



THE PERSPECTIVE AND PRACTICE OF LEADERSHIP BY MANAGERS WITHIN A STATE CORRECTIONAL AGENCY: AN INSTRUMENTAL CASE STUDY

Elizabeth M. Gagnon
Christopher Newport University, USA

This study explores the extent to which the perspective and practice of leadership by managers in a state correctional agency in the southeastern United States reflect the Leadership Perspectives Model (LPM). The LPM is a model of leadership that places leadership perception into five distinct perspectives managers use in their understanding and practice of leadership. Using an instrumental case study method, the research was designed to test the model. The findings of this research reveal that the perspective and practice of leadership by managers within the organization only partially reflect the LPM. Recommendations are made for further refinement of the model to strengthen its usability as a mechanism by which leadership perspectives can be identified and potentially enlarged.

Ambiguous and conflicting definitions of leadership have confounded leadership scholars and practitioners for over 100 years. Leadership is a phenomenon that has been widely debated, prolifically researched, and extensively discussed in the literature, yet its meaning remains elusive. It has been examined in terms of the traits of leaders, the behaviors of leaders, the situations leaders face, the values of the leader, the context in which leadership occurs, and a number of other ways (Yukl, 2006). Attempts to define leadership seem to be contingent upon the context and intent of the individual providing the definition (Pfeffer, 1977). In fact, it has been observed that there are as many definitions of leadership as there are people trying to define it (Bass, 1990).

In many organizations, the terms management and leadership are used interchangeably, suggesting that leadership falls under the purview of management. Some distinguish between the two by asserting that leadership is “good” management (Bennis, 1989; DePree, 1987). Sometimes the two are differentiated by defining management as dealing with tasks, and leadership as dealing with people (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Although the distinction between

management and leadership is often made clear in the literature, it is not always clear in practice (Rost, 1993). The terms are often used interchangeably in practice, and in most organizations managers are called upon to be leaders (Mintzberg, 1973). If these managers do not see a distinction between management and leadership, or do not understand the distinction, the leadership role becomes unclear and potentially less effective. Even when managers do distinguish management from leadership, their definition and understanding of leadership can vary greatly from one manager to another. Thus, in the absence of agreement about what leadership is and who a leader is understood to be, those who practice leadership may do so from very different mindsets (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a; 2004b).

G. W. Fairholm (1998) introduced five distinct perspectives of leadership that he believes managers use to understand and practice leadership. According to G. W. Fairholm, one's perception of leadership can be categorized in terms of scientific management, excellence management, values leadership, trust/cultural leadership, or spiritual (whole soul) leadership. These perspectives are considered to be paradigmatic in scope and, as such, shape the manager's practice of leadership in terms of how leadership is defined, the tools and behaviors used on the job, and the approaches taken toward followers. Initially referred to as the virtual leadership realities model, these perspectives were later more fully developed, operationalized, and tested by M. R. Fairholm (2004a, 2004b), resulting in the emergence of The Leadership Perspectives Model (LPM). The LPM, according to M. R. Fairholm, is both descriptive and prescriptive. It defines how leadership may be perceived by managers who are called upon to be leaders and places these perceptions into an overarching framework. It also prescribes the underlying philosophy, tools, behaviors, and approaches that are necessary to be effective within each perspective.

M. R. Fairholm (2004a) tested the LPM in a study using a sample of managers from local government agencies in the Washington DC metropolitan area. His results supported all five perspectives of leadership. Of the five, he found the strongest support for the perceptions of leadership as scientific management and values leadership, and the weakest support for excellence management and trust cultural leadership. Spiritual (whole-soul) leadership was moderately supported. M. R. Fairholm recommended further study to validate his findings that all five perspectives exist and that individuals can and do move through the perspectives. This study is a response to M. R. Fairholm's call to further explore the nature of the LPM. The purpose of this study and the research question it analyzes is: To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by managers within a state correctional agency reflect the Leadership Perspectives Model.

This research is important in validating the model as operationalized so that it can be used to inform leadership training. If research can verify that managers have different perceptions of leadership and these perceptions can be categorized and defined, then leadership development training can be focused on helping individuals to enlarge their perception of leadership and provide training on the tools and behaviors and the approaches to followers that are inherent in each perception.

The model may have global implications as well. If the perception of leadership by managers within a single state agency is shown to vary, then the perception of leadership by managers within global organizations will most likely have an even greater variance. Greater still may be the differences in perceptions of leadership across cultures. The Leadership Perspectives Model, if fully developed, may provide a useful tool in understanding leadership from the perspective of leaders in various cultures. According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) leaders

across cultures are increasingly confronted with problems that require cooperation for their solution. However, these individuals may approach such problems in different ways based on how they understand leadership and their individual roles as leaders. These differences must be explored and understood for solutions to be effective, and the Leadership Perspectives Model holds promise as a tool for such exploration and understanding.

Perspectival Leadership Theory

The leadership perspectives model is based on perspectival leadership theory, a theory developed by G. W. Fairholm (1998) based on prevailing leadership literature. Perspectival leadership theory acknowledges that individuals often have different understandings of leadership and will practice leadership based on these understandings. G. W. Fairholm developed perspectival leadership theory using Barker's (1992) notion of employing paradigms to understand organizational realities. Paradigms are the realities an individual uses to explain a phenomenon. Whether the paradigm is "right" is of no consequence; as long as the paradigm is useful in explaining the phenomenon, the individual will hold on to it. When the paradigm no longer works, usually because the individual realizes that it can no longer explain the phenomenon, the individual will shift to another paradigm (Kuhn, 1996). G. W. Fairholm contended that individuals hold leadership paradigms that influence the "values, beliefs, traditional practices, methods, tools, attitudes and behaviors... [as well as] ...leadership practice, laws, theories, applications and work relationships in a corporation or team" that individuals possess (1998, pp. xvi-xvii). Thus, the way one defines and practices leadership is shaped by his or her paradigm. G. W. Fairholm identified five paradigms of leadership that individuals hold: leadership as scientific management; leadership as excellence management, values leadership, trust cultural leadership, and spiritual (whole-soul) leadership. Each of these paradigms was identified and categorized by G. W. Fairholm through a review of the leadership literature. The following section briefly outlines the literature that was used as the foundation for each perspective, followed by a discussion of how each perspective has been operationalized into the Leadership Perspectives Model.

Leadership as Scientific Management

The evolution of management dates back to the early 1900s and the conception of scientific management (Taylor, 1912, 1919). Taylor recognized the propensity to look for a "great man" to head an organization and then leave the details of running the organization to him. The success of the organization, according to Taylor, is then dependent upon the ability of the man at the helm, placing a great deal of power in the hands of that individual. According to Taylor, this scenario creates inefficiencies within the organization. While acknowledging that "great men" are needed, he also introduced the proposition that the system itself must be structured and managed in a way that creates efficiency. To this end, Taylor introduced the principles of scientific management with three objectives: to point out the great inefficiency in organizations; to proffer that the remedy for such inefficiency lies in systematic management; and to prove that the best management techniques lie in the foundations of science.

