.71	.83	.73	.80	.67	.78	.62	.93
cl4	3.66	1.45				1.0	.75	.71	.63	.69	.66	.69	.94
cl5	3.74	1.37					1.0	.78	.76	.66	.77	.65	.93
cl6	3.62	1.47						1.0	.74	.74	.67	.70	.93
cl7	3.60	1.47							1.0	.71	.78	.62	.93
cl8	3.79	1.41								1.0	.66	.67	.94
cl9	3.54	1.48									1.0	.75	.94
cl10	3.51	1.46										1.0	.94

Note: 'al1' to 'al10' are Administrative Leadership Items 1 to 10; cl1 to cl10 are Change-oriented Leadership Items 1 to 10;

Task Variability

Task variability refers to the amount of variations of the tasks employees carry out internally in order to produce the output or services that their clients desire to receive. The more various the extent of jobs and tasks employees should take care, the more complex they are, and thereby the harder it is to train employees and the more difficulty it is to assess and predict the performance or quality of the ultimate products or services.

In order to measure the task variability, participants were asked questions relative to the number of different tasks needed to be completed by staff. A sample question was asked, such as: A large number of different tasks need to be completed by staff. Another question consisted of this: Tasks I did a year ago are completely different from the tasks I currently do. Another questions asked participants to rank the following statement: There are numerous tasks I still need to complete even when I leave work at the end of the day. Additionally, participants were asked two more questions relative to task variability. The Cronbach's alpha when each of these measuring items was deleted from the scale for tv1, tv2, tv3, tv4 and tv5 were .71, .69, .80, .67, and .72 respectively. These hypothetical Cronbach alphas suggested no need to drop any of these measuring items and thereby all these five items were used in measuring this construct of task variability.

Task Analyzability

Task analyzability refers to the extent to which tasks performed by employees produce the output or services that their clients desire to receive. The more complex the tasks, the more employees need appropriate skills, experience, and training to perform the tasks. In the task analyzability, participants were asked questions relative to the complexity of task performed by staff. They were a total of five questions. Some questions in the task analyzability section included rating the following:

- There are many regulatory issues to review and master for each task.
- I must attend several trainings each year to understand how to complete difficult and new daily task.
- Daily tasks I perform require significant experience.

The Cronbach's alpha when each of these measuring items was deleted from the scale for ta1, ta2, ta3, ta4, ta5 were .75, .78, .79, .78, and .85 respectively. These hypothetical Cronbach alphas suggested no need to drop any of these measuring items and thereby all these five items were used in measuring this construct of task analyzability.

Diversity of External Stakeholders

Diversity of external stakeholders refers to the number of stakeholders outside an organization. The more the employees interact with the external stakeholders, the better they understand the changes happening in the external environment. In the diversity of external stakeholders, participants were asked questions relative to the number of stakeholders outside an organization. There were five questions relative to the diversity of external stakeholders. Three of the questions consisted of the following: I must interact with a diverse population of people outside of the organization, I must interact with the same external individuals (stakeholders) on a daily basis, and I must listen to the same demands on a daily basis from external stakeholders. The Cronbach's alpha when each of these measuring items was deleted from the scale for dv1, dv2, dv3, dv4, dv5 were .89, .88, .88, .88, and .89 respectively. These hypothetical Cronbach alphas suggested no need to drop any of these measuring items and thereby all these five items were used in measuring this construct of diversity of external stakeholders.

Changes of Stakeholders' Demands

Change of stakeholder demand refers to the extent to which the demands of the external stakeholders change. It is assumed that the employees who create a new service immediately to rectify conflicting demands from external stakeholders are more change

oriented than the employees who do not create a new service immediately to rectify conflicting demands from external stakeholders. In the changes of stakeholders' demands, participants were asked questions relative to the changes of demands from stakeholders. There were four questions relative to the changes from stakeholders' demands. Three of the questions consisted of the following: I am concerned about how changes made by policy makers or regulators will affect me, I react immediately to conflicting demands from external stakeholders, and I respond and rectify conflicting demands from external stakeholders. The Cronbach's alpha when each of these measuring items was deleted from the scale for ch1, ch2, ch3, ch4 were .90, .78, .78, and .81 respectively. These hypothetical Cronbach alphas suggested no need to drop any of these measuring items and thereby all these four items were used in measuring this construct of 'change of stakeholders demand.

Administrative Leadership

Administrative leadership refers to the extent to which the CEOs of banks and presidents of the universities establish or uphold the core values of an organization and care about the routines of services. The more the leaders care about the routines of the services they provide, the more administrative their leadership styles. In the administrative leadership, participants were asked questions about the establishment and upholding core values of their respective organizations. Participants were asked to rate the extent to which their college or bank president upheld some of the following questions: Establishes and communicates the mission to the organization, exhibits values that are consistent with other institutions, and comprehends values of his/her followers

and makes effort to support them. The Cronbach's alpha when each of these measuring items was deleted from the scale for al1, al2, al3, al4, al5, al6, al7, al8, al9, al10 were .93, .93, .93, .93, .93, .93, .95, .94, and .93 respectively. These hypothetical Cronbach alphas suggested no need to drop any of these measuring items and thereby all these 10 items were used in measuring this construct of administrative leadership.

Change-Oriented Leadership

Change-oriented leadership in this study refers to the extent to which CEOs of banks and presidents of universities react to the changes and consider changes in their planning, marketing, and services. It is assumed that leaders who share with people why changes occurs, make a case for urgent changes prior to implementation, have taskforces that address changes, empower people to change, examine evaluation for further improvement, and award employees who demonstrate excellence in their services are more change-oriented leaders. In the change-oriented leadership, participants were asked questions relative to the extent their college or bank president influences the nature of change within an organization. There were 10 questions in the change-oriented leadership section that consisted of the following: Does your leader have a 5-year plan for operations, shares with people why change has occurred, and makes a case for urgent changes prior to implementation. The Cronbach's alpha when each of these measuring items was deleted from the scale for cl1, cl2, cl3, cl4, cl4, cl6, cl7, cl8, cl9, and cl10 were .96, .94, .93, .94, .93, .93, .93, .94, .94, and .94 respectively. These hypothetical Cronbach alphas suggested no need to drop any of these measuring items and thereby all these 10 items were used in measuring this construct of change-oriented leadership.

Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis 1. H_{10} : Uncertainty of internal operations in higher education is greater than and equal to uncertainty in banks.

H_{1a} : Uncertainty of internal operations in higher education is less than uncertainty of internal operations in banks.

