EXAMINING BEHAVIORAL CHANGE AMONG SUPERVISION
AND MANAGEMENT UNDERGRADUATES IN A SELECTED COLLEGE

By

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A DISSERTATION PRESENTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
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To my husband, Marc, and my family

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A baccalaureate education was once limited to an elite population of high school graduates in pursuit of guaranteed career success. Today, more than 70% of high school graduates opt to attend college to earn a baccalaureate degree, due to economic, global, and technological changes. While this percent has significantly risen, employers are increasingly dissatisfied with the outcome of graduates' education. Business and industry express satisfaction with graduates' technical skills, but there is a shortage of graduates who possess soft and leadership skills critical relative to employment success. Because the attainment of a baccalaureate degree does not guarantee gainful employment, with only 20% of college graduates employed in a job that requires a degree, other factors—specifically, leadership and soft skills—will increase the likelihood of employment opportunities.

As the community college recognizes the importance of meeting employer demands, the study examined the outcomes of a leadership development program to determine if leadership deficits, once identified, could be improved through a change initiative that included a self-change study, mentoring, dual relationships, and self-help.

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

The focus of this work was to examine a community college supervision and management baccalaureate program and to explore a framework of the impact of individual change relative to soft skills development. As a result of the competitive job market, caused by economic, global, and technology challenges, coupled with dissatisfaction among employers relative to graduates' soft skills deficiencies, can a baccalaureate program provide the education to better prepare students to transition into the workforce? This section describes the research questions and pertinent definitions used in the study.

The double-digit unemployment statistics due to uncertain economic times is of paramount concern for college graduates in search of successful, meaningful, long-term employment. Will the attainment of a bachelor's degree be a guarantee for gainful employment? While a college education has become the gold standard, as countries compete in a global economy, how can graduates increase their potential for job attainment?

According to a report from the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) (2008), the 2009 class of college graduates is stepping off campus and into the "real world" with fewer jobs in hand than their 2008 counterparts. A student survey shows that only 19.7% of 2009 graduates who applied for a job actually have one. In comparison, 51% of graduates in 2007 and 26% of those that graduated in 2008 who applied for jobs had one by the time of graduation. This may be due, in part, to the increase in nationwide unemployment, the global financial crisis, and the impact of these developments on the recruitment and hiring of new graduates by specific industries (International Association of Employment Web Sites, 2009).

As the number of college graduates increased from 15,741,000 in 1996 to 19,993,000 in 2006, it is clear that there is a higher supply than demand for the once sought after bachelor's

degree as the minimum qualification toward career success (Brown, 2009). Although jobs that had the highest percentage growth required the most education, the greatest growth in numbers of jobs required the least amount of education and training (Educational Testing Service [ETS], 2000). Considering the competition for employment, combined with the increase of baccalaureate graduates, how can college graduates mitigate the probability of an unsuccessful job search?

Gewertz (2007) explains that with an increasingly global and technological economy, earning a degree is not adequate. Policy and business leaders recognize that students are emerging from high school without the set of skills they need to thrive in college and the workplace. Some experts refer to these competencies as "soft" or "applied" skills, also known as twenty-first century skills. Moreover, problem solving, creativity, an ability to work well with others, and the capacity to evaluate information critically will be an expectation for employment success.

Attainment of a bachelor's degree is no longer a guarantee for employment. Variables such as a degree, work experience, and personal attributes are essential for college graduate success. Collin and Young (2000) describe that in recent years employability has shifted from career structures of the past that focused on career progression for white-collar workers; today, large organizations are leaner and flatter. In addition, rapid restructuring has led to the need for employees to transfer skills, regardless of their sector or company.

While a bachelor's degree is one of several requirements to attain meaningful employment, several other qualifications will increase the probability. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching reports that the trend for bachelor's degrees will escalate and that the demand for employees with college degrees will increase. Although job demand is high, research indicates that college graduates lack critical leadership skills (Barton, 2008).

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A survey conducted by The Conference Board, Corporate Voices for Working Families, the Partnership for the 21st Century Skills, Corporate Voices for Working Families, and the Society for Human Resource Management (2006) reported that employers were dissatisfied with employee talent entering the workforce (The Conference Board et al., 2006). The results of a national survey of 431 human resource employers' evaluation of the work readiness skills of recent graduates from high school, two-year colleges, and four-year colleges states, "The future workforce is here, and is ill-prepared" (The Conference Board et al., 2006, p. 5).

This ominous report warns that employers are growing increasingly frustrated with new high school and college graduates entering the workforce. The report also reveals that college graduates lack applied skills necessary to be successful in the 21st century. Further, findings suggest that more than 25% of college graduates lack leadership skills. The Conference Board report (2006) recommended better coordination between the business sector and educators to remedy the problem.

During a 2007 Capitol Hill briefing, a poll of 400 companies reported that employers were dissatisfied with graduates that seek their first job after graduating college, due to skills deficiencies. Twenty-three percent to 27% of respondents said college graduates were weak in writing and leadership skills. Moreover, fewer than 30% of employers rated college graduates as "excellent" in skills that will become more important such as critical thinking, teamwork, creativity and diversity. Approximately 46% of employers deemed college graduates as exceptional in applied information technology. According to Linda Barrington, director of research at the Conference Board, organizations are interested in graduates that can apply knowledge and think critically (Schoeff, 2007).

In addition to the briefing, a white paper published by American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) (2006), was based on an online poll with 369 respondents to the question

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"Is there a skills gap within your organization now or is one expected within the next year?" (p. 7). The alarming findings revealed that 96% reported a skills gap in their organization. Gaps were identified in the areas of communication/interpersonal skills at 50.14% and managerial and supervisory skills deficits at a rate of 55.46% (ASTD, 2006, p. 24). The report indicates that leadership skills, including supervision, team building, motivation, decision making, and ethical judgment, are of paramount concern. In addition, emotional intelligence, including self-awareness, self-discipline, persistence, and empathy were also lacking. Yet these skills were critical to creating a work culture that supports and encourages employees' optimal contribution.

With the emphasis on career readiness deficiencies, William D. Coplin, a college professor, wrote a book pointing out critical gaps, titled *10 Things Employers Want You to Learn in College: The Know-How You Need to Succeed*. Coplin (2003) suggests that employers prefer to hire potential leaders and that leadership skills are essential employability skills. As Coplin explains, students want to have leadership experience primarily because they think it will look good on their resumes or graduate school applications, and employers value leadership because it is associated with a willingness to improve oneself and optimism about change. In addition to leadership skills, Eldredge (2006) points out that as important as technical skills are, employers cite that another challenge in workforce recruitment is a shortage of soft skill competencies. Soft skills include the ability to interact and communicate appropriately with other people, as well as personality traits, social graces, friendliness, and optimism. Finally, work ethic, teamwork and self-confidence are some of the attributes that are critical to employee success.

According to Peddle (2000), entry-level college graduates are deficient in the skills necessary to perform successfully in the workplace. Since today's college students are expected to develop the "hard" technical skills as well as the "soft" people skills, the responsibility has been placed on post-secondary educators to prepare graduates entering the workforce.

Because educational leaders recognize the urgency of the unpreparedness of the workforce, The College Learning for the New Global Economy report (2007) presented the global challenges that students face today (Association of American Colleges and Universities [AACU]). The report also identified factors that students need to experience a successful transition into the workforce in the twenty-first century. Four identified essential learning outcome categories begin in school and continue during college. One category relative to this study includes intellectual and practical skills, divided into the following subcategories:

- Inquiry and analysis
- Critical and creative thinking
- Written and oral communication
- Quantitative literacy
- Information literacy
- Teamwork and problem solving

These learning outcomes should be practiced extensively across the curriculum (AACU, 2007, p. 3).

Hesketh (2000) explains that a primary purpose of higher education is to prepare students to enter the workforce; therefore, how can students, colleges and employers align competencies to ensure that gainful employment is the goal? Paulson (2001) warns that competency-based learning is more prevalent in K-12 than postsecondary education, due to the importance of becoming more responsive to business needs. Critics of competency-based learning explain that the alignment moves institutions away from the obligation to provide a liberal education. Despite the debate, the identification of workplace competencies is relevant, although a challenging task for educators to embrace. To rectify alignment, all constituents need to coordinate efforts to improve outcomes.

