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ABSTRACT
        A study focused on the administrative training and
leadership practices used by communication chairpersons. Of
particular interest is the comparison of leadership practices of male
and female chairpersons and how those practices are influenced by the
length of term as chair, the size of the institution, the size of the
department, whether or not the chair exerts budgetary or programmatic
control, and tenure. A 68% response rate was achieved from a random
sample of 265 communication chairpersons proportioned by gender.
Results indicate that the percentage of women communication
chairpersons increased to 27%. Chairpersons surveyed scored highest
in the leadership practices of Enabling Others to Act and Encouraging
the Heart, two practices reflective of feminine leadership style.
(Contains 27 references, 6 tables, and 6 figures of data.)
(Author/RS)

A Comparison of Leadership Practices Used by Male

and Female Communication Department Chairpersons

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Running Head: LEADERSHIP PRACTICES

Abstract

The administrative training and leadership practices used by communication chairpersons is the focus of this study. Of particular interest is the comparison of leadership practices of male and female chairpersons and how those practices are influenced by the length of term as chair, the size of the institution, the size of the department, whether or not the chair exerts budgetary or programmatic control, and tenure. A sixty-eight percent response rate was achieved from a random sample of 265 communication chairpersons proportioned by gender. The results of this study reveals the percentage of women communication chairpersons has increased to 27%. Chairpersons surveyed scored highest in the leadership practices of Enabling Others to Act and Encouraging the Heart, two practices reflective of feminine leadership style.

A Comparison of Leadership Practices Used by Male

and Female Communication Department Chairpersons

The position of academic department chair has the potential to be one which most

influences faculty, and yet it remains the "most . . . underrated position in a college or

university" (Fife, 1993, p. xv). Some of the problems facing today's department chair

include the way in which chairs are selected and how that process influences their ability to

lead a department, how these new administrators learn to exercise leadership responsibility,

and the need for greater representation of women as department chairs. Women,

particularly, seem to encounter barriers to the position as department chair because of

perceptions regarding male and female leadership styles, as well as the difficulty women

have in attaining tenure.

The image of being "caught in the middle" best describes the challenges faced by

today's academic department chair. Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler (1993) use the analogy

of a block of wood held in a vise for shaping to describe the chairperson's dilemma. Being

squeezed between the demands of upper administration and expectations of faculty,

students, and staff, the chair "is caught in the middle, required to provide the most

sophisticated leadership and statesmanship to avoid being crushed by those two opposing

forces" (p. iii). The manner in which chairs are chosen probably contributes to this

pressure. As noted by Tucker (1992), the selection of a department chairperson may be

made by the dean, or the chair may be elected by colleagues, or the position as chair may

rotate on a regular basis among departmental professors.

The academic department is a relatively recent development in American higher

education. The academic department emerged as an administrative unit during the early

1900's. Specifically, in the discipline of communication, the academic department began to

play a key role in curricular and administrative decisions by the 1920's (Smith, 1954).

Tucker identifies the department chairperson as holding a "key position" which provides

leadership for the faculty and helps translate academic goals into academic practice.

However, Tucker notes that "most chairpersons are drawn from faculty ranks and assume

the position having had little administrative experience" (p. vi). Hickson and Stacks (1992)

agree: "Most academic administrators especially at the department level are educated on

the job" (p. vii). Therefore, how department chairs learn to exercise their leadership

function can determine their effectiveness.

Another problem to be explored in leadership in higher education is the participation

of women. Gmelch and Miskin (1993) report that about "ten percent of the department

chairs are female" in doctorate-granting institutions (pp. 16-17). Most analysts expect the

number of women serving as academic chairs to increase as the number of women

doctorates increase. (See Gmelch and Miskin, 1993; Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler, 1993).

However, women in academia face problems in getting into the pipeline to administrative

positions at major universities. Tack and Patitu (1992) indicate women are

disproportionately located at two-year and four-year institutions. In fact, Leatherman's

(1993) review of the American College President reveals that only twelve percent of

institutions surveyed have female presidents with only four percent (N=11) serving at

doctorate-granting institutions. Kelly (1991) states: "Women clearly meet more challenges

and barriers in their efforts to reach higher management positions than men" (p. 55).

DeWine (1987) reported that of the more than 1500 theatre administrators in American

colleges only 11 percent are women and only 20 percent of communication departments,

leading her to the conclusion that the discipline of communication is male dominated.

Research in the communication behavior of men and women managers has revealed

that neither men nor women seemed to favor characteristics defined as "feminine." For

example, Fitzpatrick's (1983) study concludes that "the best-liked individuals, male or

female, were assertive, decisive, and intellectual, rather than nurturant, responsive, and

emotional" (p. 77). Powell (1993) maintains that "women and men do not differ in their

effectiveness as leaders, although some situations favor women and others favor men" (p.

175). In the field of education, McPherson, Crowson, and Pitner (1986) cite the work of

Miskin whose studies indicate "women's habits of being more consultative and relationship-oriented than men . . . may be an important key to the success of female educational administrators" (p. 226). Kelly (1991) agrees that "women administrators are viewed as being better than men at giving information, strengthening interpersonal relationships, being receptive to ideas and encouraging effort" (p. 107).

Women in higher education seem to face a much more arduous path to tenure than do men. Even though as noted by Kolodny (1993) "women comprise 28% of the faculty and are receiving 36% of the Ph.D.'s awarded annually, women make up just 12 percent of full professors" (p. 2). Hensel (1991) notes: "Women make up 50 percent of undergraduate enrollment yet remain broadly underrepresented in tenured faculty positions" (p. 1). Tack and Patitu (1992) report that women typical "represent a small percentage of the faculty cohort, hold lower professional ranks, work in part-time rather than full-time positions . . . work in less prestigious institutions and are not tenured" (p. 33). Although the tenure issue may not be related directly to leadership styles of men and women, the lack of tenure obviously mitigates against women moving into department chair positions.

This study investigates the following questions: (1) Has the number of women communication department chairpersons increased since 1987? (2) What activities do communication chairpersons identify as providing administrative training prior to the

appointment as chair? (3) Are there differences in those activities that provided

administrative training for men as compared to women communication chairpersons? (4)

What leadership practices are currently used by communication department chairpersons?