The tenets of scientific management sparked a series of studies to determine the one best way to complete organizational tasks for optimal efficiency. These studies were steeped theoretically in the rational model of science, which deems that everything can be measured and

quantified. In the management realm, observation and measurement of production processes resulted in standardization of these processes for maximum efficiency. Under this scenario, the manager was tasked with ensuring that the staffing and incentive systems were in place to motivate workers to perform the standardized processes. The term POSDCORB—planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting—was developed as a mnemonic to summarize the tasks of management (Gulick & Urwick, 1937). In the early studies, workers were considered a part of the process that needed to be managed for efficiency.

Drucker (1954) defined management by virtue of its function within the organization. The primary function of management, according to Drucker, is economic performance, and the tasks of economic performance are: 1) managing the business; 2) managing the managers; and 3) managing the workers and the work. Furthermore, Drucker asserted that management can be learned through "... the systematic study of principles, the acquisition of organized knowledge and the systematic analysis of his own performance in all areas of his work and job and on all levels of management" (Drucker, 1954, p. 9).

McGregor (in Bennis & Schein, 1966) agreed that the primary objective of a manager is to achieve organizational objectives and that the tasks of a manager can be learned. However, McGregor asserted that managers needed to learn proper motivation techniques in order to incent their workers to achieve the highest possible level of production. For McGregor, management was defined as setting the organizational structure, objectives, tasks, and processes; while leadership was concerned with the relations based behavior that is necessary to achieve the objectives. Thus, while Drucker made no distinction between management and leadership, McGregor made a clear distinction between the two.

The confusion regarding leadership and management became even more apparent after Burns (1978) clearly identified leadership as separate from management, causing scholars to search for new approaches to understanding leadership. Still, the "leadership as management syndrome" (Rost, 1993, p. 132) continues today, despite many efforts to distinguish between the two (see also Barker, 1992; Fiedler & Chemers, 1974; Follet, 1949; Zaleznik, 1977). As a result of the confusion in the literature, and among scholars and practitioners, the perspective many individuals hold of leadership is that it is management in some capacity. Even if leadership is seen as a role of management, the two go hand-in-hand for individuals with the scientific management perspective. Thus, the focus of managers and/or leaders is on the POSDCORB functions as well as worker motivation, incentive and control. At this level of understanding, the concepts of leadership and management are used interchangeably.

Leadership as Excellence Management

A more evolved perception of leadership is that it defines not only management, but good management. In this perspective, the focus is on excellence within the organization, and "excellent" management is considered leadership (G. W. Fairholm, 1998). Although the origins of some of the ideas behind organizational excellence can be traced to Barnard (1964) who defined good management as shaping the values of individuals within organizations, the excellence movement itself was ignited by Peters and Waterman (1982). In their book, *In Search of Excellence*, Peters and Waterman outlined the attributes that characterize excellent organizations and proffered that leaders in the excellence tradition are focused on the ability and creativity of employees throughout the organization as a mechanism for producing excellent products and services.

The total quality management (TQM) movement of the 1980s was closely related to excellence management. With the aim of "...transforming the style of American management" Deming (1988, p. ix) introduced the tenets of quality management to United States businesses. Although "management by walking around" (MBWA) was a foundation of the excellence movement (Peters & Austin, 1985; Peters & Waterman, 1982), Deming found it to be lacking as a form of leadership. According to Deming, walking around is not enough; the leader must know when to pause, when to ask questions, and what questions to ask. An important component of Deming's approach is that it requires leadership, rather than mere management. The aim of leadership, according to Deming, is to improve performance and quality, to increase production and to instill pride of workmanship among employees. In this capacity leaders do not find and correct errors, they help people to do their job well.

In an analysis of scientific management versus excellent management, the two are sometimes considered to be at opposite ends of the same continuum, with Deming's work capitalizing on and extending Taylor's work (Washbush, 2002). Washbush contended that Taylor's work in scientific management made great strides in helping managers to efficiently structure organizational systems, while Deming taught them how to improve those systems. The work of leadership, according to Deming (1988), is the work that creates excellence within an organization. Thus, some may view leadership as excellence management. Excellence is about change – change within the leader, the followers and the organization itself. The values that are necessary for such change are the foundation of the next perspective, values leadership.

Values Leadership

In the 1980s and 1990s, leadership research began focusing on the relationships that leaders were engaged in and the values inherent in those relationships. This values-based focus differed from previous approaches in that the focal point of the leader is not on production and efficiency; rather it focuses on the people themselves. While acknowledging that organizations have an underlying purpose that requires productivity, values-based approaches differ dramatically in the ways in which productivity is pursued (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985a, 1985b; Burns, 1978, 2003; DePree, 1987; G. W. Fairholm, 1998; Greenleaf, 1977). The theories inherent in values leadership acknowledge the transactional and transforming nature of leadership (Burns, 1978), as well as the transformational nature of leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985a, 1985b). These theories primarily view the leader as a servant (Frick & Spears, 1996; Greenleaf, 1977) who focuses on the needs of followers as a mechanism to raise the leader, the follower and the organization itself to higher levels of performance. In the values approach, a clear distinction is made between management and leadership (DePree, 1987; Rost, 1993). Although principles of management are acknowledged as important and necessary, leadership is viewed as the vital factor that moves organizations to meet the challenges of a global economy, rapid technological changes, and an increasingly educated and demanding workforce (Rost, 1993).

According to G. W. Fairholm, values-based leadership is uncomplicated. "It is leader action to create a culture supportive of values that leads to mutual growth and enhanced self-determination" (1998, p. 61). Within the perspectival approach to leadership, M. R. Fairholm (2004a) sees values leadership as a bridge between the lower level perspectives of scientific management and excellence management, and the higher order perspectives of trust cultural leadership and spiritual (whole-soul) leadership.

Trust Cultural Leadership

Schein (1993) defined the creation of culture as the most important thing that a leader must do. The leader creates culture by defining and inculcating shared values and beliefs within the organization. According to Schein, values define what is right and wrong; while beliefs define what people expect to happen as a result of their actions. The shared values and beliefs held by the individuals within the organization become the culture of the organization. Each organization has a culture; and the responsibility for defining and shaping it lies with the leader.

In the trust culture perspective of leadership, the leader shares the creation and maintenance of culture with the followers. It is the first perspective that recognizes that the follower has an integral role in the leadership process. In this perspective, the focus is on the interaction between the leaders and the followers; with the followers influencing both the leader-follower relationship and the culture of the organization (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a). In the trust culture perspective, followers are viewed as capable individuals who are eager and able to engage with the leader in a relationship that promotes the success of both the organization and the individuals within the organization. The hallmark of the relationship is that the follower is not compelled through management mechanisms to participate in the relationship. Instead, the follower voluntarily participates because of the trust he or she has in the leader and in the organization itself.

The voluntary nature of the relationship makes this perspective substantially different from the perspectives that come before it. Followers choose to follow because they trust that the leader will lead with integrity and honesty. In this environment of trust, there is less need for the control mechanisms used in management to motivate followers to do their job. Followers do their job because they want to, and they are confident that their contribution is important to the success of the organization, the success of their coworkers, and to their own, individual success. According to G. W. Fairholm (1998), trust is the single-most important factor that separates leadership from management. In the absence of the trust culture, the only avenue left is management. Thus, without trust, leadership is impossible.

Spiritual (Whole Soul) Leadership

Spirituality, as defined by G. W. Fairholm (1998, 2000), refers to the whole being—the essence of who we are. Thus, spiritual leaders are leaders who are concerned with the whole person. G. W. Fairholm suggested that individuals do not compartmentalize their being into professional and personal selves; when an individual comes to work his whole being comes to work. The spiritual part of this being contains morality, values, integrity, creativity, and intelligence. While the work of management has traditionally been to create conformity and uniformity in the workplace; spiritual leadership seeks to remove conformity and uniformity and to celebrate the whole person.