With extensive competencies that include knowledge, skills, and abilities relative to a manager or supervisor position, how can employers ensure that soft skills and leadership competencies are evident in their new hires? Carbonara (2001) emphasizes that companies need

to recruit employees with soft skills and leadership competencies, but the challenge lies in how to recognize these individuals. One idea suggests that the focus should not only be on hiring employees with the right technical experience. Instead, the goal should be to find individuals with the right mind-set. Companies that hire based on the latter, hire for attitude and train for skill. Therefore, the use of personality assessment can assist in the identification of such attributes and has become increasingly useful in selection and professional development of employees.

To identify talent of incoming employees, midsize and large companies rely on personality and ability assessments during the pre-employment process or as an orientation tool. The assessments assist in identification of specific personality traits necessary for job success. Overall, companies recognize that the right personality is critical for success (Gutner, 2008).

Goodstein and Lanyon's (1999) literature review describes the favorable support for the utility of personality assessments in the workplace. Due to the major changes in personality assessments, they can now be used to predict managerial success. The changes are primarily attributed to technological advancement and include: the introduction of item development procedures, advancement of theory and concepts relative to traits and human behavior, and the ubiquity of Web-based personality assessments. Additionally, until recently, personality assessment was based on psychopathology, and while existing in the workplace, it is unlikely that mentally challenged individuals will present themselves in this environment. Employers are more concerned with whether a candidate will relate well with co-workers, and possess leadership potential. Therefore, clinically oriented instruments, such as the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), are not useful to predict employee success. Instead, the development of the Five Factor approach to personality assessment increased the value of personality testing in employee selection.

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Because of the deficits in leadership skills, the question becomes, can leadership be taught, or is it beyond the reach of most aspiring supervisors and managers? Factors including genetics, family environment, bosses, and training all impact the likelihood of leadership success. The literature suggests that early-life forces influence whether individuals will have the capability necessary to become an effective leader (Conger, 2004).

While there is a plethora of leadership training available, changing people's behavior is a challenge. The message of change requires that the individual develop a new outlook. Those that hold on to old beliefs when the world has changed can be self-defeating. Instead, flexibility and experimentation will assist in the advancement of success (Johnson, 1998).

Carl Lewin (1947) was one of the most prolific change theorists in the twentieth century. He made significant contributions to research relative to change. Central to this theory is the idea that conflict resolution facilitates learning. Lewin's contributions include Thought Field Theory, Group Dynamics, Action Research, and the Three-Step Change Model. While the compilation of work was viewed as a unified whole, it had been used to bring forth planned change regardless of the level of individual, group, or organization (Kritsonis, 2004-2005) Also, a commitment to change behavior was required. Recognizing the necessity of a change process led to the development of the Three-Step Model (Bargal & Bar, 1992). The essential steps of the model include:

- Step 1: Unfreezing is described as the stability of human behavior, which is based on a quasi-stationary equilibrium reinforced by driving and restricting forces. In order to change, the equilibrium needs to become destabilized or unfrozen before old behaviors can become unlearned and new behavior can be implemented.
- Step 2: Moving is described as research, action, and additional research, and these are necessary to enable individuals or groups to transition from a less acceptable to a more acceptable set of behaviors.
- Step 3: Refreezing occurs when there is new quasi-stationary equilibrium to prevent new behaviors from regressing. The new behaviors must be congruent with the rest of the behavior, personality, and environment of the learner (Lewin, 1947).

To address the lacking leadership skills, a strategy is needed to ensure college graduates have acquired these skills prior to graduation.

Purpose of the Study

Because of the urgency associated with the lack of leadership skills and soft skills in recent college graduates, as evidenced in the literature, the purpose of this study was to examine if changing leadership behavior was possible of students enrolled in a bachelor's-level organizational behavior class at a community college. The study was guided by a theoretical change model based on a theory developed by Alan Deutschman, author of *Change or Die* (2007). Deutschman's theory suggests that a sequential three-step process of relating, repeating, and reframing to increase the likelihood of change. As a result of learning, students enrolled in college will become more aware of the process of change and how it can make improvements for future supervisory and management roles in business and industry. Anticipating and teaching about the change process is a precursor to students identifying leadership skills that need to be changed.

Through identification of personality strengths and weaknesses, students recognized necessary improvements for change. As Schein states, "all forms of learning and change start with some form of satisfaction or frustration generated by data that disconfirm our expectations or hopes" (1995, p. 4).

Research Questions

This study addressed the following questions:

1. Is there a difference in pre-test scores between the treatment and control groups on the three subscales: Relationship Scale, Thinking Style Scale, Feelings and Emotions Scale, and the Occupational Personality Questionnaire (OPQ) instrument as a whole?
2. Is there a difference in post-test scores between the treatment and control groups related to thinking style domain on the OPQ?
3. Is there a difference in post-test scores between the treatment and control groups related to feelings and emotions domain on the OPQ?

4. Is there a difference in post-test scores on the OPQ instrument in all domains related to working style preferences combined?
5. Is there an overall difference in post-tests scores between the treatment and control groups related to all domains on the OPQ?

Research Hypotheses

Research Question 1:

H_0: There is no significant difference in pre-test scores between the treatment and control groups on the three subscales: Relationship Scale, Thinking Style Scale, Feelings and Emotions Scale, and the instrument as a whole.

H_1: There is a significant difference in pre-test scores between the treatment and control groups on the three subscales: Relationship Scale, Thinking Style Scale, Feelings and Emotions Scale, and the instrument as a whole.

Research Question 2:

H_0: Students will not exhibit a significant difference in the post-test scores.

H_2: Students enrolled in a bachelor's-level management class will improve on the Relationship Scale domain scores on the OPQ following an eight-week change intervention, as measured by a post-test.

Research Question 3:

H_0: Students will not exhibit a significant difference in the post-test scores.

H_3: Students enrolled in a bachelor's-level management class will improve on Thinking Style domain scores on the OPQ following an eight-week change intervention, as measured by a post-test.

Research Question 4:

H_0: Students will not exhibit a significant difference in the post-test scores

H_4: Students enrolled in a bachelor's-level management class will improve on Feelings and Emotions domain scores on the OPQ following an eight-week change intervention, as measured by a post-test.

Research Question 5:

H_0: Students will not exhibit a significant difference in the post-test scores.

H_5: Students enrolled in a bachelor's-level management class will improve on the overall scores of the OPQ following an eight-week change intervention, as measured by a post-test.

Definition of Terms

The following section describes terms that are used throughout the chapters.

Change: Modifying and improving on particular leadership skills.

College student: For the study, this term is defined as students enrolled in a bachelor's degree program.

Competencies: General descriptions of the abilities needed to perform a role in the organization. Competencies are described in terms such that they can be measured. It is useful to compare competencies to job descriptions.

Cross-functional skills: Developed capacities that facilitate performance of activities that occur across jobs, including social skills, complex problem solving, technical skills, and resource management skills.

Emotional intelligence: The ability to work with others and the effectiveness in leading change.

Employability skills: Skills required not only to gain employment but also to progress within an enterprise to achieve one's potential and contribute successfully to enterprise strategic directions.

Intellectual skills: A transferable set of skills that include critical thinking, analyzing, and evaluating and synthesizing information.

Job analysis: Refers to various methodologies for analyzing the requirements of a job.

Leadership skills: For purposes of the study, defined as any of the 32 scales on the OPQ leadership, managerial, and supervisory capabilities.

Occupational Personality Questionnaire (OPQ): A research instrument that measures personality attributes on 32 dimensions.

Personality: A person's preferred approach to behaving, thinking, and feeling

Soft skills: A cluster of personality traits that include social skills, optimism, friendliness, and the ability to interact and communicate positively and productively with other people.

Sten unit: The abbreviation for standard of unit, a nominal measure from one to ten (Saville & Holdsworth, 1996, p. 1-4).