(5) Do these leadership practices differ according to the length of term and gender of

communication department chairpersons, the institution size, the departmental size, and

tenure status of the individual? (6) Are there differences in leadership practices of

chairpersons who exert budgetary as compared to only programmatic control?

METHOD

During the fall of 1993, 265 communication chairpersons listed in the 1993-94

Speech Communication Association Directory were mailed copies of an author-designed

survey and the LPI-Self, an instrument developed by Kouzes and Posner (1992). The

random sample was chosen from the entire published list which had been coded as "female,"

"male," or "gender unidentified" based on their given names. Seventy-three women's names

were chosen and 192 men's names were chosen. These proportions reflect the percentages

of men and women in the total list. After two follow-up letters, 180 instruments were

returned with 172 providing usable data.

The LPI-Self is a 30-item instrument created by Kouzes and Posner (1987) to

measure five leadership practices. (A sample questions reads as follows: I take time to

celebrate accomplishments when project milestones are reached.) This is a self-report scale

which uses a Likert-type ranking for each time. Five leadership practices are measured:

Challenging the Process, Inspiring a Shared Vision, Enabling Others to Act, Modeling the

Way, and Encouraging the Heart. Since the practice of Challenging the Process is

characterized by "taking risks," it is associated with a more masculine leadership style. The

visionary aspects of "gazing across the horizon of time," which typifies the practice of

Inspiring a Shared Vision, also is more often linked with men, as is evident by the examples

Kouzes and Posner cite (p. 10). The practice of modeling the way implies that the leader is

in a position of power so that any actions taken can influence subordinates, implying a

hierarchical view of leadership. On the other hand, the practice of Enabling Others to Act

stresses collaboration and the practice of Encouraging the Heart relies on good

interpersonal relationships, practices more reflective of feminine leadership styles.

Reliabilities for the LPI-Self range from .70 to .85. This instrument has been applied to

several contexts in higher education (Spontanski, 1991; McNeese-Smith, 1991; Roundy,

1991; Okorie, 1990; Taranzai, 1990).

The author-designed questionnaire collected data about length of term, sex of

subject, activities providing administrative training, size of institution, size of department,

tenure status, type of control, and demographic data. The items on the questionnair·

relating to activities providing administrative training were validated by previous studies

conducted in 1991 and 1992. The thirteen item instrument used a scanable format, allowing

respondents to simply color in appropriate circles. Self-addressed, stamped envelopes were

included to encourage return of the two instruments.

RESULTS

Of the 180 instruments returned, 172 provided usable data, representing a response

rate of 68 percent. Demographic data gained from the questionnaires revealed that

chairpersons responding were most likely to classify themselves as "White Caucasian." Of

the 169 respondents indicating ethnic background, 96.4 percent (N=163) were "White

Caucasian," 1.2 percent (N=2) were "African American." 1.2 percent (N=2) were "American

Indian," 0.6 percent (N=1) were "Other Latino," and 0.6 percent (N=1) marked "Other."

All of the women respondents indicated that they were White Caucasians. The average age

of the respondents was 46 years, with the average term of office being 7.67 years. Of the 172

respondents, 71.5 percent (N=123) were male and 28.5 percent (N=49) were female.

The highest degree earned for chairpersons responding was most often a Ph.D. This

is illustrated in Figure 1. Of the 172 chairpersons indicating their highest degree, 66.1

percent (N 113) had earned a Ph.D., 27.5 percent (N 47) had Master's degrees, 3.5 percent

(N 6) had earned Ed.D's, 0.6 percent (N 1) listed the bachelor's degree, 0.6 percent (N 1)

had a law degree, and 1.8 percent (N=3) listed "other" professional degrees. Of

chairpersons who had at least one degree in communication (N=152), the most frequently

listed specialty was speech communication (53.3 percent, N=81), followed by theater (23

percent, N=35), mass communication (19.1 percent, N=29), and journalism (4.6 percent,

N=7). This trend was the same for both men and women surveyed.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Regarding the type of control exercised by communication department chairpersons.

91.8 percent (N=156) indicated they had budgetary responsibility and 97.1 percent (N=165)

indicated they had programmatic responsibility. When asked if their institution provided

an orientation for their role as department chair, 82.9 percent (N=102) responded "no."

Those chairs responding more often served at public institutions (N-94, 76.4 percent).

Proportionately, more women (N=18, 36.7 percent) were employed at private institutions

than men (N=47, 27.3 percent).

When analyzing the highest degree earned according to gender, proportionately

more women (N=20, 40.8 percent) were likely to cite a Master's degree as their highest

degree completed, as compared to male respondents (N=27, 22.1 percent). These results

can be seen in Figure 2

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Insert Figure 2 about here

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Women respondents also appeared to have had shorter terms as chairpersons. The average

length of term as chair reported by women was 6 years whiie that reported by men was 8.3

years. These results are illustrated in Figure 3.

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Insert Figure 3 about here

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In terms of institution size, 54.7 percent (N=94) of the chairpersons served in

universities, 21.5 percent (N=37) served in four-year colleges. and 22.7 percent (N=39)

served ii two-year colleges. When analyzing size of institution according to gender, women

were more often chairing departments in two-year colleges (38.8 percent. N=19) while men

were more frequently chairing university departments (62.6 percent, N=77). Chairpersons'

institutional size, according to gender, is shown in Figure 4.

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Insert Figure 4 about here

_____

Most of the respondents indicated they had tenure (79.1 percent, N 136) while 9.3

percent (N--16) indicated they were not tenured and 11 percent (N 19) checked "not

applicable." Both male and female department chairs reported similar percentages

regarding tenure, with 77.6 percent (N=38) of the women and 79.7 percent (N=98) of the

men serving in tenured positions. Figure 5 shows tenure status according to gender.

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Insert Figure 5 about here

_____

Respondents departmental size ranged from 1 to 88 fulltime faculty and none to 90

for part-time faculty, with a mean size of 10.36 for full-time faculty and 7.96 for part-time

faculty. Male chairs typically presided over larger departments (11.29 full-time, 7.96 part-

time) than did women chairs (9.18 full-time and 5.88 part-time). The results are charted in

Figure 6.