The foundation of spiritual leadership is servant leadership. Servant leadership was first introduced by Greenleaf (1977) in response to his reading of Hesse's *Journey to the East* (1956). In this story, the great servant, Leo, turned out to be a great and noble leader. Greenleaf suggested that the leader, as a servant, is one who will "make sure that other people's highest priority needs are being served" (1977, p. 15). According to G. W. Fairholm, "this model values the education, inspiration and development of others. To function in this way, leaders need a

change of heart - of spirit - not just technique. The model of spiritual leadership asks leaders to put those they serve first and let everything else take care of itself" (1998, p. 118). The servant leader views leadership not as position or status, but as an opportunity to help others to reach their full potential. To this end, the servant leader is willing to allow others to be the focal point in the organization, rather than the leader himself (Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004). The primary goal of spiritual leadership is the continual improvement of both the individuals and the organization, so that all are transformed into higher levels of being.

Spirituality in the workplace has begun to receive a great deal of attention in the literature, although it is considered to be a theory in its infancy (Dent, Higgins, & Wharff, 2005). In an analysis of 87 scholarly articles on spiritual leadership, Dent, Higgins and Wharff found that the most advanced theories on the topic are those developed by G. W. Fairholm (2000) and Fry (2003), and they found that more confirmatory work needs to be done on each of these models.

Conclusions Regarding Perspectival Approach

G. W. Fairholm (1998) identified five perspectives of leadership and devoted a great deal of study and research to the development of each perspective. The lower level perspectives are clearly founded in the literature regarding scientific management (Taylor, 1912, 1919), excellence management (Deming, 1988; Peters & Austin, 1985; Peters & Waterman, 1982), and values leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985a; Burns, 1978, 2003). The higher level perspectives of trust culture leadership and spiritual (whole-soul) leadership represent newer approaches that are recognized in the literature, but are less defined and understood (Burke et al., 2007; Dent et al., 2005; G. W. Fairholm, 2000; Fry, 2003; Gini, 1997; Greenleaf, 1977). Although G. W. Fairholm makes a strong argument that each perspectives exists, there has been little research to support this claim. His work defined each perspective, but did not operationalize the model in a way that could be tested. As a result, the perspectival approach to leadership described by G. W. Fairholm, and the use of the virtual leadership realities as a model of leadership, lacked validity as a theory with well defined constructs and propositions that could be tested until 2004, when the model was used in a study of municipal managers.

M. R. Fairholm (2004a) explored the extent to which the leadership perspectives discussed by G. W. Fairholm's in his virtual realities model of leadership exist within managers in local government organizations. The purpose of M. R. Fairholm's study was two-fold. First, he defined and operationalized the model so that it could be explored through research efforts. Second, he conducted research to determine if the model as operationalized did, in fact, exist within his sample. The resulting Leadership Perspectives Model is discussed in the following section.

Leadership Perspectives Model

The Leadership Perspectives Model (LPM) as developed by M. R. Fairholm (2004a, 2004b) placed the propositions of perspectival approach into a model that could be operationalized and tested. He first defined of each of the five perspectives in the following general terms:

1. *Leadership as Scientific Management* – Leadership equals management in that it focuses on getting others to do work the leader wants done, essentially separating the planning (management) from the doing (labor).
2. *Leadership as Excellence Management* – Leadership emphasizes the importance of quality and process improvement rather than mere production, and the importance of people over either product or process, and requires the management of values, attitudes, and organizational aims within a framework of quality improvement.
3. *Values Leadership* – Leadership is the integration of group behavior with shared values through setting values and teaching them to followers through an articulated vision that leads to excellent products and service, mutual growth and enhanced self-determination.
4. *Trust Cultural Leadership* – Leadership is a process of building trust cultures within which the leader and follower (in an essentially voluntary relationship, even perhaps, from a variety of individual cultural contexts) relate to each other to accomplish mutually valued goals using agreed-upon processes.
5. *Spiritual (Whole Soul) Leadership* – Leadership is the integration of the components of work and self – of the leader and each follower – into a comprehensive system that fosters continuous growth, improvement, self awareness, and self-leadership so that the leader sees each worker as a whole person with a variety of skills, knowledge and abilities that invariably go beyond the narrow confines of job needs.

Although these general descriptions are helpful in understanding M. R. Fairholm's conception of each perspective, more definition was required to operationalize the perspectives into a testable model. Thus, M. R. Fairholm (2004a, 2004b) determined that each perspective could be defined using three specific and unique operational elements: (a) implementation description focuses on how one describes leadership; (b) tools and behaviors focuses on how one implements leadership; and (c) approach to followers focuses on how one interacts with others. These elements reflect the fundamental proposition of the LPM that that the way an individual defines leadership, categorized as implementation description in the model, will affect the tools and behaviors used on the job and the approach taken toward followers. Thus, he proposes an individual can be "typed" into a perspective using the three elements collectively. Each element is further defined and operationalized into variables, as depicted in Table 1.

The five leadership perspectives of the LPM are each distinct, but they also relate in a hierarchical manner from the lowest order perspective of scientific management, to the highest order perspective of whole-soul leadership. Each perspective is true in that it depicts a certain aspect of leadership, but it is the five taken together that provide the full picture of leadership. The hierarchical nature of the model is intended to convey that each perspective encompasses those below it. Thus, as a leader moves up the hierarchy, he or she takes all of the concepts, methods and behaviors of the lower order perspective. Figure 1 depicts the LPM as conceived by M. R. Fairholm.