Significance of the Study

In response to the urgency set forth by the literature that college graduates lack the leadership skills to perform successfully on the job, colleges must take an active role. The study will assist students to recognize and develop a plan to change their own leadership deficits through personality assessments and will provide strategies to elicit change that will positively impact the quality of college graduates that enter the workforce.

In addition, the findings provide graduates, educators, and employers with opportunities to recognize that it is possible to teach leadership skills in college. The findings from the study identify that when leadership training is conducted, this results in increased individual awareness of strengths and weaknesses and how personality assessments were used to measure gains in learning.

Limitations

The research subjects were junior status college students enrolled in a bachelor's degree organizational behavior course. A convenient sample of these subjects was utilized in the data

collection. Therefore, the study is not generalizable to students enrolled in organizational

behavior courses at universities, without first carefully comparing demographics such as age,

race, socioeconomic status, grade point average (GPA), and gender. In addition, because study

design included pre-and post-tests, there was attrition among participants who did not take the

post-test. Furthermore, due to the small sample size, the experimental group was too limited to

be generalized to a larger sample. Finally, while the participants were volunteers, it is likely that

self-perception may lead to some bias.

Summary of Chapter 1

Chapter one described the need to study soft skills as part of a college student's transition

from the classroom to career. Chapter two will review the literature relative to change,

employability and leadership development. The emphasis of chapter three will be to describe

the methodology of the study, specifically the selection and description of the personality

instrument, creation of the job model, and the individual improvement plan. Chapter four will

describe the selection of and the interpretation of the statistical analysis to measure the results of

the study. The final chapter will discuss the results, suggestions for future research, and

implications for higher education administrators.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to present a review of the scholarly literature on change, employability, and leadership development. This chapter is organized by seven headings: (a) change, (b) competencies, (c) employability skills, (d) personality testing, (e) leader qualities and types, (f) emotional intelligence, and (g) leadership development change strategies.

Change

Change is about ending the status quo and embracing a new beginning. While important, individuals typically resist change primarily because of fear. Change is often associated with loss of responsibilities, fear of inadequacy, and fear of the unknown. As a result, a myriad of emotions are exhibited, including disbelief, annoyance, and disappoint. While change is uncomfortable and challenging, it can promote growth and opportunity (Burns, Goethals, & Sorenson, 2004). Yukl and Lepsinger (2006) explain that while most people agree that change is necessary, it often creates anxiety and resistance. Therefore, in order for people to support change, they must view it as necessary and possible. Leaders can promote change by explaining the urgent need to do so, along with providing support, encouragement, and resources.

The core of developing anything, especially leaders, includes change. However, the construct of change is difficult to measure. There have been some studies conducted to build the science of leadership development, but there continues to be a need to measure the core competencies of leadership. In addition, assessing constructs in work-related situations may shed light on the cognitive and behavioral complexities (Day, Halpin, & Zaccaro, 2004).

Organizations do not change unless people inside the organization change. Therefore, making self-change is critical to organizational success. The heart of organizations is generally not the systems or processes, but rather the human capital. Individual transformation is the

critical ingredient toward deep change (Quinn, 2004, p. 62). Additionally, change, by nature, is resistance bound. In the normal state, individuals design controls to preserve equilibriums that resist deep change, even when change is essential. This programmed mind-set can result in the slow death of an organization (Quinn, 2004, p. 64).

The field of change is about using themes to rescue people who are stuck. Change is described as true, lasting, deep-seated and, in the world of business, one of the greatest challenges. While companies treat change as a technical issue, individuals must decide if they want to change; in other words, they have to make it happen (LaBarre, 2007). As the pace of change accelerates with added technology and organizational challenges, personal change management skills become more important. According to Frantz (2004), skills that include building vision, networking, communicating powerfully, dealing with differences, creating leverage to motivate people, and conceptualizing alternative strategic paths are essential.

While employees are quick to learn technical skills, social skills and attitudes are not taught. Kotter (1996) suggested that people can change habits that they have developed over many years, sometimes in a short five-day training session (p. 108). According to Kotter, these strategies do not provide the necessary follow-up for employee success. He describes an eight-stage process:

1. Establishing as sense of urgency
2. Creating the guiding coalition
3. Developing vision and strategy
4. Communicating the change
5. Empowering broad-based action
6. Generating short term wins
7. Consolidating change and producing more change
8. Anchoring new approaches in the culture

Regardless of the change magnitude, successful change transitions through all eight stages, although some stages are addressed simultaneously. The consequence of skipping a single step can increase the likelihood of problems (Kotter, 1996, p. 23). Only individuals can

decide to venture in a new direction, adopt a new vision, or take a risk, because all change is self-change. Because of this, humans have difficulty coping with change and describe the difficulties of undertaking change. Leaders describe that it is more comfortable to deal with technical and financial challenges than to address self-leadership challenges. Three categories summarize why self-leadership and change can be so challenging. First, all change is self-change, and it is necessary to understand that change is a choice. In addition, self-change requires dealing with emotions. Finally, change requires self-leadership, which means that there is continual self-control (Hesselbein, Goldsmith, Beckhard, & Drucker, 1996). Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) describe the following:

> Changing habits is hard work. "One need only think back to one's successes or failures with New Year's resolutions to find ample evidence of this. Whenever people try to change habits of how they think and act, they must reverse decades of learning that resides in heavily traveled, highly reinforced neural circuitry, built up over years of repeating that habit. That's why making lasting change requires a strong commitment to a future vision of oneself—especially during stressful times or amid growing responsibilities." (p. 25)

Motivation to change begins with the discovery of the ideal self that allows the individual to identify his or her vision for the future. It is important to write down the vision to make the change. Once the ideal self has been identified, the next step is to look at one's real self by examining talents and passions, as well as seeking out negative feedback from others through a 360-degree evaluation from supervisors, peers, and subordinates. Once completed, there is an opportunity to review the strengths and gaps. The next step involves the development of a practical plan to develop manageable learning goals. Then the brain is reconfigured by bringing bad habits in to self-awareness, practicing new behaviors until they become natural. In addition, it is essential to have positive, supportive people around while developing the ideal self (Chapter 7) (http://library.books24x7.com.lp.hscl.ufl.edu/book/id_23566/viewer.asp?bookid=23566 &chunkid=697523809).

Change-oriented behaviors require an ability to scan the environment to determine why change is needed, based on threats and opportunities. Change-oriented behaviors are important for seasoned executives, as studies have correlated CEO transformational or charismatic leadership and a company's financial health (Yukl, 2002). Moreover, according to Goffee and Jones (2001) the first quality of exceptional leaders is that they selectively reveal their weaknesses. Doing so allows employees to see that they are approachable, builds an atmosphere of trust, and helps encourage commitment. Furthermore, Frey (2001) indicates that people are averse to any type of change primarily because of fear and uncertainty and recommends that it is necessary to encourage employees to take more responsibility for success or failure in a company. Then the question becomes: if change is essential, how does an individual recognize how to make change?

Competencies

One valuable approach when embarking on a self-change initiative is to determine the workplace competencies for the job and identify if the skill level of the individual is compatible, in order to ensure alignment and an understanding of the gaps. A noteworthy staring point is to review the Occupational Information Network (O*NET), a computerized Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT) that collects surveys from professional experts to report the most sought-after knowledge, skills, and abilities in hundreds of occupations. The flexible database includes occupational competencies within the content model function that links work behaviors to worker attributes, bridging two behavioral taxonomies together. According to O*NET, an employee with the title of general operations manager considers soft skills very important, as illustrated in Appendix A (National Center for O*NET Development, 2009).

The myriad possibilities within the high-skill, high-wage economy awakens employers to reconsider the kinds of people they want to hire, providing motivation to assess workplace

competencies. Organization changes such as technology, globalization, and a knowledge economy require employees to pay particular attention to personality competencies and leadership skills necessary to fulfill managerial and professional roles. Personal and social decorum, along with technical knowledge requirements, are now central to company productivity and profit (Brown & Hesketh, 2004). Therefore, it is essential to determine how undergraduate courses and programs can meet employers' needs.