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Insert Figure 6 about here

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From the demographic data, the profile of respondents that emerges revealed that

the communication chairperson was most often a white male, who had earned a Ph.D. in

speech communication, was 46-years-old, in a tenured position at a university, had served

as department chair for 7.67 years, exercised both budgetary and programmatic control

over a department staffed with an average size faculty of 10.86 full-time professors and 7.96

part-time professors.

To gain an understanding of the current participation of women as communication

department chairs, a chi-square was calculated using the frequencies reported by DeWine (1987) as the expected frequencies. A chi-square of 39.7961 (df=2), significant at the .05 confidence level was observed. The number of women serving as communication department chairs has increased from 20 percent observed by DeWine to 27 percent in this present study.

The most frequently cited activity providing administrative training was serving on departmental committees (N=51, 32.5 percent). Over ten percent of the respondents (N=17) cited campus governance as giving them administrative training. The next most frequently cited activities were theatre management (N=15, 9.6 percent), basic course director (N=14, 8.9 percent, and forensics coach (N=14, 8.9 percent). Similar numbers were reported for serving in professional associations (N=12, 7.6 percent) and serving as an assistant chair (N=11, 7.0 percent). Only five percent of the chairs marked either consulting (N=8) or graduate coursework (N=8). Least frequently marked activities included faculty in-service (N=4, 2.5 percent), reading a book about administrative roles (N=3, 1.9 percent), and serving an internship (N=1, 0.6 percent.) The results are reported in Table 1.

Insert Table 1 about here

A frequency table showing activities providing administrative training comparing

those reported by men and those reported by women communication chairpersons is shown

in Table 2.

Insert Table 2 about here.

Since a cell size numbering at least five is required to conduct a valid chi-square test,

it was necessary to collapse the twelve categories into four broader categories. The twelve

categories listed on the questionnaire were collapsed into the following four categories:

Administrative Function, Service Function, Teaching Function, and Scholarship Function.

The rationale for using these broader categories is that they parallel the four areas that most

faculty members in administrative positions use to complete their annual professional

summaries. The Administrative Function includes the preparatory activities of theatre

management and serving as assistant chair. The Service Function includes leadership in

professional associations, serving on a departmental committee, campus governance, and

acting as a consultant. Under the Teaching Function, the preparatory activities of serving

as Basic Course Director, a Forensics Coach, and taking part in faculty in-service programs

was placed. The Scholarship Function includes graduate coursework in administration,

reading a book about administrative duties, and serving an administrative internship. The

results of the chi-square test yielded a non-significant score of 3.039, df=3, alpha=.05 The

four functions as compared by gender can be seen in Table 3.

Insert Table 3 about here

For those research questions dealing with leadership practices, only responses from

those chairs who indicated they had earned at least one degree in the discipline of

communication were used. The mean scores reported for the LPI-Self (N=133) ranged from

22.51 for Inspiring a Shared Vision to 26.15 for Enabling Others to Act. This same trend is

seen in the mean LPI-Self scores of male chairpersons (N=93) with the scores ranging from

a low of 22.22 for Inspiring a Shared Vision to a high of 26.46 for Enabling Others to act.

Women chairpersons (N=38) reported a low mean score of 22.63 for Modeling the Way to a

high of 25.34 for Encouraging the Heart. Table 4 shows the comparisons of mean LPI

scores.

Insert Table 4 about here

T-tests conducted on the scores for men and women reveal no significant differences

in mean scores. A comparison of the mean scores for each of the practices with the

percentile ranking developed by Kouzes and Posner in studies of more than five thousand

leaders, reveals that the practices of Enabling Others to Act and Encouraging the Heart fall within the seventieth percentile and are considered "high."

A MANOVA was conducted to investigate the interaction of gender and length of term of office with the five leadership practices. In conducting the test, the continuous variable of term of office was defined as "short" for less than one year, "medium" for one to six years, and "long" for six years and greater. No significant interaction effects were found. However, in the practice of Enabling Others to Act, the F value was significant for gender ($F=4.13$, df=1, alpha=.05) and term of office ($F=2.90$, df=2, alpha=.05). Male chairpersons engaged more frequently in the practice of Enabling Others to Act. Those chairs with terms longer than six years also appear to use more often the practices of Modeling the Way and Enabling Others to Act. The results of the MANOVA are shown in Table 5.

Insert Table 5 about here

No significant differences in the leadership practices were observed when analyzed according to the institutional size or the departmental size. However, there are significant differences in the leadership practice of Inspiring a Shared Vision for those chairs who have tenure as compared to those who do not have tenure. Tenured chairpersons differed significantly in this practice from those who were not tenured (F 4.56, df 2, alpha .05).

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Chairpersons who exert budgetary control and/or programmatic control also differed significantly from those who did not in the leadership practice of Enabling Others to Act. Chairs who exercised budgetary control had an F value of 4.74 (p<.05) for Enabling Others to Act. Those chairpersons who had programmatic control had an F value of 16.33 for the same leadership practice. These results are shown in Table 6.

Insert Table 6 about here

DISCUSSION

This research project provides useful information about the administrative training and leadership practices used by communication department chairpersons. The results provide a picture of the participation of women in the key role of department chair. Viewing leadership as "human (symbolic) communication," as suggested by Hackman and Johnson (1991), this study investigates how gender may affect leadership practices in the discipline of communication.

Results reveal an encouraging increase from 20 percent in 1987 to 27 percent in 1994 in the number of women serving as communication department chairpersons. However, the findings of this study indicate that women still seem to be underrepresented at the university level. When compared to men, women were more often (38.8 percent, N 19) serving at the

two-year college level while men were more often chairing university departments (62.6

percent, N=77). Since women proportionately more frequently had Master's degrees, they

had the credentials necessary for two-year colleges. but not for similar positions in

universities. Another encouraging measure was found in the tenure status of women as

compared to men. A majority of women chairpersons (77.6 percent, N=38), as well as men

(79.7 percent, N=98) reported being tenured.