Table 1

Key Variables for Operational Elements of Each Leadership Perspective

	Implementation Description	Tools and Behaviors	Approach to Followers
Scientific Management	<p><i>Efficiency</i>- Ensure efficient use of resources to ensure group activity is controlled and predictable.</p> <p><i>Productivity</i> - Ensure verifiably optimal productivity and resource allocation.</p>	<p><i>Measurement of Individual</i> – Measure, appraise, and reward individual performance.</p> <p><i>Organizing</i> – Organize work to include such activities as budgeting and staffing</p> <p><i>Planning</i> – Plan work to include such activities as coordination and reporting.</p>	<p><i>Incentivization</i> – Provide incentives for performance.</p> <p><i>Control</i> – Apply control mechanisms to insure that work is completed properly and on time.</p> <p><i>Direction</i> – Provide direction for task completion.</p>
Excellence Management	<p><i>Continuous Process Improvement</i> - Foster continuous process improvement environment for increased service productivity.</p> <p><i>Transform</i> - Transform the environment and perceptions followers to encourage innovation, high quality products, and excellent services.</p>	<p><i>Process Improvement</i> –Focusing on process improvement.</p> <p><i>Listen</i> – Listen actively.</p> <p><i>Accessibility</i> – Being accessible (to include such things as management by walking around, and open door policies).</p>	<p><i>Motivation</i> – Motivate employees to higher levels of performance.</p> <p><i>Engage People</i> – Engage employees in problem definition and solution.</p> <p><i>Courtesy</i> – Express common courtesy and respect.</p>
Values Leadership	<p><i>Proactive Contributors</i> - Help individuals become proactive contributors to group action based on shared values and agreed upon goals</p> <p><i>High Performance</i> - Encourage high organizational performance and self-led followers</p>	<p><i>Values Setting</i> – Setting and enforcing values.</p> <p><i>Visioning</i> – Creating an organizational vision</p> <p><i>Communicating Vision</i> – Focusing communications around the vision.</p>	<p><i>Values prioritization</i>– Prioritize values for employees.</p> <p><i>Teaching</i> – Provide teaching and coaching to employees.</p> <p><i>Empower</i> – Foster ownership by empowering employees to determine the best way to achieve their goals.</p>
Trust Cultural Leadership	<p><i>Mutual Trust</i> - Ensure cultures conducive to mutual trust and unified collective action.</p> <p><i>Cultural Values</i> - Prioritization of mutual cultural values and organizational conduct in terms of those values.</p>	<p><i>Creating Culture</i> – Creating and maintaining culture through visioning.</p> <p><i>Sharing Governance</i> – Sharing governance through mutually agreed upon goals and processes.</p> <p><i>Measurement of Groups</i> – Measuring, appraising, and rewarding group performance.</p>	<p><i>Trust</i> – Develop an environment of mutual trust.</p> <p><i>Team Building</i> – Foster an environment where individuals work together.</p> <p><i>Shared Culture</i> – Create an organizational culture that all members can be part of regardless of various subcultures that may exist within the organization.</p>
Spiritual (Whole Soul) Leadership	<p><i>Concern for Whole Person</i> - Relate to individuals so that concern for the whole person is paramount in raising each other to higher levels of awareness and action.</p> <p><i>Continuous Self and Organizational Improvement</i> - Best in people is liberated in a context of continuous improvement of self, culture, and service delivery.</p>	<p><i>Individual Wholeness</i> – Developing and enabling individual wholeness in a community (team) context.</p> <p><i>Intelligent Organization</i> – Fostering an intelligent organization that allows for creativity, new patterns of thinking, learning.</p> <p><i>Morals</i> – Setting moral standards.</p>	<p><i>Inspiration</i> – Create an environment that inspires individuals to do more for the organization.</p> <p><i>Liberation</i> – Liberate followers to build community and promote stewardship.</p> <p><i>Service</i> – Model a service orientation.</p>

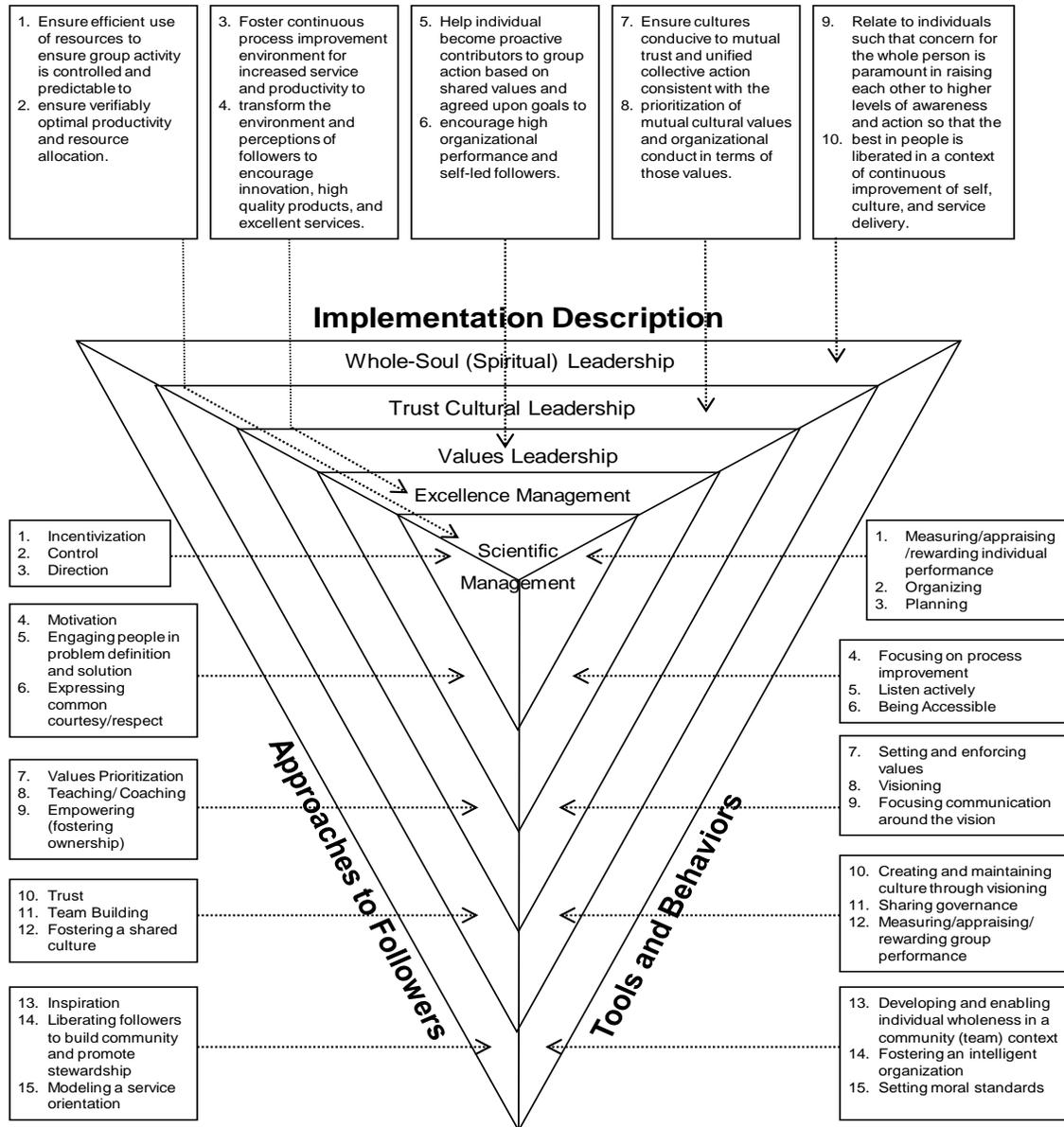


Figure 1. Leadership Perspectives Model with Variables.

Method

M. R. Fairholm (2004a) conducted a qualitative study to determine if the five perspectives of leadership proposed in the model existed among public managers from local government agencies. He performed a content analysis of 103 essays written by middle and upper level public managers from the District of Columbia government. He also interviewed an additional 30 lower, middle, and upper level public managers from local governments in Arlington, Virginia, the District of Columbia, and Prince Georges County, Maryland. The essays used in his study were written as part of the application process for entrance into the Program in Excellence in Municipal Management (PEMM) at The George Washington University. The interviews were conducted with 10 managers from District of Columbia municipal government agencies who were graduates of PEMM and 20 public managers who were not involved in the program. In his findings, M. R. Fairholm found support for the LPM, with evidence of all five perspectives found in both the content analysis of the essays and the interviews. His research was designed to determine if the model could be supported, and he was able to convincingly support the model. However, in order to further test the reliability of the model, the study must be replicated and extended (Patton, 2002).