Tobin and Pettingell (2008) define competence as "the ability to do something well" (Chapter 2, p. 1) Likewise, a set of competencies for a job role will increase the likelihood of a positive employment outcome. Some companies go to great expense to define a set of competencies for every job in the company and use each job competency profile to judge people who hold or aspire to a particular job. While the term "competency" is ubiquitous in education, it has also become a standard in business and is used for employee selection, compensation, training needs assessment, and strategic planning (Berman & Ritchie, 2006).

Although limited literature is available, Hodges and Burchell (2003) suggest that there is a need to determine employers' views relative to graduate competencies. Workplace competencies combine technical knowledge, expertise, and abilities that are described as cognitive skills. In addition, personal or behavioral characteristics include principles, values, and motives that are related to an individual's personality are of interest. Successful employment requires the presence of both competencies; however, there is an emphasis on personal attributes (Weisz, 1999, as cited in Hodges & Burchell, 2003).

Hodges and Burchell (2003) recognized the importance of but also the challenges associated with identifying and developing college graduates' required, essential competencies. Curriculum developers want to understand employers' views relative to graduate competencies, consisting of what employers view as important and how competent graduates are when they

enter the workforce is meaningful information to help prepare students to transition successfully into the workforce. The workplace context of a competency includes a combination of cognitive skills (technical knowledge, expertise, and abilities) in addition to behavioral characteristics (principles, attitudes, values, and motives), to determine an individual's personality. Therefore, Hodges and Burchell (2003) developed a questionnaire to rate the top 25 competencies, and the importance ranking of each competency is illustrated in the chart in Appendix B.

Employability Skills

As an individual recognizes the value of self-change initiatives relative to career development, it is essential that students are educated with the end in mind, meaning the job they intend to pursue, in addition to understanding what skills will be necessary beyond a baccalaureate degree to make the graduate more appealing for an employer. Therefore, it is necessary to review employability skills.

While employability skills are often associated with technical knowledge—sometimes referred to as "hard skills"—it is the behavioral competencies, also known as "soft skills," that appeal to employers. Unfortunately, a disconnect exists between what corporate recruiters want in new hires and what business schools teach. Mangan (2007) explains that a report by DePaul University emphasized that recruiters want business schools to focus on people-oriented skills like leadership and communication. However, students complain that "soft skills" will not get them jobs, and pressure business schools to focus instead on functional or technical content. Rubin and Dierdorff (2009) analyzed a 2006 U.S. Department of Labor database from a study of 8,600 managers who represented 52 occupations. Managers were asked what skills they valued most in new employees. The DePaul researchers then compared those answers with the results of their own study of 373 MBA programs and responses from 118 business-school

administrators. The administrators agreed that people skills were important, yet those skills

remain underrepresented in required courses.

The emphasis on the urgency for graduates to develop leadership and soft skills is

noteworthy, as illustrated in the following quote: "students who develop hard skills alone may

end up being as hard to employ as those who learn no skills at all. Developing both social and

technical abilities in the same routine, with the same degree of emphasis, and real world

concreteness-is the surest way to equip trainees for the demands of the workplace" (as cited in

Holdsworth & Gearhart, 2002).

Furthermore, as Purcell and Pitcher (1996) suggested, it is essential to recruit people who

can "hit the ground running." Managerial leadership has shifted from bureaucratic to charismatic.

This change requires that employees have interpersonal skills and a range of managerial

competencies, including interpersonal sensitivity, good communication skills, persuasiveness

drive, resilience, adaptability, self-confidence, good judgment, and problem-solving skills, in

addition to creativity and business awareness.

One desirable leadership trait, charisma, is rare and only found in certain human

personalities, usually combined with extreme charm and a magnetic personality, along with

innate and powerfully sophisticated personal communicability and persuasiveness. Leaders such

as Ghandi, John F. Kennedy, Winston Churchill, and Mao Zedong are among those who

exemplify charisma, and it is an important personality attribute. Fortunately, it is believed that

charisma can be taught and learned, despite the persistent inability to accurately define or even

fully understand it (Burns & Goethals, 2004).

More than ever, employers are eager to locate graduates who possess these desirable

skills. According to the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) (2008) Job

Outlook 2008 survey of 231 employers, factors examined during the hiring process include GPA,

prior work experience, and critical soft skill competencies. In this study, 60% of employer's considered a 3.0 as a minimum GPA, 75% considered relative work experience, and almost all respondents considered soft skills and personality attributes as essential. Because of this, employers were asked to rank soft skills on a five-point Likert scale. Results showed that the following were rated as important:

1. communication skills,
2. work ethic,
3. teamwork,
4. initiative,
5. analytical skills,
6. flexibility,
7. adaptability,
8. interpersonal skills,
9. problem solving,
10. organizational skills,
11. self-confidence,
12. detail-oriented

Although soft skills are important, employers reported that communication skills, teamwork, and professionalism are also lacking in the workforce.

Marilyn Mackes, NACE executive director, explained that recruiters require more information on graduates' soft skills because communication skills, a strong work ethic, teamwork skills, initiative, and interpersonal skills are some of the characteristics that employers look for in new hires. Interviewers want to know, "Can you work with other people? Do you have drive and motivation to do the job?" (Di Meglio, 2008, p. 8).

Robinson, Garton, and Vaughn (2007) conducted a study to assess the employability skills of graduates in the College Agriculture, Food, and Natural Resources at the University of Missouri. Assessment of graduates' self-perception levels and immediate supervisors' perceptions were evaluated using the Borich needs assessment model. Results indicated that graduates perceived problem solving and analytic skills as most important (MWDS = 0.74). In addition, eight additional employability skills had a mean greater than 0.50 (see Figure 2.2).

According to supervisors, employability skills in need of curriculum enhancement using the Borich Needs Assessment Model concluded that problem solving and analysis was the employability skill construct with the highest mean (MWDS = 1.08). An additional area studied was the employability skills construct perceived by graduates and their supervisors using a quadrant analysis model. The results were a 2 x 2 matrix representing the competencies of the entry-level graduates. Moreover, Peddle (2000) explains that employers are uncertain if colleges can develop employability skills most desired by employers. Employability skills are also described as "core skills," "non-technical skills," or "soft skills" (Hofstrand, 1996; Robinson, 2006).

In a survey of Fortune 1000 companies, executives concluded that leadership and management skills were the most sought after attributes while technology skills were a distant third. However, only one out of every three employees was able to collaborate effectively with co-workers. The author suggested that future professional success will increasingly depend on personality traits, such as high levels of teamwork and cooperation in the workplace (Fisher, 1996).

The question becomes: how do employers assess leadership and soft skills of college graduates? Some colleges and universities are interested in providing employers an opportunity to review academic and soft and leadership skills. The University of Wisconsin's 26 schools developed a plan to provide its students the opportunity to be more marketable upon graduation. This process involved using what is called dual transcripts, one for grades and one to assess critical areas, such as leadership and soft skills. The intent was to send transcripts to job recruiters, so graduate school admissions could be assessed. Proponents of the dual transcript say the resume would provide official verification of the student's abilities outside of academics (Di Meglio, 2008).

Unfortunately, without the voice of business, education may continue to prepare students with outdated skill sets. One of the challenges facing colleges and universities is to ensure that perspective graduates acquire the softer and applied skills in order to have a competitive edge in the job market. Furthermore, several U.S. and international authors point out the importance of developing skills beyond those required for a specific job. Studies undertaken in the past two decades support and underscore the value of soft skills (Askov & Gordon, 1999; Murnane & Levy, 1996).

Buhler (2008) explains that there is incongruence between the applied skills and "soft" skills. Applied skills include teamwork, leadership, a strong work ethic, social skills, and communication. Organizations need their employees to possess soft skills. Surveys report that there is a deficiency in the skills identified as "soft" (versus "hard"). The technical (or hard skills) that are most likely possessed by new job applicants today are technical skills, but these applicants lack the creativity and innovation skills that needed and preferred by employers. Employers report that they are better prepared to teach the technical skills on the job than they are to teach the soft skills (Askov & Gordon, 1999; Murnare & Levy, 1996).