The administrative training of communication chairpersons seems largely to be a

function of informal, extracurricular activities. Respondents reported most frequently

serving on a departmental committee as being the activity which provided the "most

training" prior to the assumption of administrative duties. Although no significant

differences were found in the twelve activities identified as providing training for men and

women, it does appear that women have less administrative training through theatre

management or coaching forensics. Women appear to be underrepresented in forensic

coaching positions at the college level. Women also did not report participation in faculty

in-service programs as providing administrative training. Attention should be directed

toward the fact that both men and women more frequently reported engaging in

preparatory activities that were classified as fulfilling a service function. rather than a

scholarly function. Since 82.9 percent of the chairpersons surveyed indicated that their

institutions provided no orientation to the position as department chair, "on-the-job"

training continues to be prevalent so far as communication chairpersons are concerned.

Communication chairpersons surveyed scored highest in the leadership practices of

Enabling Others to Act and Encouraging the Heart. These two practices are characterized

by shared decision-making, consensus building, and supportive environments. This study

indicates that "feminine" leadership practices are frequently used by communication

chairpersons. There are several explanations why communication chairpersons use

leadership practices more characteristic of feminine leadership style. Perhaps, these

practices are more likely to be typical of communication chairpersons whose academic

backgrounds have provided experiences in conflict resolution, small group, and

interpersonal communication. However, since chairs are often placed in positions to lead

others who hold the same or higher rank, it probably is necessary to use collaborative

techniques to gain cooperation because power does not exist in the same way it occurs in the

traditional hierarchical framework. As Tucker (1992) emphasizes, a department chair

serves as a leader among peers. Those departments whose chairs serve on a rotating basis

would also foster a climate where cooperation is the rule since those who serve as chairs will

someday have those same colleagues overseeing the department.

Another possible explanation for the presence of "feminine" leadership practices in

this study is the nature of higher education itself. Because the shared governance model is more characteristic of the academy than is the hierarchical structure associated with business and industry, the environment in college and university departments may often foster skills that are cooperative rather than competitive. However, the bureaucracy associated with the business world is obviously present to some degree at all colleges and universities. With increasing demands and workloads because of governmental requirements, communication department chairs may resort to collaboration and shared decision-making just to meet deadlines and manage a multiplicity of assignments in an efficient manner.

As a chair's term of office lengthens, then so do the chances of the chair being able to Model the Way. Additionally, if a chair has attained tenure, then the opportunity to Inspire a Shared Vision seems more likely. Whether a communication chair serves at a university, four-year college, or two-year college and whether the chair presides over a small or a large department does not seem to influence the leadership practices used. However, having budgetary and programmatic control increases the likelihood of a chair using the leadership practices of Enabling Others to Act.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

There are several implications that deserve to be investigated in other studies.

Leadership practices of communication chairpersons should be compared to chairs in other

disciplines. Are the practices of communication chairpersons unique to the discipline or do

chairs in other disciplines engage in similar practices with the same frequency? This study

also used biological sex as the determinant of "gender." Studies which use a psychological

measurement of gender may provide added insight into what attributes constitute

"feminine" and "masculine" leadership styles. Additionally, this project was concerned with

"position." As noted by Astin and Leland (1991) many women have been, and currently are

demonstrating leadership roles in "non-positional" situations. How these women exert

influence in non-positional roles would provide more information about decision-making

and leadership.

Further study should be directed toward discovering how leadership practices may

be influenced by institutional size since Tucker's research (1992) indicates there are

differences at the two-year college and the university and four-year college. Since women

are more frequently serving as chairs at two-year colleges, research efforts should be

directed toward analyzing whether or not recruitment efforts at two-year colleges benefit

women more than at the four-year college or university level.

An interesting dimension of a chair's leadership effectiveness not explored in this

study is the opinion of department members about their chairperson's leadership practices.

By surveying department members, their opinions could be compared with the self-perceptions of the chairpersons to see if their views are similar or if they are divergent.

Since there is some indication that women leaders in the academy may, over time, abandon "feminine" leadership practices and adopt "masculine" practices, further inquiry using a longitudinal study of department chairs is recommended. Whether the traditional model based on a masculine concept of power and control is being replaced by a new model based on cooperation and shared decision-making deserves careful investigation.

Efforts to increase the participation of women in administrative roles in Higher Education should continue to be explored. The better use of human potential. the reconceptualization of power, the need for diversity, and the desire to provide more female role models for an increasing population of female students are reasons for pursuing women's participation. Bunch (1991) stresses that the "empowering, cooperative approaches most often associated with women are not exclusively female terrain" (p. xii). Just as she urges that both men and women adopt these "crucial models for leadership in the twenty-first century," so should those serving as communication department chairpersons be encouraged to adopt practices that foster cooperation rather than competition (Bunch. 1991. p. xii).

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Table 1

Activities Providing Administrative Training

Activity	f	Percent
Departmental Committee	51	32.5
Campus Governance	17	10.8
Theatre Management	15	9.6
Basic Course Director	14	8.9
Forensics Coach	13	8.3
Professional Associations	12	7.6
Served as Assistant Chair	11	7.0
Consulting	8	5.1
Graduate Coursework	8	5.1
Faculty In-Service	4	2.5
Read Book	3	1.9
Internship	1	0.6

Table 2

Preparatory Activities Compared by Gender

Activity	Men (N=122)		Women (N=49)	
	f	percent	f	percent
Departmental Committees	33	29.5	18	40.0
Campus Governance	14	12.5	3	6.7
Theatre Management	13	11.6	2	4.4
Basic Course Director	8	7.1	6	13.3
Forensics Coach	12	10.7	1	2.2
Professional Associations	7	6.3	5	11.1
Served as Assistant Chair	8	7.1	3	6.7
Consulting	4	3.6	4	8.9
Graduate Coursework	5	4.5	3	6.7
Faculty In-Service	4	3.6	--	--
Read Book	3	2.7	--	--
Internship	1	0.9	--	--

Table 3

Four Functions Compared by Gender

Function	Male		Female	
	f	Percent	f	Percent
Administrative	21	18.75	5	11.11
Service	58	51.79	30	66.67
Teaching	24	21.43	7	15.56
Scholarship	9	8.04	3	6.67