A t test is conducted to examine the mean differences between universities and banks on uncertainty of internal operations. The t tests of equality of mean between bank and university are shown in Table 7. While the task variability in banks is ($M = 3.8$, $SD = 1.06$), the task variability in universities is ($M = 3.3$, $SD = 0.93$), $t(190) = 3.3$, $p < .05$, $d = .48$. While the task analyzability in banks is ($M = 3.8$, $SD = 1.11$), the task analyzability in universities is ($M = 3.30$, $SD = 1.02$), $t(189) = 3.0$, $p < .05$, $d = .46$. Therefore, the t test confirmed the hypothesis that uncertainty of internal operations in higher education is less than uncertainty of internal operations in banks.

Table 7

t Test of Equality of Mean Between Banks and Universities

		N	Mean	Std. Dev	Mean-diff	t	df	Sig
TaskVar	Bank	94	3.8	1.06	.48	3.32	190	.001
	University	98	3.3	0.93				
TaskAnal	Bank	93	3.8	1.11	.46	2.95	189	.004
	University	98	3.30	1.02				
Divers	Bank	93	3.9	1.20	.67	4.02	188	.000
	University	97	3.25	1.10				
Change	Bank	93	4.0	1.18	.50	3.11	188	.002
	University	97	3.5	1.03				
AdLead	Bank	93	4.0	1.12	.53	3.35	188	.001
	University	97	3.5	1.08				
ChLead	Bank	93	4.0	1.06	.60	3.81	189	.000
	University	98	3.4	1.11				

Note. TaskVar refers to Task-Variety; TaskAnal refers to Task Analyzability; Divers refers to Diversity; Change refers to Change in Demands, AdLead refers to Administrative Leadership; ChLead refers to Change-Oriented Leadership

Hypothesis 2. H_{20} : Uncertainty coming from external environment in higher education is greater than and equal to the uncertainty in banks.

H_{2a} : Uncertainty coming from external environment in higher education is less than the uncertainty of external environment in banks.

A *t* test is conducted to examine the mean differences between universities and banks on uncertainty of external environment. The *t* tests of equality of mean between bank and university are shown in Table 7. While the diversity of external stakeholders in banks is ($M = 3.9$, $SD = 1.20$), the diversity of external stakeholders in universities ($M =$

3.25, $SD = 1.10$), $t(188) = 4.0$, $p < .05$, $d = .67$. While the change of stakeholder demands in banks is ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.18$), the change of stakeholder demands in universities is ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.03$), $t(188) = 3.11$, $p < .05$, $d = .50$. Therefore, the t tests confirmed the hypothesis that uncertainty coming from external environment in higher education is less than the uncertainty of external environment in banks.

Hypothesis 3. $H3_0$: Administrative leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is less than or equal to by bank employees.

$H3_a$: Administrative leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is greater than by bank employees.

A t test is conducted to examine the mean differences between universities and banks on administrative leadership. The t tests of equality of mean between bank and university are shown in Table 7. While the mean score for administrative leadership in banks is ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.12$), the mean score for administrative leadership in universities is ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.08$), $t(188) = 3.35$, $p < .05$, $d = .53$. Therefore, the t test did not confirm the hypothesis that administrative leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is greater than by bank employees. The null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Hypothesis 4. $H4_0$: Change-oriented leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is greater than or equal to by bank employees.

$H4_a$: Change-oriented leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is less than by bank employees.

A *t* test is conducted to examine the mean differences between universities and banks on change-oriented leadership. The *t* tests of equality of mean between bank and university are shown in Table 7. While the mean score for change-oriented leadership in banks is ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.06$), the mean score for change-oriented leadership in universities is ($M = 3.4$, $SD = 1.1$), $t(189) = 3.81$, $p < .05$, $d = .60$. Therefore, the *t* test confirmed the hypothesis that change-oriented leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is less than by bank employees (Table 7).

Table 8

T-Test of Equality of Mean between Banks and Universities

		N	Mean	Std. Dev	Mean-diff	t	df	Sig
TaskVar	Bank	94	3.8	1.06	.48	3.32	190	.001
	University	98	3.3	0.93				
TaskAnal	Bank	93	3.8	1.11	.46	2.95	189	.004
	University	98	3.30	1.02				
Divers	Bank	93	3.9	1.20	.67	4.02	188	.000
	University	97	3.25	1.10				
Change	Bank	93	4.0	1.18	.50	3.11	188	.002
	University	97	3.5	1.03				
AdLead	Bank	93	4.0	1.12	.53	3.35	188	.001
	University	97	3.5	1.08				
ChLead	Bank	93	4.0	1.06	.60	3.81	189	.000
	University	98	3.4	1.11				

Note: TaskVar refers to Task-Variety; TaskAnal refers to Task Analyziabilit;, Divers refers to Diversity; Change refers to Change in Demands, AdLead refers to Administrative Leadership; ChLead refers to Change-Oriented Leadership

Additional Analyses

Bank participants consistently showed higher ratings of all key variables than university participants, and it can be speculated any possible 'response pattern' different between the two entities. In order to control this potentially consistent response pattern between the two, all key variables were recalculated using the mean and standard deviation of banks and universities. Scores are standardized within each entity (i.e., banks and universities) among the key variables (four internal and external environments; and two leadership styles).

The standardized scores of the key variables are shown in Table 8. While the standardized score for task variability, task analyzability, diversity of external stakeholders, change of stakeholders demand, administrative leadership, change-oriented leadership of banks is -0.11, -0.11, 0.09, 0.15, 0.01, -0.01 respectively, the standard score for task variability, task analyzability, diversity of external stakeholders, change of stakeholders demand, administrative leadership, change-oriented leadership of universities is -0.03, -0.01, -0.06, 0.13, 0.02, -0.02 respectively.

Table 9

Standardized Scores of the Key Variables

	Bank	Univ
Task Variety	-.11	-.03
Task Analyzability	-.11	-.01
Diversity	.09	-.06
Changes of Demands	.15	.13
Administrative Leadership	.01	.02
Change-Oriented Leadership	-.01	-.02

Note. Scores are standardized within each entity (i.e., bank and university) among the key variables (four internal and external environments; and two leadership styles).

This standardized mean scores confirmed Hypothesis 2, uncertainty coming from external environment in higher education is less than the uncertainty of external environment in banks, Hypothesis 3, administrative leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is greater than by bank employees, and Hypothesis 4, change-oriented leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is less than by bank employees. However, Hypothesis 1, uncertainty of internal operations in higher education is less than uncertainty of internal operations in banks, is not supported by the standardized mean score (Figure 1).