According to Peddle (2000), today's economy differs from the mid-twentieth century, as employment becomes less job specific, with flexible assignments and an increase in employees spending more time with one another and customers. The changes have accelerated the urgency toward a more adaptable and flexible workforce. Specific skills identified as essential include problem solving, goal setting, reasoning, critical thinking, and basic group effectiveness skills. In addition, employers identify the need for interpersonal relations, teamwork skills, a willingness to change, and leadership skills, regardless of position in the organization. Finally, according to the study, attitude was one of the most important decisions when hiring. Attitude includes enthusiasm, motivation, a positive outlook, and being people oriented.

A national study by American Society for Training and Development (ASTD)

(Carnevale, Gainer, & Meltzer, 1990) emphasized six skill groups across all job families:

1. Basic Competency Skills: reading, writing, computation;
2. Communication Skills: speaking, listening;
3. Adaptability Skills: problem solving, thinking creatively;
4. Developmental Skills: self-esteem, motivation , goal-setting, career planning;
5. Group Effectiveness Skills: interpersonal skills, teamwork, negotiation; and
6. Influencing Skills: understanding organizational culture, sharing leadership.

While more research is necessary to develop curriculum that integrates technical and soft

skills, employers can partner with colleges and universities to improve the preparedness of the

new workforce. This can be achieved via open communication, shared research findings, and

collaboration between educational institutions and workforce industries.

An additional skill that was emphasized in the literature is communication skills,

essential to college graduates' successful transition into the workplace. The definition of

communication skills varies with the position. In particular, having these skills includes

avoiding street slang and using proper grammar for a customer service position, or they might

include the ability to sell, persuade others, think on one's feet, and succinctly make a point.

Leslie Bonner, a former bank human resources executive who is coordinator of organizational

development for Solutions 21, a business consulting firm, explains, in her experience,

communications skills are "the 'No. 1' aspect employers look for . . . It's just like your

appearance. It's the first and most noticeable thing about you. If you are a poor communicator,

more than likely you're not going to make it through the interview process" (McKay, 2005).

In a study conducted by Tanyel and Mitchell (1999), a self-administered questionnaire

that included 16 attributes was developed to identify the skill sets believed necessary for business

school graduates to contribute effectively to an organization upon graduation. According to the

prospective employer respondents, the most important attributes to be possessed by newly hired

business school graduates are responsibility and accountability, ethical values, interpersonal

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skills, oral communications, time management and punctuality, the ability to work in teams, and decision making and analytical ability.

Furthermore, Tetreault (1997) observed that employability skills are lacking in the workplace because people are not prepared prior to entering. Employers blame higher education institutions for not preparing graduates for work beyond the classroom. Despite who is to blame, it is imperative that graduates possess employability skills in order to acquire and retain employment, and higher education institutions should prepare students with employability skills.

Moreover, Paulson (2001) explains that higher education has become responsive to the needs of business and industry by aligning competencies and performance-based assessment with workforce demands.

Personality Testing

Before an individual can embark on a change initiative, it is essential to identify a metric as a starting point, to assess strengths and weaknesses relative to leadership and soft skills competencies. Colleges can play a critical role in aligning curriculum and workplace competencies through collaborative efforts of higher education and employers. Through extensive dialogue, a metric can be developed to measure and determine gains from the onset of college and again when students are ready to graduate. Because personality tests are often utilized in business and industry, colleges can begin to include such testing during tenure at college.

According to the literature, for over a century, intelligence and personality tests have been used by companies to make selection and promotion decisions. The foundations of personality research were constructed from the development of psychology researchers such as Sigmund Freud, Jean Piaget, and B. F. Skinner (Holt, 2005). Furthermore, Jung identified that people are either introverts or extroverts and they view the world through four functions that

include sensing, thinking, intuition, and feeling which is the framework of personality testing (McRae & Costa, 1989).

The debate surrounding personality testing as a human resource method for selecting employees has been controversial until recently, due to confusion over the definition of "personality," how to evaluate personality, and what personality tests measure. However, recent research has suggested more optimism in the value of personality testing for job selection. By utilizing the appropriate set of psychometric properties, validity of the instrument can be useful in the prediction of employee behaviors. Likewise, the use of personality tests in conjunction with cognitive ability testing can enhance the validity of employee selection. The emphasis on personnel psychology focuses on the development of theories of the psychological process that trigger and determine job performance, making personality testing valid. (Scroggins, Thomas, & Morris, 2009).

Personality tests developed to assess employee traits or personality abilities may be useful for predicting employees' behaviors and outcomes across positions. Personality tests or assessments measure an individual's job skills relative to skills and personality characteristics to determine if someone is suitable for a job (as cited in Prien & Schippman, 2003)

Salvano (2005), Kachik (2003), Sloan (2002), and others have demonstrated that it is possible to develop detailed leader profiles based on measurements of personality attributes. By doing so, future leaders will better understand the soft skill and leadership requirements and develop a change initiative in the event that essential attributes are lacking.

According to the American Society for Personnel Administration, approximately 60% of large companies and 40% of small companies use personality tests for employee selection and development (as cited in Herman, 1994, p. 94). Furthermore, Fink (2009) explains that personality assessments identify strengths and weaknesses and provide baseline information

about the availability of future potential. Because different types of leaders are necessary for different types of jobs, there is no "one size fits all" leadership style. Personality assessments can provide a more accurate measurement of personality attributes necessary for leadership success. Personality tests can be classified into three distinct categories that include inductive, deductive, or validation-centric, although there are hundreds of tests in use (Saville & Holdsworth, 1996).

Today, 80% of midsize and large companies use personality assessments for entry and mid-level positions as part of pre-employment screening or new employee orientation. Test results are used to help companies make hiring decisions, because the right personality translates into performance. One company, Windy City Fieldhouse in Chicago, uses a test to measure attention to detail, since work-related competencies emphasize the importance of minimizing errors in work as it relates to the job and ultimately impacts financial results (Gutner, 2008). Moreover, personality is an accurate predictor of workplace success and has a paramount impact on productivity and job satisfaction. While people believe that personality and behavior styles are difficult to change, compared to the other components of human capital, personality and behavior are the most easily modified (Furnham, 2005).

Warren (2002) asserted that most behavior patterns result from habits and spontaneous reactions to situations, and not from self-conscious, self-directed efforts. Making a small change can provide significant gains. By becoming aware of a predisposition and making conscious effort to monitor the habit, an individual can learn to suppress negative behavior. By changing one's behavior, an otherwise aggressive, impatient person can dramatically reduce the number of times that he or she irritates others and increase the opportunities to hear his or her co-workers' insights regarding work-related matters. Most behavior patterns are driven strictly by habit and are not consciously directed. Many people erroneously think that personality and behavior are

"hardwired" and cannot be changed. While considerable effort is required to break longtime patterns, altering behavior does not require dramatic personality changes. Becoming conscious of how personality affects oneself and others can represent a giant step toward modifying behavior. Just as a conductor uses a baton to quiet the horn section and bring in the strings, individuals can learn to consciously orchestrate their behaviors.

Leader Qualities and Types that Predict Work Behavior

Psychologists recognize the importance of certain personality traits that enhance a person's ability to actuate intellectual capacity, while other personality traits can have a negative impact. The identification of predictive personality traits, as well as the use of statistical tests and psychometric methods, strengthen the likelihood of predicting leader qualities that correlate to workplace success.

While there was considerable skepticism related to the usefulness of personality assessments in the workplace, the adoption of the "Five Factor" approach relative to personality assessment has increased the usefulness of personality testing (Goodstein & Lanyon, 1999). According to the Five-Factor Model (FFM), there are five broad categories at the top of the personality hierarchy, including extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience (Bernard, Walsh, & Mills, 2005). There is considerable research linking these categories to workplace success.