Replication duplicates previous work in an effort to increase generalizability of research findings. Replication is done using the same methods on the same population. Replication with extension means that the study is extended to another population, level of analysis, time frame, or geographical location to determine the extent to which findings may be generalizable to a larger population (Hubbard, Vetter, & Little, 1998). Such research is critical to knowledge development and considered to be “the route to determining whether research results are useful and can be applied to practical problems” (Hubbard et al., 1998). This replication of M. R. Fairholm’s study maintains the public sector focus, but extends to a different population (employees from a single government agency), at a different level of analysis (state government), in a different geographical location, during a different time frame to determine the extent to which M. R. Fairholm’s findings were generalizable to a larger population.

Perhaps the most distinct difference in the replication effort was that the sample was taken from a single agency, rather than numerous smaller agencies. This allowed for a better understanding of how the sample participants might be influenced by the context and culture of their organization, a variable that is difficult to gauge in a study of multiple organizations across three geographical areas. However, using a single organization meant that the organization had to be large enough to draw a sample from numerous functional areas to alleviate bias toward a specific job function. A large correctional agency in the Southeastern region of the United States provided a population large enough to contain the study within one organization, and still provide the depth (level of management) and scope (job function) required.

Research Setting and Sample

The research in this study was conducted with managers from a large correctional agency in the Southeastern region of the United States. The organization employs approximately 13,000 individuals who staff 43 probation and parole districts, 32 major institutions, 16 work centers, 4 detention centers, 5 diversion centers, 3 regional offices and an academy of staff development. As a public sector organization focused on public safety, the agency has strict policies and procedures in place that all employees must adhere to. However, each member of the managerial

staff has access to ongoing leadership training that focuses largely on building relationships with subordinates, peers, and superiors in an effort to apply principles of leadership to their managerial structure. Thus, the managerial structure of the organization is balanced with a strong concern for the wellbeing of the people connected to the organization; both employees and those they serve.

The organization is comprised of five separate divisions that manage the daily operations of the correctional system: The Operations Division focuses on management of institutions; the Community Corrections Division focuses on probation and parole; the Administration Division focuses on general support of the agency to include procurement, privatization projects, and architectural and engineers services; the Inspector General Division focuses on internal auditing and special investigations; and the Human Resources Division focuses on employment, benefits and staff development. The sample for this research was purposefully selected from managers within the Operations, Community Corrections, and Administrative Divisions. Managers within these divisions have similar job responsibilities across levels of management, and the divisions are structured in a similar hierarchy. The sample contains 18 managers from institutions, 18 managers from community corrections, and 19 managers from administration, for a total of 55 participants. Managers were included from the lower, middle and upper levels of management. These levels are balanced as equally as possible, with 14 participants from upper management, 21 participants from middle management, and 20 participants from lower level management. The upper managerial level has less representation because there are fewer employees at that level. Managerial level was established with a point of contact in the human resources department of the agency by associating each job title with a managerial level and coordinating the levels across departments. Table 2 provides the breakdown of the sample stratified by division and level of management.

Table 2

Purposeful Sample Stratified by Division and Level of Management

	Institutions Division	Community Corrections	Administration Division	Total Participants
Upper Management	4	4	6	14
Middle Management	7	7	7	21
Lower Management	7	7	6	20
Total Participants	18	18	19	55

Data Collection and Analysis

The research design for this study was developed to streamline data collection and analysis so that a single researcher was able to complete the study. Thus, validity was built into the design through the use of a pre-structured case study design, with semi-structured interview questions, and a predefined, descriptive coding scheme. A pre-structured case is one in which the conceptual framework is precise, the research questions are explicit, and the investigator has a

clear sense of the data that needs to be collected (Miles & Huberman, 1994). According to Miles and Huberman, when those factors are in place, qualitative data collection procedures can be streamlined to reduce the amount of time and resources required for data reduction and sense-making. The LPM provided a concise conceptual framework with the constructs, operational elements and variables explicitly defined (see Table 1). Since the research question sought to determine the extent to which the model is reflected in the sample, the only data of interest were those that explicitly related to the model. Thus, structured interview questions were designed to map specifically to the constructs of the model, with follow-up questions used for clarification. In this manner, the interviewer was able to collect data that clearly evaluated the constructs of the model and could be analyzed using a descriptive, pre-defined coding scheme.

Descriptive coding entails minimal interpretation and is used to attribute a phenomenon to a segment of text (Miles & Huberman, 1994), allowing for the data to be coded by a single researcher. The list of descriptive codes was predefined to identify both the leadership perspective and the operational element of the construct found in the segment of text, resulting in 15 codes. For example, when asked how a manager would engage followers in a departmental project, the comment "I would determine the tasks that need to be accomplished and assigned them to the most qualified individual" would be coded as "SMAF" meaning, scientific management (SM) approach to followers (AF), because this comment clearly indicates the approach of directing, a variable that falls into the SMAF category. Content that did not fall clearly into one of the 15 categories was not used for this study.

A limitation in the original study (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a) was that support was found for each operational element if any hits were found within the elements. Similarly, the perspectives were found to be supported if any subject typed within the perspective. As a result, an element with few hits was deemed as being represented and supportive of the model in the same way that an element with many hits was represented. Since M. R. Fairholm was focused on determining the existence of both elements and perspectives, this was a reasonable methodology for his purposes. However, for this study, cut points were established to determine the strength of support for each element and each perspective, and to provide a mechanism by which comparison could be made.

Cut points were established by dividing the number of data categories by 100. Any number above that result indicated strong support. The result was then divided by two to find the cut points for weak and strong support. For example, there were five leadership perspectives and five divided by 100 is equal to 20, and 20 divided by two is equal to 10. Thus, for the five leadership perspectives strong support was indicated with more than 20 percent of the hits, moderate support was indicated with 10 to 20 percent of the hits, and weak support was indicated with less than 10 percent of the hits. When looking at the three operational elements, strong support was indicated with more than 33 percent, moderate support was indicated with 17 to 33 percent, and weak support was indicated with less than 17 percent of the hits. When looking at all operational elements of all perspectives, there are 15 categories. Strong support was indicated with more than seven percent of the hits, moderate support was indicated with four to seven percent of the hits, and weak support was indicated with less than four percent of the hits. The following section further discusses how the data were analyzed and presents the findings.

Findings

The demographics of the sample closely resembled the population of the organization. The sample contained 65 percent males and 35 percent females. The ethnicity of the sample was 78 percent Caucasian, 20 percent African American, and 2 percent Asian. Data that were collected at the ordinal level revealed that the median age range of the subjects to was 50 to 54 years of age. Subjects had been in their current position for a median range of 0 to 5 years, and they had been a manager for a median range of 16 to 20 years. Ninety percent of the subjects held different management positions within the organization, while ten percent did not. Fifty-five percent of the subjects held positions with other government agencies prior to employment with the organization, while 45 percent did not. Thirty six percent of the subjects held positions in private industry prior to their employment with the organization, while 64 percent did not. The median educational level of the sample was completion of a bachelor degree, and 89 percent of the subjects had prior leadership training.

In this study, the research question asks: *To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by managers within a state correctional agency reflect the Leadership Perspectives Model?* This question is addressed by evaluating (a) the extent to which the operational elements of implementation description, tools and behavior, and approach to followers are found to differentiate leadership perspectives; (b) the extent to which the five perspectives of leadership are represented in the data; and (c) the extent to which the perspectives are found to be hierarchical in nature. After coding the data from 55 interviews, a total of 1220 hits were recorded. These hits were dispersed across the three elements of the five leadership perspectives in various strengths. Following is an analysis of the hits by operational elements, leadership perspectives, and perspective hierarchy.