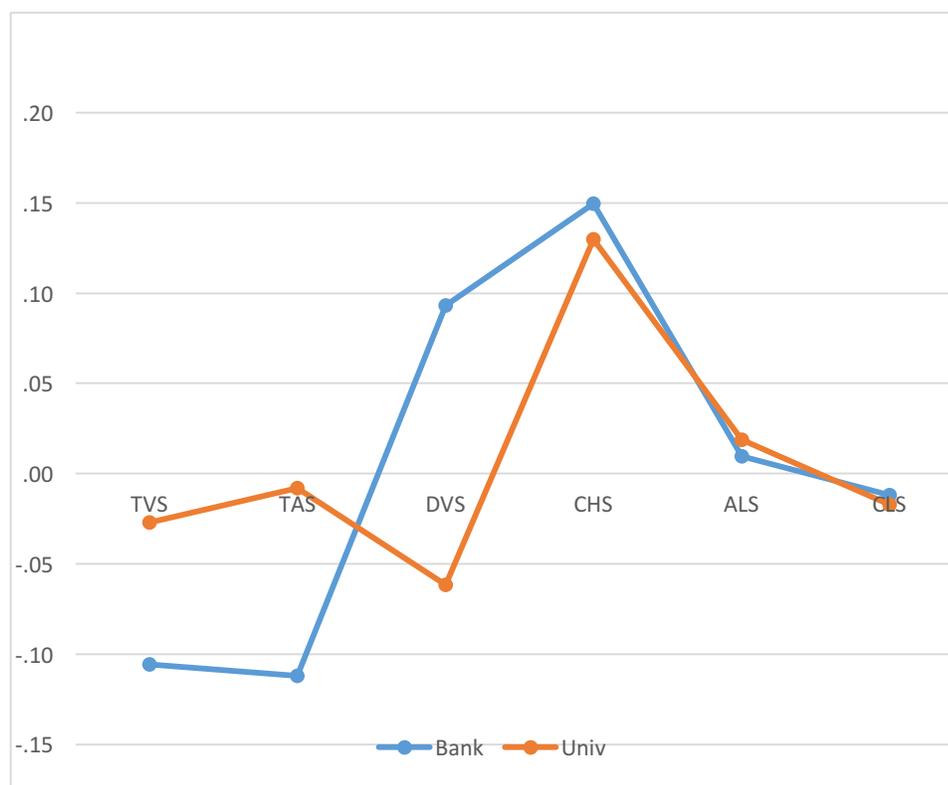


Figure 1. Comparison of internal operations and environment between banks and universities. The graph that starts higher from left (in red color, $tv_s = -.03$) is for the universities and the graph that starts lower from left (in red color, $tv_s = -.11$) is for the banks. This presents failure to reject the null hypothesis for the first research question. For the rest of the main variables, the graph indicated that the scores for the banks (in blue color) were higher than the score for the universities (in red color). This confirmed that Hypothesis 2, Hypothesis 3, and Hypothesis 4 are true.

Summary

The purpose of this quantitative comparative study was to test a contingency theory of leadership that leaders of banks are change-oriented whereas leaders of higher educational institutions are administrative in their style. Four hypotheses were examined by using independent samples *t* test. While one of the four null hypotheses failed to be rejected, three of the hypotheses were confirmed by the *t* test. Therefore, the result for this study indicated: (a) uncertainty of internal operations in higher education is less than

uncertainty of internal operations in banks, (b) uncertainty coming from external environment in higher education is less than the uncertainty of external environment in banks, and (c) change-oriented leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is less than by bank employees. However, the *t*-test result did not confirm the hypothesis that administrative leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is greater than by bank employees.

Chapter 5 explored the discussion, recommendations, and conclusions based on the available literature and the contextual framework of the study. Interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study, recommendations, implications, and conclusions was discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this quantitative comparative study was to test a contingency theory of leadership that leaders of banks are change-oriented whereas leaders of higher educational institutions are administrative in their style. In this chapter, interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study, recommendations, implications, and conclusions are discussed. The following four hypotheses guided this study:

H1_a: Uncertainty of internal operations in higher education is less than uncertainty of internal operations in banks.

H2_a: Uncertainty coming from external environment in higher education is less than the uncertainty of external environment in banks.

H3_a: Administrative leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is greater than by bank employees.

H4_a: Change-oriented leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is less than by bank employees.

While one of the four hypotheses was not confirmed by the *t*-test results, three of the hypotheses were confirmed by the two samples *t* test: (a) uncertainty of internal operations in higher education is less than uncertainty of internal operations in banks, (b) uncertainty coming from external environment in higher education is less than the uncertainty of external environment in banks, and (c) change-oriented leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is less than by bank employees. The null hypothesis failed to be rejected for Hypothesis 3 as the *t*-test result did not confirm that

administrative leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is greater than by bank employees.

Interpretation of Findings

According to Perrow (1967), in order to compare organizations, one of the most important implications was that a particular relationship present in one organization will not be present in another organization unless both organizations are similar with respect to the processes and technologies that they use. In the literature review, higher education institutions were compared with banks regarding uncertainty of internal operations. Bleak and Fulmer (2009) found that, being a guide to action, educators in the realm of higher education have depended on theoretical concepts and explanations of leadership in order to determine how one may need to deal with challenges. It was found that beliefs regarding the phenomenon of leadership have been consistently altered throughout the years.

The trend in the current study was that while higher education faculty and staff tended to focus on routine or similar tasks, bank employees constantly changed their processes. For banks, changeability is often constantly restructuring organization. Hence, higher education institutions are relatively stable, having predictable allocation of budgets and significantly prearranged activities whereas banks are downsizing and reengineering by constant assessment adjustment. The findings of this study confirmed the hypothesis that uncertainty of internal operations in higher education was less than uncertainty of internal operations in banks. Employees of higher education were more

certain about the internal operations of their institutions because higher education was more routine oriented than banks.

To some extent, the task analyzability implemented was different in banks than in higher education. Higher education institutions recruit their faculty based on the intensive academic professional/research training, whereas employees join banks with some knowledge, skills, and abilities, but not the knowledge needed to perform a particular job. Hence, while employees of higher education institutions are mostly self-motivated and self-administered independently from the institutional leadership, banks offer professional development seminars and trainings to all staff when new procedures and technology is introduced. In higher education, relatively routine courses were offered with occasional change of curriculum and well-established procedure for curriculum change, whereas in banks, while some tasks are routine, other tasks are complex with the regular change of policy and procedure. Therefore, the available literature confirmed uncertainty of internal operations in higher education institutions is less than uncertainty of internal operations in banks.