The Big Five personality factors were first introduced in the work of Louis Leon Thurstone (1934). More recently, to be present across many studies and are the core elements across many studies and consist of five factors including:

- Factor 1: Extraversion or surgency
- Factor 2: Agreeableness
- Factor 3: Conscientiousness
- Factor 4: Emotional stability, or neuroticism
- Factor 5: Culture, or more recently intellect or openness to experience

It is noteworthy that these five personality factors reliably predict supervisors' ratings of employees' job and training proficiencies (Scroggins, Thomas, & Morris, 2009).

Naquin and Holton (2002) studied the degree to which the FFM of personality, affectivity, and work commitment influenced motivation to improve work through learning. A non-random sample of 239 employees' enrolled in a training program participated. Dispositional traits were studied to determine if there was a relationship between disposition and behavior. Dispositional variables included an individual's personality, made up of traits, affect, structure, and value. Because personality influences attitudes, attitudes affect motivation, ultimately affecting workforce performance. Findings indicate that dispositional effects were antecedents to motivation to improve work through learning.

According to Goodstein and Lanyon (1999,) conscientiousness is considered the best predictor of job success, with a correlation of 0.22 relative to on-the-job performance. In addition, extroversion is a valid predictor across manager and sales occupations, with a correlation of 0.18 and 0.15, respectively.

In addition to the FFM, several personality constructs are notable to predict work behavior. For example, emotionality consists of two bipolar dimensions, including negative/positive and aroused/unaroused (Russell & Carroll, 1999). A study by Rode, Arthaud-Day, Mooner, Near, and Baldwin (2008), addressing early career success, examined the effect of ability (general mental ability and emotional intelligence) and personality (Big Five and proactive personality) on extrinsic and intrinsic indicators of career success. Results indicated that gender, extroversion, and agreeableness are the strongest predictors of salary. In addition, emotional stability and proactive personality predicted perceived job success, and extraversion was significantly related to career success. Results indicated that initial career success was related only to personality, suggesting that ability matters less on entry-level jobs, and practical

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implication revealed that organizations may unintentionally hire, promote, and reward employees with the personality, but this does not necessarily translate into long-term career success. Additionally, high-ability employees who are less charismatic may not be encouraged in their organization and seek out other employment opportunities.

Crant and Bateman (2000) examined the relationship between proactive personality and perceptions of charismatic leadership. A sample of 156 managers completed measures of proactive personality, along with measures of the FFM of personality and other individual differences. The managers' immediate supervisors rated their charismatic leadership and in-role behavior. Results revealed that proactive personality is positively associated with supervisors' independent ratings of charismatic leadership. In addition, proactive individuals lead more effectively.

One type of leadership model, known as Transactional, operates within an existing system or culture rather than trying to change followers by satisfying the current needs with focus on exchanges. Overall, their role is to strengthen existing structures, strategies, and culture within the organization. A dichotomy style referred to as Inspirational includes high levels of imagination, loyalty, style of dress, or even a handshake can become a distinguishing factor of distinctness (Goffee & Jones, 2001, p. 164).

According to Day and O'Connor (2003), it is difficult to study leadership development scientifically. Because of this, there is limited true experimental research; instead, research designs are primarily quasi-experimental, correlational, and qualitative. However, companies recognize the value and return on investment, and therefore strive to identify and develop leaders. For these reasons, top companies are committed to developing leadership at all levels of the organization, and ensuring that critical talent is in place (Conger & Benjamin, 1999). In academia there are over 700 different leadership programs because of its importance to economic

prosperity. While companies take care to recruit for the best talent, such as the right skills, values, and personalities, there is no guarantee that all new hires will possess the necessary attributes for success. Leadership development programs commonly begin with an assessment of business needs, followed by a mapping of leadership competencies, and have been used with some level of success (Conger & Benjamin, 1999).

To respond to the need for leadership development, the W.K. Kellogg Foundation funded 31 projects focused on leadership development in college-age young adults (Zimmerman-Oster, Burkhardt, & W. K. Kellogg Foundation, 1999, p. 20). The organization asserted that leadership must be broadened to include more than company executives, due to its economic and social impacts (p. 5). According to the foundation, society needs more and better leaders. Moreover, effective leadership skills can be taught, and colleges should provide the setting to teach leadership skills and theories. One of the most interesting findings of the report concludes that many of the successful leadership programs include a self-assessment and reflection component to improve self-awareness through the inclusion of assessment tests, discussions, and reflection activities ((Zimmerman-Oster et al., 1999, p. 21).

Furthermore, mentoring, where a student was paired with an experienced leader for either weekly meetings or shadowing activities, was considered valuable. A journal-writing experience where students reflected on their leadership development activities also proved effective ((Zimmerman-Oster et al., 1999, p. 21).

Another noteworthy study in collaboration with *Fortune* and the RBL Group, Hewitt Associates (2007) examined 563 global companies to determine the factors that address how successful companies produced great leaders. The study concluded that six driving forces contributed to leadership success. In a slightly modified form, these forces include:

1. Weave leadership with strategy
2. Start at the C-suite

3. Invest in the best
4. Institutionalize the leader development process
5. Groom tomorrow's leaders today
6. Reinforce desired future behaviors

Approximately 85% of top companies establish formal processes for hiring the best talent, compared to 60% of other organizations. For example, General Electric placed talented individuals in Corporate Entry Level Leadership programs to provide young professionals with real world experience, mentors, global networking, and formal classroom training (Gandossy & Verma, 2009). Finally, some researchers suggested one commonality across leadership development programs was first assessing business needs and then developing leadership competency maps (Kravis-deRoulet Leadership Conference, 2003, p. 2).

Hesselbein, Goldsmith, and Beckhard (1996) explained that people cannot be reengineered, and organizations cannot require individuals to select a new course of action that is uncomfortable or unfamiliar. Leaders are more comfortable dealing with the technical portion of the job. Overall, it is more difficult to master soft skills, such as empathy, feelings and emotions, and relationships, even though these characteristics are essential parts of the leadership portfolio (p. 189). Recognizing that change is difficult is significant to leadership. Four themes describe the challenges integral to change: all change is self-change, change is a choice, change involves emotions, and change requires self-leadership. As Astin and Astin (2001) explain, leadership requires change, and a leader is the change agent. More specifically, everyone is a potential leader, regardless of his or her position in the organizational hierarchy. Therefore, change is an essential, ongoing strategy toward professional development and success.

Emotional Intelligence

Throughout the literature, one common thread was the theme of emotional intelligence. Without a foundation of emotional intelligence, is a self-change initiative even possible?

Because emotional intelligence includes an ability to be in touch with one's feelings and

emotions it is perceived as a critical attribute relative to personal and professional success.

While intelligence is a widely accepted predictor of academic performance and

workforce success, measured by traditional intelligence tests, researchers argue that these

assessments are too narrow and that other intelligences are necessary to succeed in the workplace

Eight alternative types of intelligences are also noteworthy for managerial success and include

socio-cultural, political, innovative, and emotional intelligence (EI) (Furnham, 2005).

One of the most widespread leadership constructs discussed in the literature is emotional

intelligence, often referred to as "street smarts," and describes how leaders' feelings and

emotions affect how well they influence people, the core of leadership (Caruso & Salovey,

2004). Furthermore, leaders with a high level of emotional intelligence will generate creative

and original arguments to influence others. Moreover, emotions at work influence judgment, job

satisfaction, helping behavior, creative problem solving, and decision making.

Spielberger (2004) describes three major models of emotional intelligence that include

the Mayer-Salovey model, which defines the construct as the ability to perceive, understand,

manage, and use emotions to facilitate thinking; the Goleman model, which includes emotional

and social competencies that contribute to managerial performance; and the Bar-On model,

which describes EI as a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills

and facilitators that impact intelligent behavior.