Operational Elements

The first analysis of the operational elements examined the distribution of hits across the three operational elements. Out of the 1220 hits, 18% (n=222) were found in implementation description; 31% (n=378) in tools and behavior, and 51% (n= 620) in approach to followers. These data identify approach to followers as the strongest element of the model, with tools and behaviors second, and implementation description last. This indicates that the subjects of the research define leadership largely in terms of their relationship with followers. One subject stated, “we try to make people feel like we appreciate them and they are important... a lot of little things can be done to help show that you are the leader and that you do respect and appreciate the people.” Another subject discussed the importance of followers in the leadership relationship by stating, “a lot of people can progress into leadership... I try to groom my people to be leaders.” Finally, another subject stated, “followers should be involved in the process... some of the things they come up with become a main goal and they feel good about having had the idea and participating in the process.” Each of these statements illustrates the importance of the follower in the eyes of the leader, as indicated in the data.

Since the data revealed that all of the operational elements were present to some extent, the next step was to determine if the three elements were present across the model, in each of the five perspectives. Figure 2 shows the results of this analysis in terms of percentage of total hits found in each of the three operational elements of the five leadership perspectives.

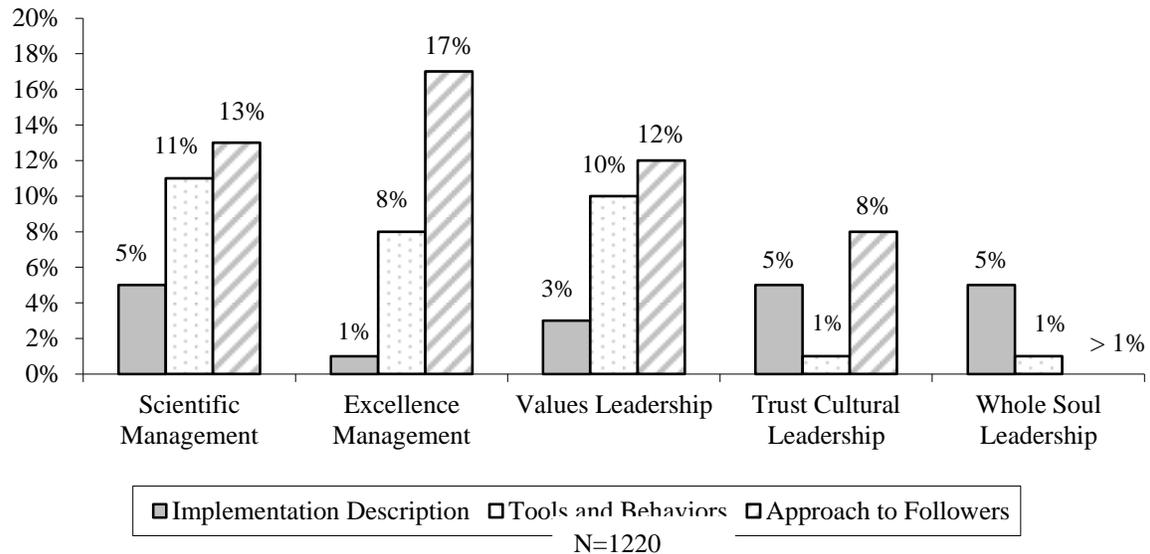


Figure 2: Percentage of total hits found in each operational element of the Leadership Perspectives Model.

These data indicate that the most strongly supported element in the entire model is approach to followers in the excellence management perspective. An important variable of this element is engaging people in the process, and this variable was consistently found among interview responses, regardless of the leadership perspective the subject held. For example, a subject who typed in the values leadership perspective clearly stated the importance of engaging people in the process when commenting, “You have to give them the opportunity and let them know that as a leader I respect what you can bring to the table; that is why I brought everyone to the table.” Another subject explained that the aspect of engaging followers is an important part of the culture of the organization. This manager explained that in a culture dominated by policy and procedures, it is important to give individuals the opportunity to provide input into the procedures whenever possible.

The remaining elements that were strongly supported are found primarily in the first three perspectives of scientific management, excellence management and values leadership; with the only other element that is strongly supported found in approach to followers in the trust cultural leadership perspective. With over 75 percent of all the hits found within the first three perspectives, these data are skewed toward the first three perspectives. The skewed data does not immediately raise any issues with the model since it could simply indicate that this sample of managers tend toward the first three perspectives. However, when analyzing the data trend illustrated in Table 1, there is some discrepancy in the way the five perspectives are utilized.

Each of the first three leadership perspectives shows the data trend for the elements to be exactly the same, regardless of the strength indicators. Approach to followers is the most strongly represented, followed by tools and behaviors, and then implementation description. When analyzing the last two leadership perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul

leadership, the data trend changes. Implementation description is proportionally stronger in these perspectives than the first three perspectives, with tools and behaviors proportionally weaker. Similar to the first three perspectives, approach to followers has the strongest percentage in trust cultural leadership, but this element is almost non-existent in whole soul leadership, with only two hits. The remaining elements in the last two perspectives are all weakly supported. These data indicate that the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management and values leadership are more strongly supported and differently supported than the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. This difference in data trends suggests that the last two perspectives are different in substantial ways from the first three perspectives. Although the data do not provide enough information to fully explain the difference in the data trend found in the last two perspectives, they suggest that something about these perspectives is incorrect in the model. This may mean that either the operational elements are incorrectly defined for these perspectives, or that the perspectives themselves are not supported as constructed in the model.

The final analysis of the operational elements is an evaluation of the elements as a percentage of the total hits within each perspective. Analysis of the operational elements as they relate within each perspective places the data in a context that allows for an analysis of the strength of the element in defining the perspective. Out of the 1220 total hits, 358 hits were found in scientific management; 310 in excellence management; 304 in values leadership; 166 in trust cultural leadership; and 82 in whole soul leadership. For this analysis, the number of hits in

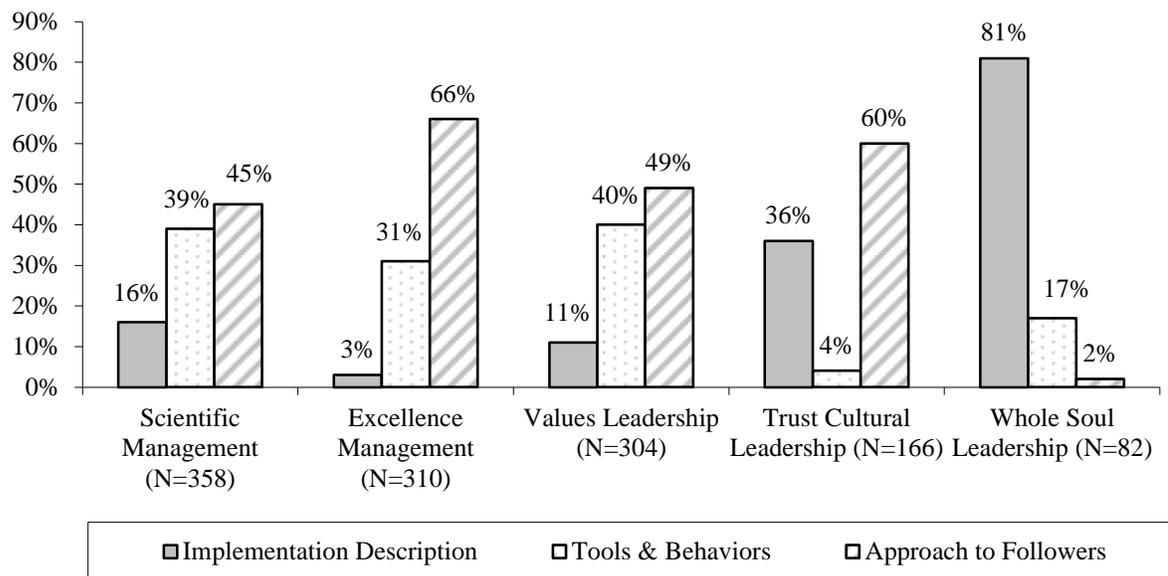


Figure 3: Percentage of hits for each operational element within each leadership perspective.

each perspective is not of primary importance. The distribution of hits across the elements of the perspective is more important because it illustrates how well the elements define the perspective. Figure 3 shows the data for the percentage of hits for each operational element within each leadership perspective.