Based on TQM by Daft (2012), it is evident that managers in higher education and managers in banking institutions have completely different leadership practices. Due to many bankers' focus on innovation and quality, corporations tend to follow change-oriented leadership practices. The findings of this study were supported by the current literature that change-oriented leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff was less than by bank employees. Banks are more open to adopt changes and uncertainties coming from external environment than higher education institutions. Thus,

uncertainty coming from external environment in higher education is less than the uncertainty of external environment in banks. The population type higher education institutions serve is more student related whereas banks serve all types of consumers. While higher education institutions have relatively homogenous demands, banks have diverse banking needs, from individual household accounts to public and private businesses.

Limitations of the Study

There were three primary limitations of this study. These certain key factors were beyond my control as the researcher. The collection of data was dependent on the willingness of individuals to participate in the study. There were three banks and three higher educational institutions that participated in the study. Out of the 2,400 invitations sent to the offices of human resources at each respective entity, only 203 participants decided to participate. There was no control over the responses provided by the participant. Participants were allowed the opportunity to answer each question based on their own judgement. Therefore, the data collected were dependent on the honesty and integrity of the participants involved in the study within the structures of the data collection process. As a result, participants in this study answered each question to the best of their knowledge.

Time constraint was another limitation I faced. As this study was conducted by a full-time employee, ample time was needed to design the research, collect data, and analyze them. If ample time was allowed, there could have been the opportunity to obtain data from a larger sample.

The final limitation to this study was resources. As a student researcher, I depended on very limited personal resources to conduct this study. Conducting a research on this topic needs more available resources. A larger sample could be included if it was not for limited resources.

Recommendations

The data for this study were collected from banks and universities located in the southeastern part of the United States. Therefore this study is limited to the targeted sample (203/2,400 participants). Future researchers can conduct similar studies by increasing the sample size.

While conducting this study, I was a full-time employee. As a full-time employee, I faced constraints of time to complete the work this study required on time. It is recommended that researchers need more allocated research time to devote and complete their research on the scheduled time.

This study was a comparative study between two entities that help drive the economic development in the United States. As a comparative study, equal resources were needed from the two entities. However, compared to banks, higher education institutions have lots of scholarly literature. Searching and finding the available research on the topic of leadership in the banking arena was not as easy as in universities. It is recommended that banks need to produce more scholarly research documents. In that regard, it is recommended that banks need to collaborate with higher education institutions as higher education institutions have more academic scholars who can produce scholarly works.

Much research has been conducted on leadership in higher education, yet no study has compared the leadership style of higher education to leadership style of banks. It is recommended that future researchers may need to conduct research on this topic that includes the cause-and-effect relationship between the key variables included in this study.

The fact that one of the null hypotheses failed to be rejected might be due to possibly not-so-strong design or methodology. It is recommended in this study for new studies. It is also possible that banks are not as dynamic and diverse in their internal operations and external environment. They are perhaps rather stable among for-profit organizations, compared to computer software development as the other extreme (very dynamic and uncertain) environment.

Implications

For the implications of this study, there are three primary areas of focus. The first implication is to administrative best practices. The second implication is to theory. Finally, the last implication is to positive social change.

Implications to Administrative Best Practices

This study indicated that uncertainty of internal operations in higher education was less than uncertainty of internal operations in banks, uncertainty coming from external environment in higher education was less than the uncertainty of external environment in banks, and change-oriented leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff was less than by bank employees. That means higher education institutions need to be more certain about their internal operations because, first, as

technology changes rapidly, the way institutions operate also changes. Institutions need to have up-to-date skills and knowledge to operate in the rapidly changing world. Second, the common leadership style in which leaders focus on the routines is challenged by the external environment. Thus, the changeability of the environment demands frequent restructuring of organizations. Therefore, higher education institutions need to accommodate more changes in their leadership styles. Third, as the current world is more competitive, higher education institutions need to be more change oriented in their leadership style in order to stay in the market. Fourth, compared to banks, higher education institutions provide less on-job trainings (professional development opportunities) for their employees. That in turn affects the performances and motivations of their employees.

Implications to Theory

This study is based on Kotter's (2012) theory of leading change in organizations. Rapidly changing environment can affect leadership in organizations (Kotter, 2012). The purpose of this quantitative comparative study was to test a contingency theory of leadership that leaders of banks are change oriented whereas leaders of higher educational institutions are administrative in their style. Unlike banks, whose survival heavily relies on the prompt response to their market demand, higher educational institutions seem to be less reactive to immediate changes of their environment. These different relationships naturally lead to different leadership styles between leaders of the banks and those of the higher education institutions: the former leads to the highly market-driven change-oriented leadership style versus the latter to the system stability-

oriented administrative leadership. This study confirmed that banks are more change oriented in their leadership styles than higher education institutions whereas the findings of the study did not confirm the hypothesis that higher education institutions are more administrative in their leadership style than banks.

This study laid a strong theoretical foundation on the contingency theory of leadership, and yet, the evidence was not as strong as anticipated. In particular, the findings of this study did not support Hypothesis 3 that higher education institutions are more administrative in their leadership style than banks. This could be due to either potentially weak theoretical foundation, which needs to be reevaluated, or the population sample size.

Implications of the Study for Positive Social Change

Identifying and implementing appropriate leadership style is significant not only for the institutions but also for the success of a society and its workforce. Effective leadership improves the economy of a society, the quality of the products, and satisfaction of the customers, the employees, as well as all the stakeholders. Effective leadership not only enhances the products, the motivation, and the economy, but also advances the effective use of resources to enhance the total wellbeing of the greater community. Therefore, this study may bring positive social change to the society in various areas such as leadership, employee satisfaction, stakeholder satisfaction, and use of resources.

- Improved leadership effectiveness. Understanding and implementing appropriate leadership that fits the context and environment where the

institutions operate is vital for bringing positive change in the society. As the contemporary society is changing rapidly, understanding and implementing change-oriented leadership and its dynamics is more relevant for the 21st century society than any society in history. Higher education institutions therefore need to be more open to accommodate change-oriented leadership.