Table 4

Mean Leadership Practice Scores of Respondents

Practice	All (N 133)	Men (N=93)	Women (N=38)
Challenging	23.21	23.36	22.89
Inspiring	22.51	22.22	23.18
Enabling	26.15	26.46	25.23
Modeling	23.02	23.22	22.63
Encouraging	24.07	24.52	25.34

Table 5

Analysis of Variance of Gender and Length of Term by LPI Scores

		F Value		
Practice	Mean Score	Gender	Term	Gender*Term
Challenging	23.22	.46	1.55	.20
Inspiring	22.50	1.54	2.00	.72
Enabling	26.10	4.13*	2.90*	.29
Modeling	23.06	.89	5.33*	.79
Encouraging	24.76	1.16	1.57	.58

(N=131)

*$p < .05$

Table 6

Analysis of Variance of Budgetary and Programmatic Control by LPI Scores

Practice	Mean	F Value	Mean	F Value
	Budgetary (N=130)		Programmatic (N=130)	
Challenging	23.24	.46	23.23	1.63
Inspiring	22.50	3.57	22.48	0.00
Enabling	26.19	4.74*	26.10	16.33*
Modeling	23.11	1.39	23.05	1.11
Encouraging	24.84	.22	24.76	1.86

*p < .05

Figures
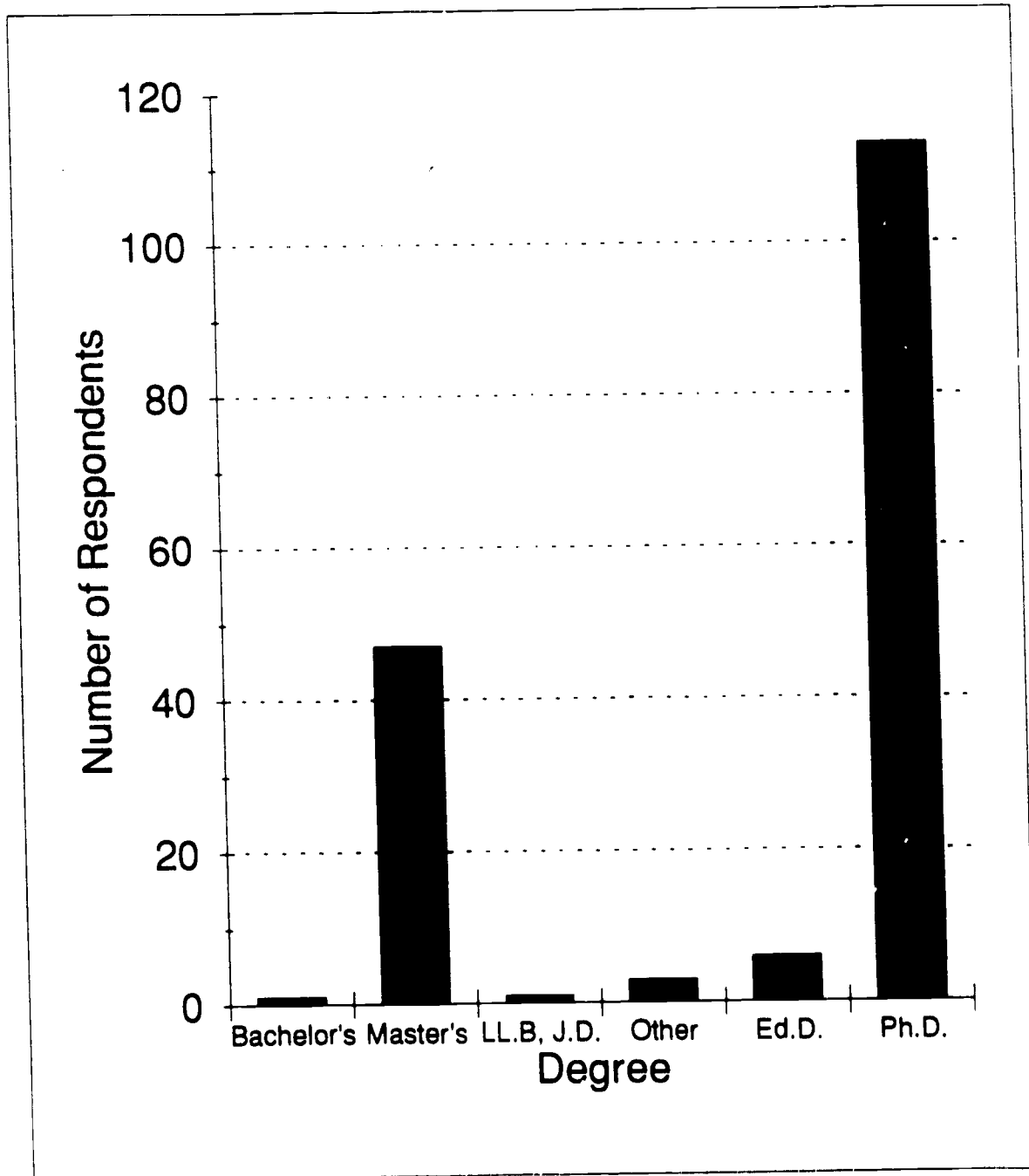
Figure 1. Highest Degree Earned