Bar-On (1997) asserts that EI is "the ability to perceive, and generate emotions in order to

assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional meanings, and to reflectively regulate

emotions in ways that promote emotional and intellectual growth." Bar-On developed an

instrument that became known as the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i®), which includes a

series of overlapping but distinctly different skills and attitudes grouped under five general theme areas and subdivided into fifteen components or "scales." The five categories include:

1. Intrapersonal (*self-awareness and self-expression*)
2. Interpersonal (*social awareness and interaction*)
3. Stress Management (*emotional management and control*)
4. Adaptability (*change management*)
5. General Mood (*self-motivation*)

Goleman (1998) explains that self-awareness is central to emotional intelligence. The Delphic oracle of Ancient Greece, "know thyself," implies that self-awareness means that there is deep understanding of one's emotions, strengths, weaknesses, needs, and drives. Having an accurate self-assessment means that one can realistically evaluate strengths and limitations (p. 6).

According to Kunnannatt (2008), an emotionally intelligent person's mind is able to control the brain's tendency to override reason with emotion by utilizing skills divided into two categories, self-awareness and self-regulation. Self-awareness, also known as emotional literacy, is described as an individual's ability to connect thoughts and feelings in real time. Self-regulation is the ability to balance rational and emotional brain operations. Therefore, an emotionally intelligent person can cope with stress productively by reading the emotions of people around them—also known as the "meta-regulation of mood" and an important skill of a good leader. The relationship between EI and an employee's performance appeals to employers because of a positive impact on workplace behaviors. Specifically, there have been claims of economic benefits when selecting personnel based on EI (Cartwright & Pappas, 2008).

Due to the correlation of high performance, Goleman (1995) describes that one of the most compelling benefits of EI is its correlation to increased economic advantages of personnel selection that possess high levels of emotional intelligence. For example, insurance agents who score high on emotional competencies achieve twice the amount of sales compared to colleagues with low emotional intelligence.

Most large companies have trained psychologists that develop competency models in order to recognize, train, and promote promising leadership talent. Psychologists have also focused attention on the development of models for lower-level positions (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001, p. 3).

While the importance of self-awareness and self-regulation are paramount in leadership development, there are opposing viewpoints in the literature. Buckingham (2001) explains that individuals develop leadership skills by maximizing strengths. Because it is too difficult to correct an individual's weaknesses, successful people find ways to manage around their weaknesses. People can experience success and fulfillment in their work because they intentionally played to their strengths. As Buckingham states, "capitalize on your strengths, whatever they may be, and manage around your weaknesses, whatever they may be" (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001, p.27). However, while the research surrounding strength-based leadership is appealing, it can also be limiting. With economic challenges relative to globalization and technological advancement, is it realistic to think that developing a strategy to manage around weaknesses will provide a long-term solution, especially considering the economy's current state? More pragmatic is an alternative view that presents the notion of change that includes self-change, deep change, resistance, and organizational change.

Leadership Development

One of the reasons that organizations support leadership development is to enhance human capital (Lepak & Snell, 1999). Many types of development have been identified. Three meta-categories include oriented behaviors related to task, relations, and, more recently, change. Task behaviors focus on improving efficiency, change-oriented behaviors improve adaptation, and relations-oriented behaviors improve human resources and relations. All three behaviors impact organizational effectiveness (Yukl, 2008).

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A review of the literature illustrates that the core elements of leadership development include a preliminary assessment of the aspiring leader to determine the knowledge, skills, abilities, and qualities necessary to change, followed by a professional development plan Campbell, 2002).

As the literature suggests, employers recognize that graduates need to focus on change-oriented behavior that focuses on adaptation, especially due to the competitive job market. Salvano (2005) describes that executive coaching, professional development, and personal effort may prompt leaders to learn new skills and change their behaviors.
Furthermore, companies invest in a variety of strategies to promote change and improve competencies. While leadership development programs vary in terms of structure, delivery, and effectiveness, two common themes were found throughout the literature: mentoring and peer relationships assist individuals with change.

Mentoring

Mentoring has become popular in professional practice. Mentors provide psychosocial and career support for their protégés. The origins of the word "mentor" is derived from the Ancient Greek word meaning "enduring." Mentor was the name of the friend that Odysseus, King of Ithaca, entrusted his son to during the Trojan War (Hamilton, 1942). More recently, mentoring is described as an ongoing relationship between a younger, less experienced individual known as a protégé and an older, more experienced individual known as the mentor, with a purpose of dedication of long-term success of the protégé. Mentors provide support, direction, and resources to the protégé and, as a result, benefit the individual and the organization (Joiner, Bartram, & Garreffa, 2004).

According to the literature, mentoring is an essential part of a leader's role, as it involves giving and receiving what is known as "learning gifts," such as advice, feedback, focus, and

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support. Every leader must mentor—and especially mentor those associates whose performance they influence. While not an easy task, it is important that a mentor takes an interest in the development of the subordinate (Goldsmith, Lyons, & Freas, 2000). To address the value of mentoring, there has been significant research that explains the effectiveness of modeling for acquiring and improving work-related interpersonal skills and the value to fulfill career and psychological skills and needs. Case studies and descriptive statistics suggest that mentors have a positive impact on their protégés', relative to career development and advancement, by providing guidance, counseling, and visibility to top management, along with serving as role models (Noe, 1988).

A study conducted by Betts and Pepe (2005) investigated the perceived value of the mentoring/protégé relationship. An anonymous survey was conducted that contained 26 statements relative to the value of mentoring. The results of the survey showed five distinct outcomes of the mentor/protégé relationship. These included success, awareness, attitudes, behaviors, and advancement. A factor analysis was conducted on the individual survey questions and resulted in five orthogonal factors, including success, awareness, advancement, attitudes, and behavior. The results indicated that success, awareness, and advancement were positive outcomes of the mentor relationship. The study also revealed that differences in age, years in the workforce, and whether the mentor was assigned or selected by the protégé did not have a significant effect on the values of mentoring. However, gender was distinguishable in that men perceived the value of the mentor/protégé on every factor, whereas women valued the mentor relationship on limited factors.

The primary purpose of mentors is to help prospective leaders gain a greater self-awareness and to assist them with an understanding of energy and will. This purpose is

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accomplished through the use of assessments, such as a variety of the Myers-Briggs Temperament Inventory (MBTI) typing tool called the Keirsey Sorter (Shenkman, 2008).

One worthwhile model addresses the notion of adaptability, which involves an individual's ability to identify qualities necessary for future success, such as self-relevant feedback, accurate self-perceptions, and the change of self-concept, when necessary. Adaptability without identity can result in change for no apparent reason (Briscoe & Hall, 1999).

The traditional definition of a mentor as a more senior individual who uses his or her influence and experience to help with the advancement of a single protégé or mentee is still relevant.

The role of a relationship with the employee's manager is critical in the development of an empowering culture. As Buckingham and Coffman (1999) suggest, the relationship with an immediate supervisor will determine how well the employee performs in the organization and how long an employee with stay in the organization.

As Zachary (2009) explains, employees who need mentoring the most rarely find mentors on their own. Specifically, new employees who would benefit most from a mentor relationship have difficulty locating the right mentor. Young employees especially have difficulty and may end up without a mentor at all, because they do not want to be perceived as too aggressive.

The learning department at Deloitte & Touche implemented a mentoring program to develop high-performing talent. The initiative offers every employee the opportunity to coach and be coached and makes two-way coaching a part of their organizational culture. The program includes an individual learning plan. A model maps competencies to professional development and links them to performance expectations, including behavioral measures. In addition, one of the company's most innovative learning initiatives, the Cultural Navigator, includes easy to use learning, consulting, and assessment solutions (ASTD, 2007).

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Peer Relationships/Peer Mentoring

While the mentor relationship is a successful strategy toward leader development, peer relationships are an additional development strategy of interest. Personalities develop within a social nexus of relationships, where the individual can learn new behaviors throughout life and career stages. Relationships with supervisors, peers, and subordinates can offer an alternative to the traditional mentor relationship.

The relational approach to careers is grounded in the assumption that interaction with others is critical to learning. It emphasizes the importance of multiple viewpoints and connection with others to promote deeper meaning, purpose, and self-understanding. The relational approach considers how people learn and grow in work-related experiences (Walsh, Bartunek, & Lacey, 1998).