- Improved employee satisfaction (internal stakeholders). The benefits of implementing more change-oriented leadership are not only limited to the improved effectiveness of leadership, but increased change-oriented leadership also enhances the moral of employees. The more employees get satisfied with their jobs, the more they will be productive. This study confirmed that uncertainty of internal operations in higher education is less than uncertainty of internal operations in banks and uncertainty coming from external environment in higher education is less than the uncertainty of external environment in banks. One of the ways higher education institutions increase employee job satisfaction is by providing on-job training for their employees. That does not mean that there is no professional development plan in higher education institutions, but this study indicated that banks are more open to provide frequent on-job training for their employees than higher education institutions.
- Improved satisfaction of the served stakeholders. The satisfaction of served stakeholders is vital for the success of a company. Both higher education institutions and banks operate to serve stakeholders. Without their served

stakeholders (customers), neither banks nor universities exist. As the external environment changes, the nature of the demography of the served stakeholders often changes. Understanding the needs and the context of the served stakeholders therefore is important in order to deliver appropriate services.

Understanding the needs and context of the served stakeholders in turn helps the leaders to foster effective communications between customers and service providers. With effective communication, better customer satisfaction will be achieved.

- Ultimately, effective use of resources to enhance the total wellbeing of the greater community. Technology is one of the catalysts of the rapid change happening in different sectors. One of the resources that needs effective utilization is technology. Change-oriented leadership is more open to adopt new technology than administrative leadership that focuses on routines.

Conclusion

This quantitative comparative research was conducted to test a contingency theory that banks are more change oriented in their leadership style whereas higher education institutions are administrative. The hypothesis that banks are more change oriented in their leadership style than higher education institutions was confirmed by the results of this study. However, the hypothesis that higher education institutions are more administrative in their leadership styles was not confirmed by the results of this study. This study also indicated the following three main findings: (a) uncertainty of internal operations in higher education is less than uncertainty of internal operations in banks, (b)

uncertainty coming from external environment in higher education is less than the uncertainty of external environment in banks, and (c) change-oriented leadership reported by higher education faculty and staff is less than by bank employees. The generalizability of this study is limited to the current sample of the study ($N = 203/2,400$). Therefore, in this study it is recommended that further research needs to be conducted in the area of administrative leadership and change-oriented leadership in banks and universities for a larger population ($N > 203$).

References

- Aaron, S., & Nelson, K. (2008). *The eight constants of change: What leaders need to know to drive change and win*. Dallas, TX: Change Guides.
- Abbas, W., & Asghar, I. (2010). The Role of Leadership In Organizational Change : Relating the successful Organizational Change with Visionary and Innovative Leadership (Dissertation No. TEX100428). Retrieved from <http://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:hig:diva-7037>
- Anderson, J. R., Greeno, J. G., Reder, L. M., & Simon, H. A. (2000). Perspectives on learning, thinking and activity. *Educational Researcher*, 29(4), 11-13.
doi:10.1080/00461520709336915
- Applefield, J. M., Huber, R., & Moallem, M. (2000). Constructivism in theory and practice: Toward a better understanding. *The High School Journal*, 84(2), 35-53.
Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/journal/highschooljour>.
- Ashby, W. R. (1952). *Design for a brain. The origin of adaptive behavior*. New York, NY: Chapman & Hall.
- Baldrige, J.V. (1978). *Policy making and effective leadership: A national study of academic management*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bass, B., & Bass, R. (2008). *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial application*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Bensimon, E., Neumann, A., & Birnbaum, R. (1989). *Making sense of administrative leadership. The "L" word in higher education*. ERIC Higher Education Report o. 1. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED317099)

- Bergquist, W. H. (1992). *The four cultures of the academy*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bergquist, W. H., & Pawlak, K. (2008). *Engaging the six cultures of the academy: Revised and expanded edition of the four cultures of the academy*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Birnbaum, R. (1992). *How academic leadership works: Understanding success and failure in the college presidency*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Blau, P. M. (1965). The comparative study of organizations. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 18(3), 323-338. doi:10.1177/003803857200600101
- Bleak, J., & Fulmer, R. (2009). *Strategically developing strategic leaders: Best practices in leadership development handbook*. doi:10.1177/1523422308322277
- Bolden, R. (2004). *What is leadership? Leadership South West Research Report, Centre for Leadership Studies*. South West University of Exeter. Retrieved from http://businessschool.exeter.ac.uk/documents/discussion_papers/cls/what_is_leadership.pdf
- Boud, D., & Rooney, D. (2015). What can higher education learn from the workplace? In A. Dailey-Herbert & K.S. Dennis (Eds.), *Transformative perspectives and processes in higher education* (pp. 195-209). New York, NY: Springer. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-09247-8-11
- Brennan, J. (2012). Is there a future for higher education institutions in the knowledge society? *European Review*, 20(02), 195-202. doi:10.1017/S1062798711000421
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2015). *Business research methods*. Oxford, England: Oxford

University Press.

- Burke, R., & Cooper, C. (2006). The new world of work and organizations: Implications for human resource management. *Human Resource Management Review, 16*(2), 83-85. doi:10.1016/j.worlddev.2004.07.013
- Burmiester, W. (2003). Leadership simplified: Abandoning the Eiensteinian “unified field theory” approach. *Journal of American Academy of Business, 3*(1), 152-154. Retrieved from <http://www.jaabc.com/>
- Bush, T., Bell, L., & Middlewood, D. (2010). *The principles of educational leadership & management*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Caldwell, C., Dixon, R. D., Floyd, L. A., Chaudoin, J., Post, J., & Cheokas, G. (2012). Transformative leadership: Achieving unparalleled excellence. *Journal of Business Ethics, 109*, 175-187. doi:10.1007/s10551-011-1116-2
- Carneiro, R. (2010). Transforming universities. In U. D. Ehlers & D. Schbeckenberg (Eds.), *Changing cultures in higher education* (pp. 55-67). Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- Carter, L., Ulrich, D., & Goldsmith, M. (Eds.). (2012). *Best practices in leadership development and organization change: how the best companies ensure meaningful change and sustainable leadership* (Vol. 18). San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Chiaburu, D. S., Oh, I. S., Berry, C. M., Li, N., & Gardner, R. G. (2011). The five-factor model of personality traits and organizational citizenship behaviors: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(6), 1140. doi:10.1037.a002.40042