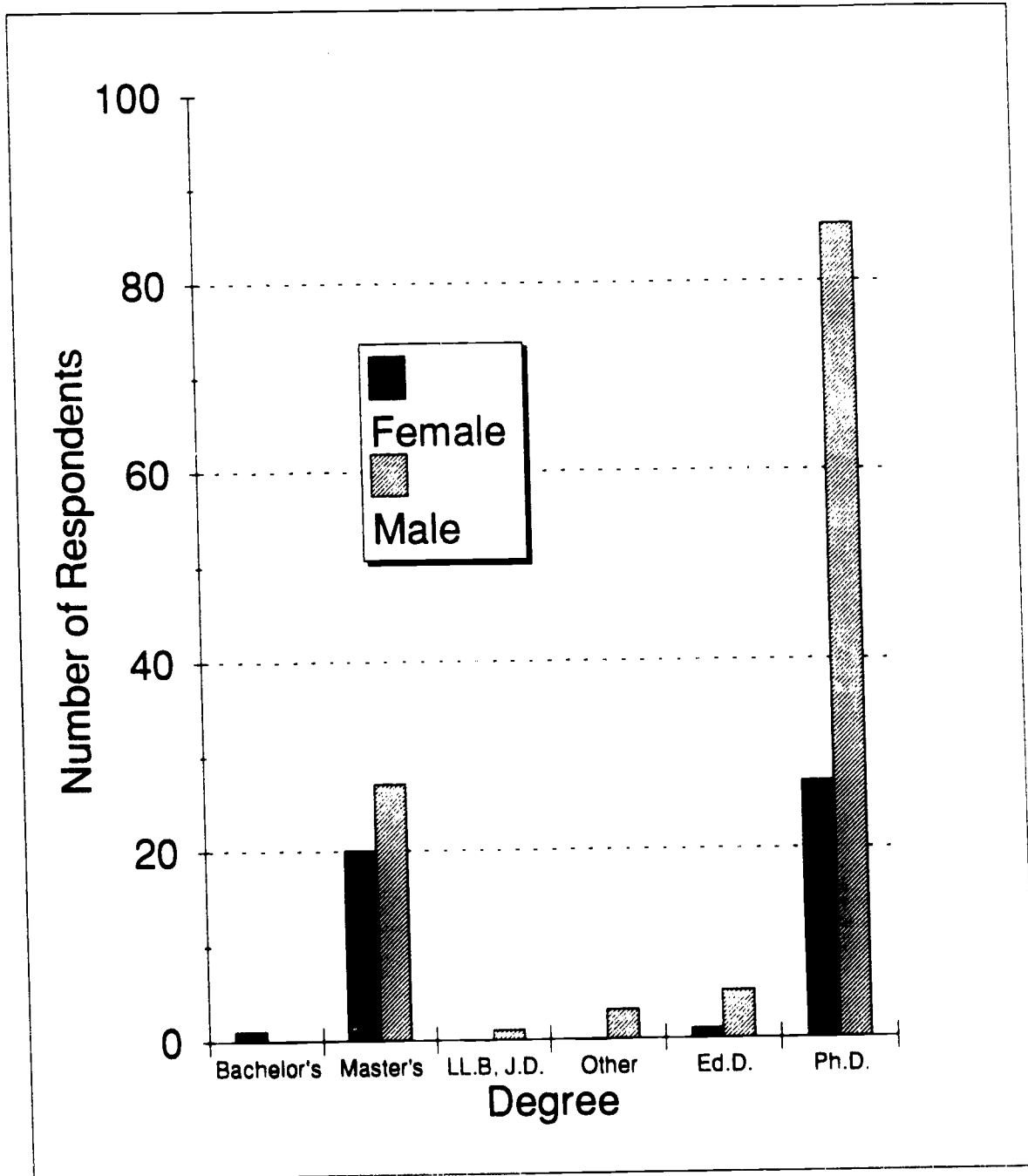
Figure 2. Highest Degree Earned by Gender
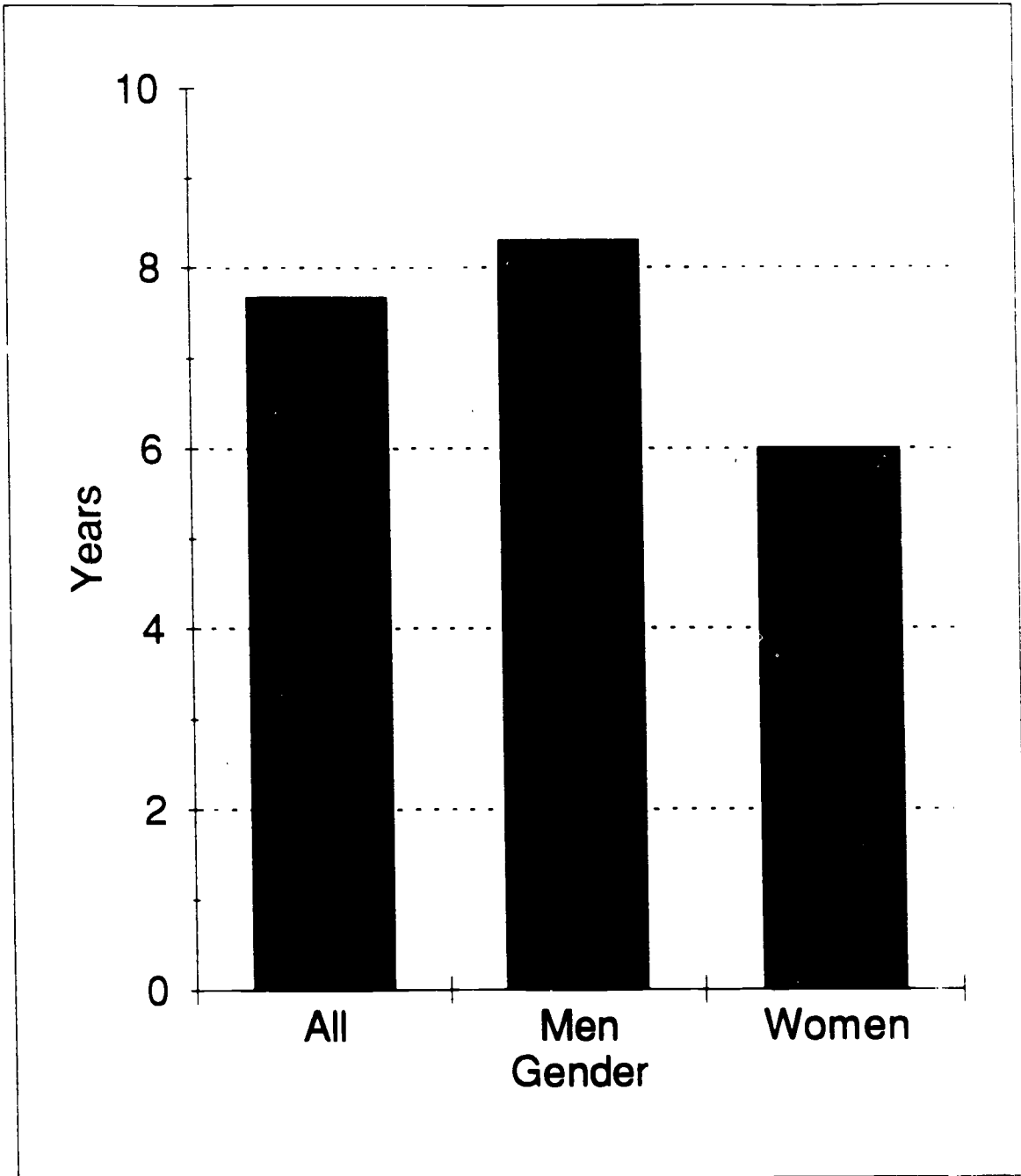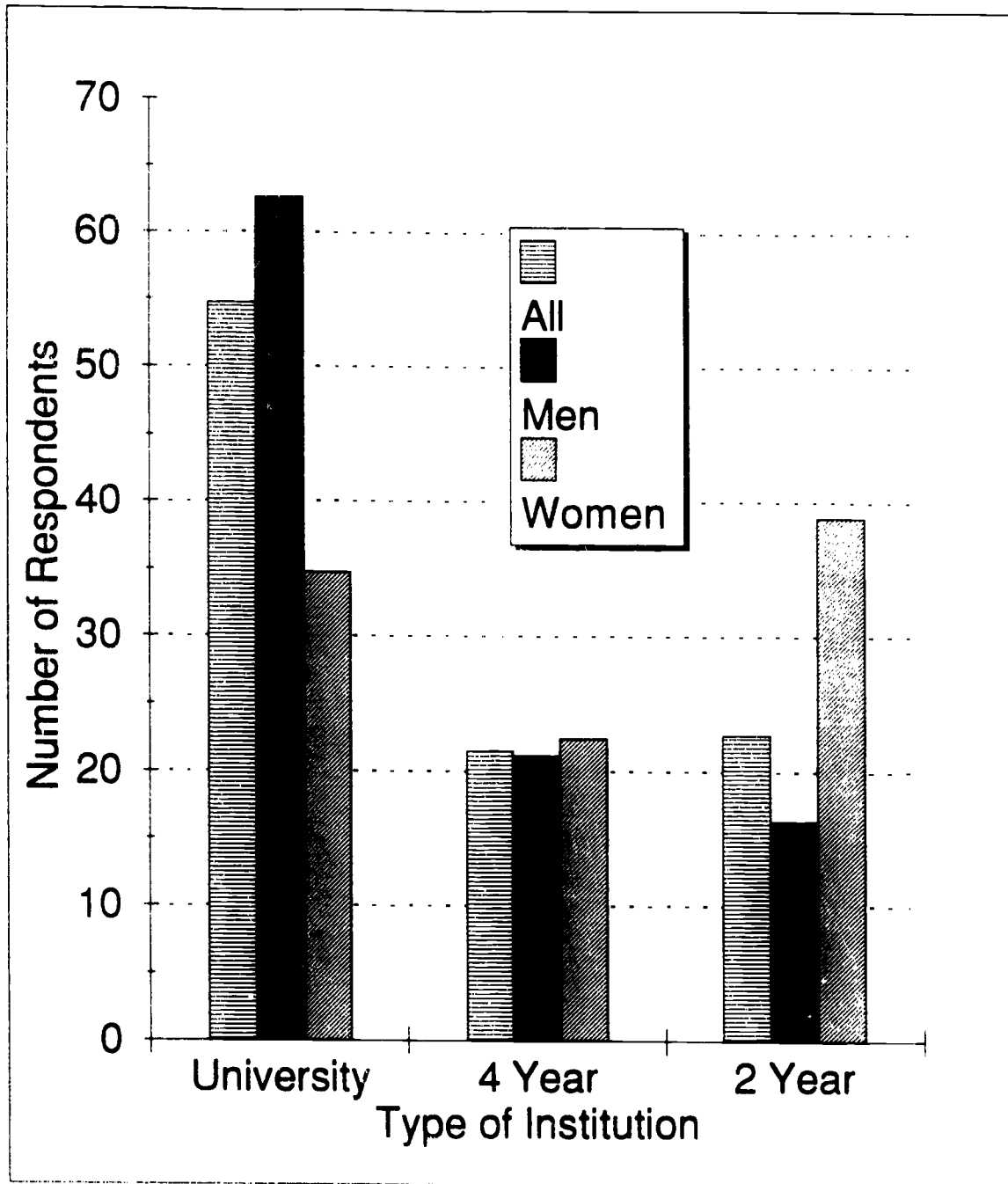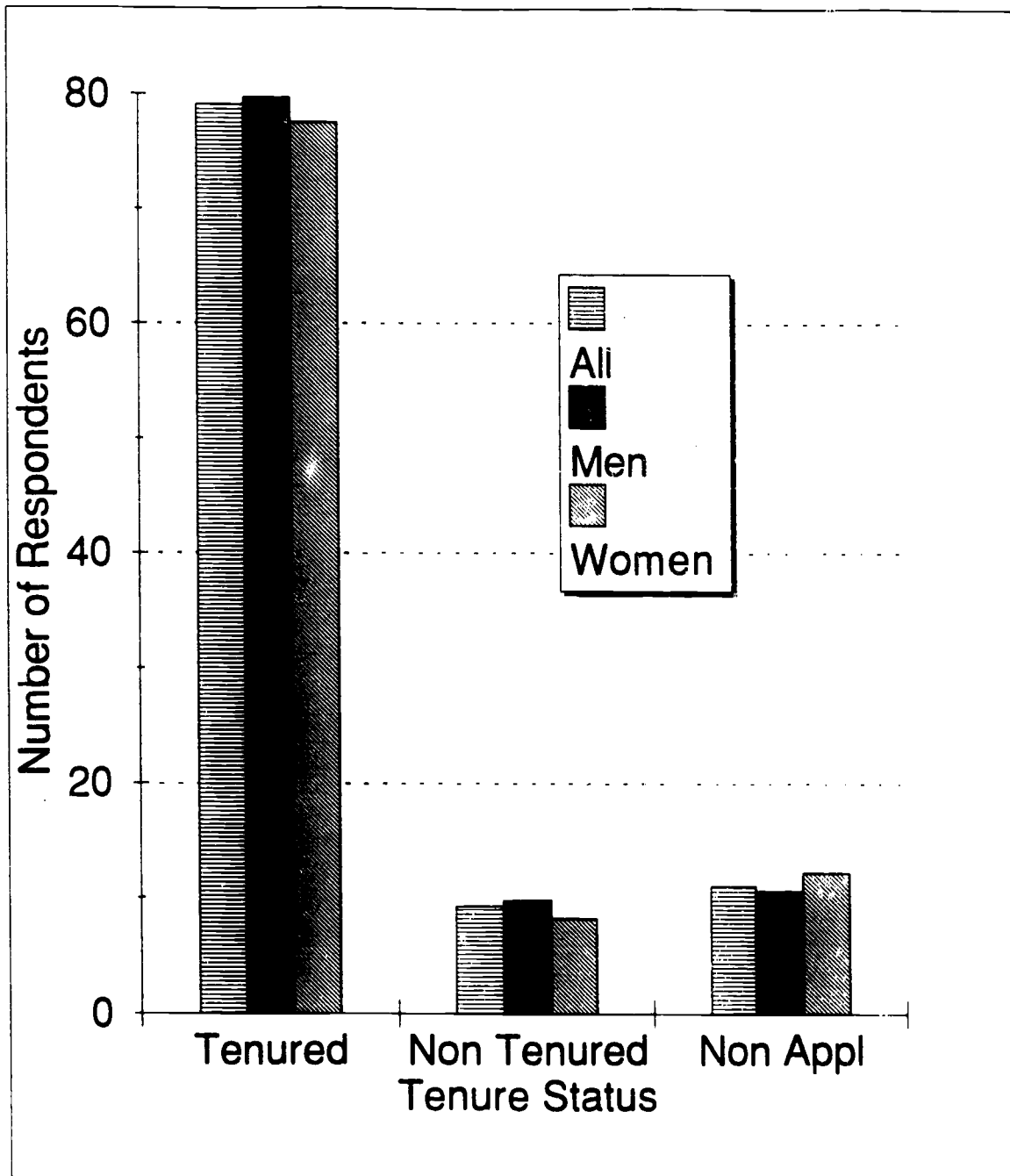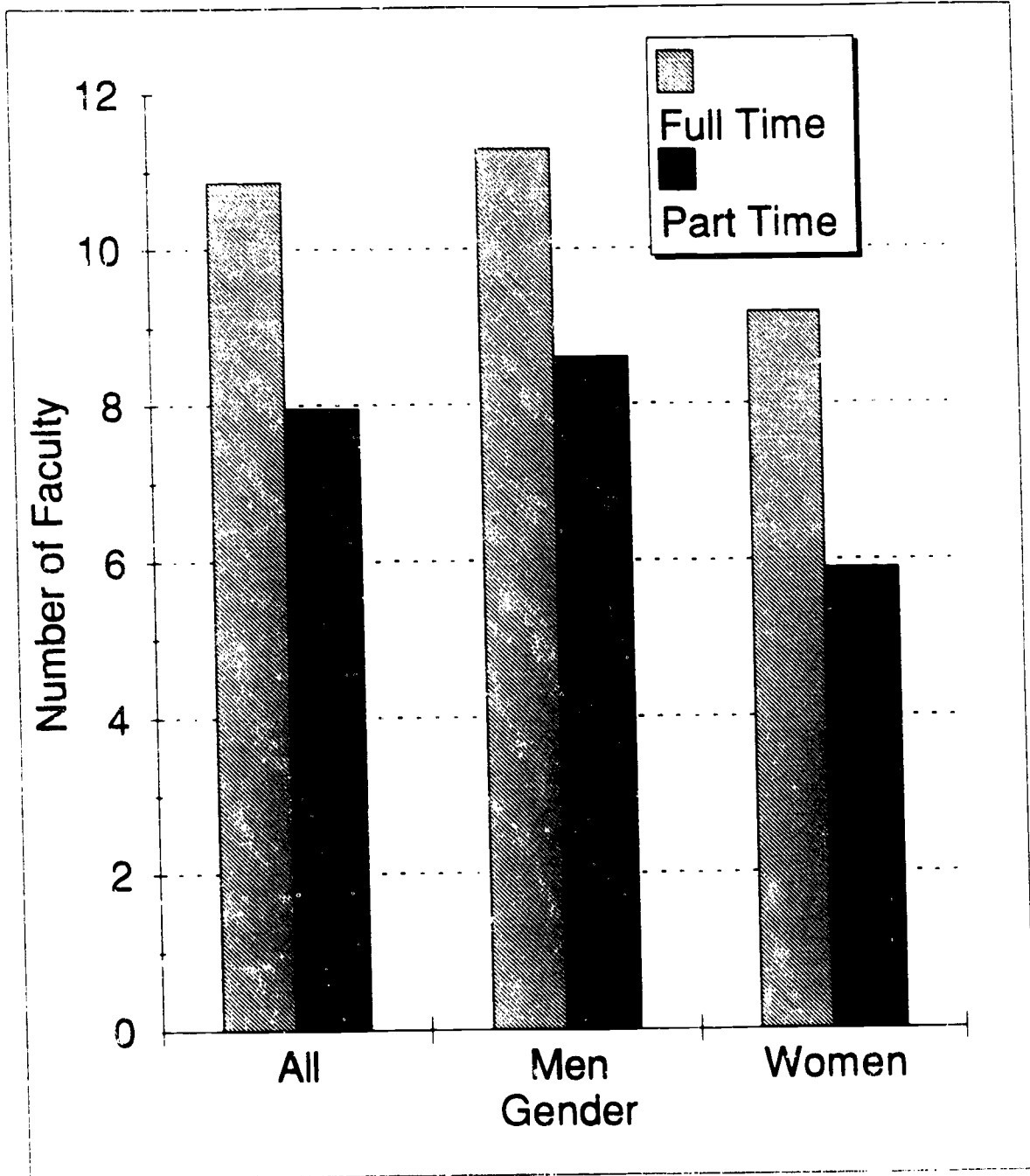
Figure 3. Length of Term

Figure 4. Institutional Size

Figure 5. Tenure

Figure 6. Department Size