Eight of the 15 elements provide strong indicators for their perspective. Approach to followers is strongly supported in the perspectives of scientific management, excellence

management, values leadership and trust cultural leadership; tools and behaviors is strongly supported in the perspectives of scientific management and values leadership; and implementation description is strongly supported in the trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership perspectives. Moderate support is found for the element of tools and behaviors in the scientific management and whole soul leadership perspectives. Weak support is found for the element of implementation description in the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership; the element of tools and behaviors in trust cultural leadership; and the element of approach to followers in the whole soul leadership perspective.

These data indicate that implementation description is a weak descriptor of the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership. Another issue that this analysis raises is the same problem with the data trend that was noted in the previous analysis. The trends for the first three perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership are different than the last two perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. In each of the first three perspectives, the data trend shows approach to followers to be most strongly supported, with tools and behaviors second, and implementation description most weakly supported. For the last two perspectives, the data trend is different from the first three and different from each other. These data indicate that implementation description is a strong descriptor of the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership, the complete opposite of the finding for the first three perspectives. Again, this is troubling because the expectation would be that the data trend would be stable, even if the strength of the support was weak.

Leadership Perspectives

A second approach to analyzing the research question is to analyze the extent to which the five leadership perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, values leadership, trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership are found within the data. The analysis of leadership perspectives was twofold. First, the data were analyzed to determine the distribution of hits across each perspective. This analysis provided an overall description of how well each perspective is represented. The second analysis evaluated the primary perspective of each subject, calculated as the perspective with the highest number of hits

The data revealed that the 1220 hits were disbursed as follows: 29 percent (n=358) scientific management; 25 percent (n=310) excellence management; 25 percent (n=304) values leadership; 14 percent (n=166) trust cultural leadership; and 7 percent (n=82) whole soul leadership. In terms of percentage of hits, the perspective of scientific management is most strongly represented, with each subsequent perspective represented with a declining number of hits. Strength indicators reveal that the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management and values leadership are strongly supported within the data; the perspective of trust cultural leadership is moderately supported; and whole soul leadership is weakly supported. These data do not show a great deal of difference among the first three perspectives in terms of the strength of support, but show a considerable drop in support for the last two perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. This finding is consistent with all previous analyses, where support for trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership is moderate to weak.

The findings are different, however, when the data are analyzed in terms of the perspective in which each individual is typed – the primary perspective. The primary perspective

for each subject was determined by calculating the perspective in which the subject had the highest number of hits. These data indicate that the 55 individuals interviewed were typed as follows: 42 percent (n=23) scientific management; 18 percent (n=10) excellence management; 29 percent (n=16) values leadership; 9 percent (n=5) trust cultural leadership; and 2 percent (n=1) whole soul leadership. When analyzed in terms of primary perspective, only the perspectives of scientific management and values leadership are strongly supported, with moderate support for excellence management, and weak support for trust cultural leadership and values leadership.

A notable difference is found among the two analyses used for leadership perspectives. Support for excellence management in terms of number of hits, is reduced from strong to moderate support in terms of individuals who typed in the perspective. Similarly, trust cultural leadership is reduced from moderate to weak support in terms of number individuals who typed in the perspective. Although the data do not clearly explain this phenomenon, it may indicate that individuals freely use elements from perspectives other than their primary perspective. For example, the following quote clearly shows the use of more than one perspective. When asked about accomplishing a project with a two week deadline, a subject gave the following response:

I think there are times when a leader needs to manage. I know what a leader does and I know what a manager does and they are not the same. I would say that ideally I could empower them [followers] to get the job done and sit back. [I could] empower them to come up with the ideas for the project and to make it their own, with me standing on the outside to see the big picture and to see how it is coming along. You can only do that when you have people you can trust. But sometimes you don't empower. I think somewhere down the line with a project, especially one with a tight deadline, I would think along the lines of directing and delegating, not empowering.

This manager spoke of empowerment, an approach to followers in the values leadership perspective, as the ideal approach to leadership. The manager also spoke of the necessity of having trust in employees, an approach to followers in the trust cultural leadership perspective. Finally, the value of directing and delegating was discussed, an approach to followers in the scientific management perspective. This indicates that the manager is not necessarily focused in one specific perspective, but rather, uses the approach to followers that is most appropriate for the situation. This particular subject was typed into the scientific management perspective as the primary perspective, but only one hit separated the primary perspective of scientific management from the secondary perspective of values leadership. This clearly shows that a subject may utilize a perspective other than the primary perspective.

Multiple Leadership Perspectives

When an individual types in one leadership perspective, but continues to use elements of other perspectives, multiple leadership perspectives exist. This seems to contradict M. R. Fairholm's (2004a), assertion that each perspective is unique and discernable from the others, and that the perspectives are paradigmatic in nature and relate in a hierarchical manner. M. R. Fairholm does not fully explain what he means by paradigmatic when referring to the perspectives. He states that some individuals view paradigms as commensurable (Harman, 1998), meaning they can exist together; while others view them as incommensurable (Kuhn, 1996), meaning that the presence of one paradigm precludes the presence of another. Without

defining the paradigmatic nature of the perspectives, it is difficult to analyze the extent to which the perspectives are supported in the data. If the paradigmatic nature of the perspectives is commensurable, the data support that proposition, but calls into question whether the perspectives are, in fact, distinct and separate from one another. If they are incommensurable and, therefore, the existence of one precludes the existence of another, the data do not support that proposition. This definitional problem represents a limitation in the model that must be resolved.

M. R. Fairholm acknowledged this issue and commented that individuals were “not always exclusive in the leadership perspective they defined, mixing and matching elements of different perspectives” (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a, p. 152). He considered that this may mean either that individuals understand leadership in complex ways, or that their conceptions are changing from one perspective to another. M. R. Fairholm acknowledged that this problem makes it difficult to analyze the data in terms of support for each perspective. Thus, he introduced the existence of pure forms and majority perspectives as critical to supporting the five separate perspective of leadership in the model.