- Charan, R., & Conaty, B. (2011). *The talent masters: Why smart leaders put people before numbers*. New York, NY: Random House.
- Coates, H., & Goedegebuure, L. (2012). Recasting the academic workforce: why the attractiveness of the academic profession needs to be increased and eight possible strategies for how to go about this from an Australian perspective. *Higher Education*, 64(6), 875-889. doi:10.1007/s10734-012-9534-3
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2013). *Research methods in education* (5th ed.). London: Routledge.
- Colbert, A. E., Judge, T. A., Choi, D., & Wang, G. (2012). Assessing the trait theory of leadership using self and observer ratings of personality: The mediating role of contributions to group success. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23, 670-685. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.03.004
- Cooper, C. L., & Finkelstein, S. (Eds.). (2012). *Advances in mergers and acquisitions* (10th ed.). Bingley, United Kingdom: Emerald Group Publishing.
- Costa Jr, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). The five-factor model of personality and its relevance to personality disorders. *Journal of Personality Disorders*, 6(4), 343.
- Cozby, P. C. B., & Bates S. C. (2012). *Methods in behavioral research* (11th ed No. 150.72 C6). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Humanities.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cuban, L. (2009). *The blackboard and the bottom line: Why schools can't be businesses*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

- Daft, R. (2012). *Management* (10th ed.). Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning.
- Dana, B., & Olson, D. (2007). *Effective leadership in long term care: The need and opportunity*. American College of Health Care Administrators Position Paper. Retrieved from www.achca.org
- Day, C., & Sammons, P. (2013). *Successful leadership: A Review of the international literature*. Reading, England: CfBT Education Trust.
- Dereli, T. (2012). The process of leadership. *İktisat Fakültesi Mecmuası*, 31, 1-4. Retrieved from <http://www.journals.istanbul.edu.tr/iuifm/>
- Denison, D. R., & Hooijberg, R., & Quinn, R. E. (1995). Paradox and performance: Toward a theory of behavioral complexity in managerial leadership. *Organization Science*, 6(5), 524-540. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1287/orsc.6.5.524>
- Department for Education and Employment. (1998). *The learning age: a renaissance for a new Britain*. London, England: HMSO.
- Fiedler, F. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Firth, B. A. (1976). Flow properties of coagulated colloidal suspensions: II. Experimental properties of the flow curve parameters. *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 57(2), 257-265. doi:10.1016/0021-9797(76)90201-0
- Fleenor, J. (2007). Trait approach to leadership. In S. Rogelberg (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 831-833). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781412952651.n319>
- Foster, J. (2006). One size does not fit all. *Quality Progress*, 39(7), 54-61. Retrieved from <http://asq.org/quality-press/journal/index.html>

- Fullan, M. (2012). *Motion leadership in action: More skinny on becoming change savvy*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Fullan, M. (2014). *Leading in a culture of change personal action guide and workbook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Fusch, G. E. (1997). *Changing Paradigms in the Industrial Workplace--Implications for Secondary and Post-secondary Institutions*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association of Management and the International Association of Management (15th, Montreal, Quebec, August 6-9, 1997). Retrieved <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED417327.pdf>
- Gardner, J. W. (1989). *On leadership*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Giauque, D. (2015). Attitudes toward organizational change among public middle managers. *Public Personnel Management, 44*(1), 70-98.
doi:10.1177/0091026014556512
- Godkin, L., & Allcorn, S. (2011). Organizational resistance to destructive narcissistic behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics, 104*, 559-570. doi:10.1007/s10551-011-0930-x
- Gore, W. L., & Widiger, T. A. (2013). The DSM-5 dimensional trait model and five-factor models of general personality. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 122*(3), 816. doi:10.1037/a0032822
- Grant, A. M. (2012). Leading with meaning: Beneficiary contact, pro-social impact, and the performance effects of transformational leadership. *The Academy of Management Journal, 55*(2), 458-476. <http://dx.doi.org/10-5465/amj.2010.0588>

Grübler, A. (2003). *Technology and global change*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge

University Press. *Entrepreneurship education and training: Can entrepreneurship be taught? Part I. Education+ Training*

Hamstra, M. R., Van Yperen, N. W., Wisse, B., & Sassenberg, K. (2014).

Transformational and transactional leadership and followers' achievement goals.

Journal of Business and Psychology, 29(3), 413-425. doi:10.1007/s10869-013-9322-9

Hartog, D., & Koopman, P. (2011). Leadership in Organizations. Handbook of industrial, work and organizational psychology (Vol. 2). *Organizational Psychology*.

Retrieved from

<http://www.uk.sagepub.com/northouseintro2e/study/chapter/handbook/handbook4.1.pdf>

Harwell, M. (2011). Research design in qualitative/quantitative/mixed methods. In C.

Conrad, & R. Serkin (Eds.), *The Sage handbook for research in education: Pursuing ideas as the keystone of exemplary inquiry* (2nd ed., 147-163).

Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. doi:10.4413519781483351377.n11

Hayes, J. (2014). *The theory and practice of change management*. New York, NY:

Palgrave Macmillan.

Hazelkorn, E. (2015). *Rankings and the reshaping of higher education: The battle for world-class excellence*. Springer.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. (1969). Life cycle theory of leadership. *Training and*

Development Journal, 23(5), 26-34. Retrieved from

<http://psycnet.apa.org/psycinfo/1970-19661-001>

House, R. J. (1971). A path-goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Leadership Review*, 16, 331-339. Retrieved from <http://asq.sagepub.com/>

Howarth, M. D., & Rafferty, A. E. (2009, August). TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE: THE IMPACT OF VISION CONTENT AND DELIVERY. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2009, No. 1, pp. 1-6). Academy of Management. doi:10.5465/ambpp.2009.44243043.

Huck, S. W. (2008). *Reading statistics and research* (5th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Jeanjean, T., & Ramirez, C. (2009). Back to the origins of positive theories: A contribution to an analysis of paradigm changes in accounting research. *Accounting in Europe*, 6(1), 107-126. doi:10.1080/17449480902866510

Johansson, T., & Siverbo, S. (2009). Explaining the utilization of relative performance evaluation in local government: A multi-theoretical study using data from Sweden. *Financial Accountability and Management*, 25(2), 197-224. doi:10.1111/j.1468-0408.2009.00474.x

Johanson, R. (2004). *Implications of globalization and economic restructuring for skills development in sub-Saharan Africa*, Policy Integration Department. Retrieved from <http://www.ilo.org/>.

Judge, T., Piccolo, R., & Llies, R. (2004). The forgotten ones? The validity of consideration and initiating structure in leadership research. *Journal of Applied Psychological Association*, 89(1), 36-51. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.89.1.36

- Kandiko, C. B. (2012). Leadership and creativity in higher education: The role of interdisciplinarity. *London Review of Education*, 10(2), 191-200.
doi:10.1080/14748460.2012.691283
- Kerr, S., Murphy, C., & Stogdill, R. (1974). Towards a contingency theory of leadership based on the consideration and initiating structure literature. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 12(1), 62-82. doi:10.1016/0030-5073(74)90037-3
- Kessler, E. H. (2013). *Encyclopedia of Management Theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kezar, A. (2009) Understanding and facilitating organizational change in the 21st Century, *ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report Volume 28*. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED457711)
- Kezar, A. J., Carducci, R., & Contreras-McGavin, M. (2006). Rethinking the L word in higher education. *ASHE Higher Education Report*, 31(6), 1-218. Retrieved from <http://acd.sagepub.com/>
- Kihlstrom, J. F. (2013). Neuro-hypnotism: Prospects for hypnosis and neuroscience. *Cortex*, 49(2), 365-374. Retrieved from <http://www.journals.elsevier.com/cortex/>
- Kotter, J. (1997). *What leaders really do, A force for change: How leadership differs from management*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Kotter, J. (2012). *Leading changing*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business Review Press.
- Kreitner, R., & Kinicki, A. (2012). *Organizational behavior* (10th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Lester, D. L., & Parnell, J. A. (2007). *Organizational theory: A strategic perspective*.

Cincinnati, OH: Atomic Dog Publishing.

- Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., & White, R. K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created social climates. *Journal of Social Psychology, 10*, 271-299. doi:10.1080/00224545.1939.9713366
- Lizardo, O. (2009). The comparative analysis of organizational forms: Considering field and ecological approaches. *Research in the Sociology of Organizations, 26*, 647-648. doi:10.1108/S0733-558X(2009)0000026007
- Louis, K. S., Leithwood, K., Wahlstrom, K. L., & Anderson, S. E. (2010). *Learning from Leadership: Investigating the Links to Improved Student Learning*. University of Minnesota: Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement/University of Minnesota and Ontario Institute for Studies in Education/University of Toronto, 42, 50. Retrieved from http://s3.amazonaws.com/academia.edu.documents/8530141/learning-from-leadership_final-report_march-2010.pdf?AWSAccessKeyId=AKIAJ56TQJRTWSMTNPEA&Expires=1472521500&Signature=%2FRdxUIWbWKQBSWEyO1X30xVS6EA%3D&response-content-disposition=inline%3B%20filename%3DLearning_from_leadership_Investigating_t.pdf
- Lussier, R. N., & Achua, C. F. (2010). *Leadership: Theory, application, skill development* (4th ed.). Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning.
- Luthans, F. (1973). The contingency theory of management: A path out of the

jungle. *Business Horizons*, 16(3), 67-72. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0007-6813\(73\)90026-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/0007-6813(73)90026-8).

O'Loughlin, J. (2011). *The real Warren Buffett: Managing capital, leading people*. Boston, MA: Nicholas Brealey Publishing.

Mann, R. D. (1959). A review of the relationships between personality and performance in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, 56, 241-270. doi:10.1037/h0041180

Marsden, P. V., & Wright, J. D. (2010). *Handbook of survey research*. Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing.

Marturano, A., & Gosling, J. (2008). *The key concepts of leadership*. New York, NY: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.

Militello, M., Friend, J., Hurley, R., & Mead, M. (2011). Preparing educational leaders to harness the power of advanced technologies: An introduction. *Journal of Research on Leadership Education*, 6(5), 140-144.
doi:10.1177/194277511100600502

Miller, T., Birch, M., Mauthner, M., & Jessop, J. (Eds.). (2012). *Ethics in qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Mohan, M. (1993). *Organizational communication and cultural vision: Approaches for analysis*. New York, NY: State University of New York Press.

Muijs, D. (2011). Leadership and organizational performance: from research to prescription?. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 25(1), 45-60.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/09513541111100116>.

Nahavandi, A. (2012). *The art and science of leadership* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River,

NJ: Pearson.

Nata, R. (2005). *New directions in higher education*. United Kingdom: Nova Science Publishers.

Nielsen, J. (2004). *The myth of leadership: Creating leaderless organizations*. Boston, MA: Davies Black Publishing.

Northouse, P. G. (2015). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

O'Brien, H. L. (2008). *Defining and measuring engagement in user experiences with technology*. Retrieved from http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/78832/6/WRRO_78832.pdf.

Obiwuru, T.C., Okwu, A.T., Akpa, V.O. and Nwankwere, I.A. (2011), Effects of Leadership Style on Organizational Performance: A Survey of Selected Small Scale Enterprises in Ikosi-Ketu Council Development Area of Lagos State, Nigeria, *Australian Journal of Business and Management Research*, 1(7): 100-111. Retrieved from http://ajbmr.com/articlepdf/ajbmr_17_16i1n7a11.pdf

Padilla, A. (2005). *Portraits in leadership: Six extraordinary university presidents*. Westport, CT. Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.

Penn, A. (2010). Leadership theory simplified. (FSPSD200-PD-11-08N). *University of Arkansas, United States Department of Agriculture, and County Governments Cooperating*. Retrieved from http://jolstoffers.com/_files/Leadership%20Simplified.pdf

Perrow, C. (1967). A framework for the comparative analysis of organizations. *American Sociological Review*, 32(2), 194-208. doi:10.1177/003803857200600101.

- Peterson, K. D. (2002). The professional development of principals: Innovations and opportunities. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 38(2), 213-232.
doi:10.1177/0013161X03255561
- Reeve, F., & Gallacher, J. (2000, January). *Researching the implementation of work-based learning within higher education: Questioning and collusion and resistance*. Paper presented at the Forty-first Adult Education Research Conference, Vancouver, Canada.
- Rouzbahani, M., Mahdian, M., Gars hasbi, K., & Goudarzi, M. (2012). The study of relationship between change-oriented leadership and the quality of services. *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research*, 2(11), 11336-11340. Retrieved from
<http://www.textroad.com/Basic%20and%20Applied%20Scientific%20Research-Scope.html>
- Rumsey, M. (2013). *The Oxford handbook of leadership*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Samson, D., & Bevington, T. (2012). *Implementing strategic change: Managing processes and interfaces to develop a highly productive organization*. Philadelphia, PA: Kogan Page Publishers.
- Sikdar, A., & Payyazhi, J. (2014). A process model of managing organizational change during business process redesign. *Business Process Management Journal*, 20(6), 971-998. doi:10.1108/BPMJ-02-2013-0020
- Singleton, R., & Straits, B. (2010). *Approaches to social research*. New York, NY:

Oxford University Press.