Pure Forms and Majority Perspectives

With the presence of multiple perspectives in the data, the existence of “pure forms” and “majority perspectives” is a measure that can be used to substantiate the existences of all five perspectives (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a). A subject is considered to type as a “pure form” in their perspective when 100 percent of their hits are contained within that perspective. A “majority perspective” is established when over 50 percent of the hits are found within the perspective. When pure forms and majority perspectives are present in the data, the data indicate that those subjects function primarily within their perspective and rarely use other perspectives. The existence of pure forms would indicate that the perspectives are incommensurable, while the existence of majority perspectives would indicate movement from one perspective to another – an idea that is not in conflict with the notion of an incommensurable paradigm. Thus, when M. R. Fairholm found evidence of pure forms and majority perspectives for each leadership perspective, with the exception of excellence management, he established this finding as evidence that the perspectives do exist in the data, and provided support for the model.

The data in this study reveal that there are no pure forms among the sample, and only eight majority perspectives, for a total of 15 percent of the sample. Out of the eight majority perspectives, seven are found in the scientific management perspective, with a range of 52 to 71 percent of the total hits found in that perspective. The other majority perspective is found in excellence management, with 67 percent of the hits found in that perspective. It is notable that seven of the eight majority perspectives are found within the perspective of scientific management, and one is found in excellence management. Since pure forms and majority perspectives are used as part of the validation of each perspective in the model, the lack of majority perspectives for values leadership, trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership is troubling. Of particular concern is the lack of pure forms or majority perspectives for values leadership, since this perspective has been strongly supported in all other analyses.

The existence of multiple perspectives and the lack of pure forms and majority perspectives are difficult to understand in terms of support of the model, since their meaning in the model has not been fully established. For example, the data provides support for all of the leadership perspectives and elements, although some are more strongly supported than others.

However, the presence of multiple leadership perspectives and the absence of pure forms and majority perspectives conflict with these findings. Thus, the construction of the model needs further development to define the constructs and how they relate to one another. This is clearly an area for further research to validate to the model.

Hierarchy of Perspectives

The final analysis conducted to determine the validity of the model is used to determine if the perspectives are hierarchical in nature. According to M. R. Fairholm (2004a), the relationship between the primary and secondary perspective determines the extent to which the perspectives relate in a hierarchical manner. These perspectives should be progressive, meaning the secondary perspective is related to the primary perspective as the next highest perspective in the hierarchy. The data collected in this study illustrate that the relationship between many of the primary and secondary perspectives is not progressive. Further, even when the secondary perspective is a higher level perspective, it does not always progress to the next higher order perspective. For example, 13 of the 23 subjects who typed in scientific management had a secondary perspective that was higher than excellence management, the next perspective in the hierarchy. Five of the ten subjects who typed into excellence management as the primary perspective, had scientific management, a lower order perspective, as their secondary perspective. Likewise, 12 of the 16 subjects who typed in values leadership as the primary perspective had a secondary perspective that was lower than values leadership. In trust cultural leadership, four out of the five subjects had a secondary perspective lower than their primary perspective. Finally, the one subject who typed in whole soul leadership as the primary perspective had a secondary perspective of scientific management.

According to these data, there is limited support for the hierarchical nature of the LPM. Instead, subjects seem to operate within several of the perspectives, although they usually prefer one over another, as evidenced by their primary perspective. This relationship between perspectives is clearly seen in the qualitative data. One subject stated,

A leader is a person who has vision and goals for the organization. Not that they can necessarily achieve all of them, but they set them and work towards them. But the department looks at how I manage my facility or my budget or my staffing when they look at me as a leader.

When this individual discusses leadership in terms of vision and goals for the organization, the values leadership perspective is tapped into. However, the individual goes on to discuss the importance of managing, budgeting, and staffing, all tools of the scientific management perspective.

Another respondent suggested, "Leaders should mentor followers, teach them to be successful so they [followers] can grow professionally and personally. Sometimes they [leaders] also have to say this is your job – do your job – this is what you get paid for." Again, the subject discusses the teaching and mentoring element of values leadership, but also clearly discusses the tools of scientific management. Another manager when asked about accomplishing a task with employees stated, "I would make sure I chose the right person for the task. I would talk to everyone and tell them my vision about getting this done, but also ask them what they think, then put those two things together." In this statement the subject begins with the scientific management approach of staffing, moves into the values leadership approach of visioning, and then concludes with the participatory approach of excellence management. These data illustrate

that when analyzing the primary and secondary perspectives, as well as and the qualitative data, the hierarchical relationship of the perspectives is not supported.

Limitations of the Study

Before discussing the conclusions drawn from this research, it is important to acknowledge two limitations that are inherent within the study. First, although the instrumental case study method strengthened the overall design of the study in many ways, it also presented a limitation. It is possible that the findings could be attributable to something within the culture of the organization itself, rather than differences in the perception and practice of leadership among the managers. Organizational function is an area that was cited by M. R. Fairholm (2004a) as potentially skewing the results. The paramilitary structure of the sample as a public safety organization could have skewed the results toward the first three perspectives due to its emphasis on structure and policy. However, this does not explain why the data trends for last two perspectives are different from the first three. The explanation for this phenomenon may be found in construction of the model itself. The first three perspectives are well supported in the literature and well defined in the model, while the last two perspectives remain somewhat ambiguous. Further research needs to be done, particularly on the last two perspectives, to determine if the skew toward the first three perspectives reflects a weakness in the model. While the organization culture may explain why the sample is skewed toward the first three perspectives, it does not explain why the data trends for the last two perspectives are so different from the first three.

A second limitation to the study is that it did not lend itself to triangulation. Although data triangulation, theory triangulation and methodological triangulation are not appropriate for this study, investigator triangulation could have strengthened the results by reducing the potential for investigator bias. This limitation is addressed through the use of a tight research design, a strong theoretical framework, clear research questions and a precise method for data collection and analysis. However, further study regarding the LPM would be strengthened with a team of researchers to create investigator triangulation.

Conclusion

The data collected in this study only partially reflects the Leadership Perspectives Model. The operational elements of tools and behaviors, and approach to followers are strongly reflected in the data, but implementation description has weak support. The leadership perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership are strongly supported, but the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership have weak support. There is evidence that multiple perspectives exist within the data and that these multiple perspectives are not incommensurate. There are no pure forms of any perspective and majority perspectives only exist within scientific management and, marginally, within excellence management. Finally, the perspectives do not convincingly relate in a hierarchical manner.

Although the LPM is only partially supported through in the study, this research has been helpful in determining the strength of the model in identifying the leadership perspectives managers may have. In the original study, M. R. Fairholm (2004a) was looking for support for each element and perspective, and considered any support at all to affirm the model. Since his research was the first study of the model, the important contribution he made was in developing

and testing the model and its constructs. Thus, most constructs were supported in that they were visible within the data, but many were not strong within the data. This analysis established parameters for determining the strength of the model. Adding the strength indicators has shown the areas of the model that have limitations, and provides indicators for further research. The immediate concern is to validate each of the constructs in terms of their definition and their relationship to each other. If the leadership perspectives model can be validated and modified through future research, it holds promise as a diagnostic tool for identifying the way managers view leadership so that, through training and development, their view may be enlarged.

About the Author

Elizabeth Gagnon is the director of the Center for Community Engagement and a lecturer in leadership studies at Christopher Newport University in Newport News, Virginia. Her research interests are values leadership, public sector leadership, service learning, and community engagement. Her leadership classes are often taught in a service learning environment to give students the opportunity to participate in citizen leadership and to build civic responsibility. Email: elizabeth.gagnon@cnu.edu

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