- Stewart, T. J., & Brent, B. O. (2011). Make informed decisions by surveying school stakeholders. *School Business Affairs*, 77(7), 31-33. Retrieved from <http://asbointl.org/publications-news/school-business-affairs>
- Steyer, R., Geiser, C., & Fiege, C. (2012). Latent state-trait models. *Data Analysis and Research Publication*, 3, 291-308. Retrieved from <http://psycnet.apa.org/books/13621>
- Stogdill, R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 25, 35-71. doi:10.1037/h0057264
- Tosti, D., & Jackson, S. (2001). Organizational alignment. *Performance Improvement*, 46(1), 21-25. doi:10.1080/01608060903092151
- Trow, M. (1985). Comparative reflections on leadership in higher education. *European Journal of Education*, 20(2-3), 143-159. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1502944>
- Truss, C., Kelliher, C., & Mankin, D. (2012). *Strategic human resource management*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Tucker, A., Heisler, W., & Janisse, L. (2013, Oct 1). *Organizational factors that contribute to operational failures in hospitals*. *Harvard Business School Working Paper*, No. 14-023. Retrieved from <http://dash.harvard.edu/handle/1/11508218>.
- Van de Ven, A. H., & Drazin, R. (1984). *The concept of fit in contingency theory*. Minnesota, MN: Strategic Management Research Center.
- Vroom, V., & Yetton, P. (1973). *Leadership and decision making*. Pittsburgh, PA:

University of Pittsburgh Press.

- Walsh, M. (2011). Align your business and leadership strategies: Build a pipeline of leadership talent to execute strategy today and tomorrow. *Journal of Strategic Leadership, 4*, 1-6. Retrieved from <http://www.regent.edu/acad/global/publications/jsl/home.htm>
- Wells, R. S., & Stage, F. K. (2015). Past, present, and future of critical quantitative research in higher education. *New Directions for Institutional Research, 2014*(163), 103-112. doi:10.1002/ir.20089
- Wynn, S. (2006). *Trait theory: Encyclopedia of educational leadership and administration*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yaverbaum, E., & Sherman, E. (2008). *The everything leadership book* (2nd ed.). Avon, MA: Adams Media.
- Yi, A., Davey, H., & Eggleton, I.R.C. (2011). Towards a comprehensive theoretical framework for voluntary IC disclosure. *Journal of Intellectual Capital, 12*(4), 571-585. doi:10.1108/14691931111181733
- Yukl, G. (1989). Managerial leadership: A review of theory and research. *Journal of Management, 15*(2), 251-289. doi:10.1177/014920638901500207

Appendix A: Administrative Change and Leadership Survey

ADMINISTRATIVE CHANGE AND LEADERSHIP SURVEY

Thank you for agreeing to complete a brief survey. I really appreciate you taking the time to respond to the items on the survey. Please know that your survey responses will be anonymous; data from the survey will be aggregated and reported in summary format only.

Part I: Please provide your response to each of the following demographic questions.

<p>1. Please identify the entity you work for:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Financial Institution</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Higher Education Institution</p> <p>2. Please identify your gender:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Male</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Female</p>	<p>3. Please indicate your age:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> less than 19</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 19 - 36</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 37 - 48</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> greater than 49</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> I prefer not to answer</p>
--	---

Part II: Below you will see three categories of survey items. Please read the description within each category, and then rate the extent to which you agree with each statement that follows using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Inclined to Disagree	Neither	Inclined to Agree	Strongly Agree

Section 1: Internal Operations Uncertainty: Regarding tasks staff within your organizational entity perform in your organization, please rate the extent to which you agree with each of the statements below.

Task Variability: Number of different tasks needed to be completed by staff

1. A large number of different tasks needed to be completed by staff.
2. Tasks I did a year ago are completely different from the tasks I currently do.
3. There are numerous tasks I still need to complete even when I leave work at the end of the day.
4. I must ensure my work task comply with operational manual guidelines, review operational manuals to deal with many different types of tasks I complete.
5. Funds are allocated for each of the tasks I must perform each day.

Task Analyzability: Complexity of tasks performed by staff

6. There are many regulatory issues to review and master for each task.
7. I must attend several trainings each year to understand how to complete difficult and new daily task.
8. Daily tasks I perform require significant experience.
9. Tasks I perform vary significantly annually.
10. There are some tasks I must perform only once, at the end of every year.

Section 2: External Environment Uncertainty: Regarding the external environment, please rate the extent to which you agree with each of the statements below.

Diversity of external stakeholders: A number of stakeholders outside an organization.

11. _____ I must interact with a diverse population of people outside of the organization.
12. _____ I must interact with the same external individuals (stakeholders) on a daily basis.
13. _____ I must listen to the same demands on a daily basis from external stakeholders.
14. _____ I must meet the same demands from external stakeholders on a daily basis.
15. _____ I must understand the needs of external stakeholders.

Changes of Stakeholders Demands

16. _____ I am concerned about how changes made by policy makers or regulators will affect me.
 17. _____ I react immediately to conflicting demands from external stakeholders.
 18. _____ I respond and rectify conflicting demands from external stakeholders.
 19. _____ I create a new service immediately to rectify conflicting demands from external stakeholders.
-

3: Leadership:

Value-driven Administrative Leadership: Thinking about establishing and upholding the core values of an organization, please rate the extent to which you agree that your college or bank president does each of the following:

20. _____ Establishes and communicates the mission to the organization.
 21. _____ Exhibits values that are consistent with other institutions.
 22. _____ Comprehends values of his/her followers and makes effort to support them.
 23. _____ Comprehends the significance of followers' independence and freedom to perform their tasks.
 24. _____ Supports continuous development of followers in their areas of expertise.
 25. _____ Supports followers to feel empowered.
 26. _____ Comprehends the mission of an organization is accomplished through followers' independent actions.
 27. _____ Forces followers to do precisely as the leadership perceives most appropriate though intimidation.
 28. _____ Follows the regulatory rules are more important than finding the truth.
 29. _____ Allows others to help develop policies and/or procedures for the betterment of the organization.
-

Change-Oriented Leadership: Please rate the extent to which you agree that your college or bank president does each of the following:

30. _____ Has a five year plan for operations.
 31. _____ Shares with people why change has occurred.
 32. _____ Makes a case for urgent changes prior to implementation.
 33. _____ Has a committee that addresses changes.
 34. _____ Empowers people to change.
 35. _____ Carefully monitors and communicates progress of the change implementation.
 36. _____ Provides individual attention to those who had trouble with the policy changes.
 37. _____ Examines evaluations for further improvement.
 38. _____ Annually awards internally and externally for those who demonstrated improvement.
 39. _____ Provides an open suggestion box.
-

Thank you for your participation.