Kram and Isabella (1985) studied 25 peer relationships at a large northeastern manufacturing plant to understand the nature of peer relationships in an organizational setting. The results of the study revealed the value of peer relationships for developmental support and personal and professional growth throughout the career. Some peer relationships provide a career-enhancing function, while others also provide psychosocial support. One reason this occurs is that an individual probably has a greater number of peers than mentors. The hierarchical relationship is not present in peer relationships, making it easier to communicate and collaborate.

Parker, Hall, and Kram (2008) examined the nature of peer coaching and described it as a developmental tool that can enhance personal and professional development. A discussion of the key characteristics of the effective peer-coaching relationships was presented, based on an empirical test of the impact of these characteristics with a survey of MBA students. The presentation also introduced a theoretical model of peer coaching, along with propositions for

future research. Results of the study conclude that peer coaching works best for a person through a three-step process: (1) building the developmental relationship, (2) creating success in development, and (3) internalizing the learning tactic by applying the peer-coaching process in future relationships.

Siegel (2000) identified three peer relationship types, each with unique characteristics. The information peer offers a relationship where individuals benefit from exchanging information related to work and a limited amount of professional feedback. However, there is no career or psychosocial support. The collegial peer contributes a moderate level of trust and self-disclosure, along with information sharing, emotional support, career strategies, and collegiality. The special peer relationship encompasses a level of intimacy with self-expression and self-disclosure, providing career enhancement and psychosocial support.

Peer mentoring occurs when two equals engage in a mentoring relationship. This type of mentoring differs from traditional mentor relationships in that there is an equality of status, experience, expertise, or interest with each person playing two roles, including mentor or mentee. In alternative arrangements, there may be one mentor and one mentee. Another approach is the peer mentoring group, composed of members with similar learning interests. This type of arrangement is self-directed and self-managed (Zachary, 2009).

Summary of Chapter 2

Chapter two described the literature relative to employability, change, and leadership development to support change. It provided the background to recognize the attributes that are essential for supervisors and managers to have workplace success. Furthermore, the literature also described the challenges associated with change and strategies for development, such as mentoring and peer relationships.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLGY

This chapter presents the purpose of the study, research questions, population, and instrumentation. In addition, data collection, research design, and methodology are discussed. As a researcher, my theoretical perspective will be positivism, because my study was grounded by the belief that reality can be known and measured by statistical analysis.

The epistemological framework was based on objectivism in that it explains how meaning is imposed on the object from the subject and was based on my twenty years of administrative experience in higher education, non-profit organizations, and global corporations. My experiences and perspective were the catalyst for this study. In order to answer the research questions, the methodology included survey research with statistical analysis methods to interpret data collection.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore a theoretical framework of change to impact leadership abilities that were identified after the development of a job model for supervisors and managers and was reviewed with students enrolled in a bachelor's-level organizational behavior course at a community college in the United States.

Students were introduced to 32 leadership attributes within three domains, including relationships with others, thinking style, and feelings and emotions, and were instructed to determine which ones needed development, after reviewing a job model that emphasized which attributes were important for their intended careers.

The first model explored a theoretical framework of change. Lewin's Three-Step Change Model consists of unfreezing, moving, and refreezing, and aligns well with what I am trying to accomplish in my study (Bargal & Bar, 1992). However, this study will examine a more recent model that was designed based on the three keys to change, a theory developed by Alan

Deutschman, author of *Change or Die* (2007). Deutschman's theory suggests that a sequential three-step process of relate, repeat, and reframe can increase the likelihood of improved leadership development. Using these change processes as a premise, it is expected that students will become better prepared for future supervisory and management roles in business and industry, if they make improvement in leadership skills while enrolled in college.

The second model suggests that the awareness of leadership ability is essential in improving skill sets for students who desire to secure supervisory or management positions. Through awareness of personality strengths and weaknesses, students can begin to recognize necessary improvements toward change. As Edgar Schein (2005) states, "all forms of learning and change start with some form of satisfaction or frustration generated by data that disconfirm our expectations or hopes" (p. 25). It is expected that through a combination of personality assessment and a change project intervention, gains will be made.

Research questions were developed to determine the effect of leadership training on the subjects' leadership behaviors, as measured by their personality attribute scores. The study addressed the following questions:

1. Is there a difference in pre-test scores between the treatment and control groups on the three subscales: Relationship Scale, Thinking Style Scale, Feelings and Emotions Scale, and the Occupational Personality Questionnaire (OPQ) instrument as a whole?
2. Is there a difference in post-test scores between the treatment and control groups related to relationships with people domain on the OPQ?
3. Is there a difference in post-test scores between the treatment and control groups related to thinking style domain on the OPQ?
4. Is there a difference in post-test scores between the treatment and control groups related to feelings and emotions domain on the OPQ?
5. Is there a difference in post-test scores on the OPQ instrument in all domains related to working style preferences combined?

The Setting

The population for the study included students enrolled in a supervision and management bachelor's program at a community college in the United States. The college has five campuses, four centers, and serves 80,000 students annually. The comprehensive nature of the college offers applied baccalaureate degrees, associates degrees, technical certificates, GED programs, and professional development training.

The Program

The bachelor's program was established in fall 2008 to meet the growing demand of employers' preferences for applicants to possess a minimum of a bachelor's degree to transition into supervisory and management positions. The bachelor's programs at the community college where the study was conducted must adhere to the state's requirement that all students enter the program with an earned Associate of Arts (AA) or Associate of Science (AS) prior to acceptance.

The program was designed to deliver 60 credit hours over six semesters in an accelerated hybrid or online format in order accommodate working adults. Each course is eight weeks long. Successful completion of the program results in an earned Bachelor of Applied Science in Supervision and Management. The course curriculum includes 60 credit hours of general education courses, professional courses, and 3000 and 4000 level supervision and management specific courses. All students are required to meet graduation requirements that include exit exams, eight credit hours of a foreign language, and a 2.0 minimum grade point average (GPA) (see Appendix C).

Population of the Study

Students who were interested in applying for the program were offered three deadlines during the fall, spring, and summer terms to submit the application and supplemental

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documentation.   Each term 90 students are accepted into the programs, based on the following

requirements developed by the college and the department that manages the program:

- an Associate of Arts (AA) or Associate of Science (AS) degree from a regionally accredited college or university
- a minimum GPA of 2.5 or higher
- a letter of recommendation from a current employer
- an essay written by the student describing how the program will assist with future professional goals relative to supervision and management employment.

Prior to the spring deadline, the minimum GPA requirement was reduced to a 2.0.

The selection committee includes two academic deans and a program advisor. A rubric

and point system were developed and used to objectively rank the applicants to determine which

students would enter the program.

During the first term, there were 120 applicants. Ninety of those students were accepted

into the program for the inaugural fall 2008 term. A demographic profile of the fall cohort

showed that the group was 72% females, 28% males, an average age of 36, and had an average

3.22 GPA. Prior to acceptance into the program, 74% had earned an AA, 17% had earned an

AS, and 10% had earned both an AA and AS. All but three of the students received these

degrees at the same college where they enrolled in the baccalaureate program.

A spring applicant pool was reviewed, and an additional 90 students were accepted into

the program, based on the same criteria. A demographic profile of the spring cohort showed that

there the group was 78% females, 22% males, an average age of 36, and had an average 3.05

GPA. In addition, 76% had earned an AA, 18% had earned an AS, and 6% had earned both an

AA and AS.

Once students were selected, they enrolled in one to four courses, depending upon their

work/life circumstances. Students' course schedules were determined during advising sessions

with a dean or advisor, to agree upon a schedule that would improve the likelihood of academic

success. Students were encouraged to take courses in sequential order, although there were no required pathways (see Appendix D).

The Participants

Sixty-three undergraduate students from two organizational behavior courses at a large community college participated in this study. Approximately 54% of the participants were enrolled in an organizational behavior class in the 2008 fall term, and the remaining 46% were enrolled in a section during the 2009 spring term. Both organizational behavior courses provided the same curriculum. Informed consent was completed during class, where the researcher reviewed the protocol and asked for participants to voluntary partake in the study.

The fall organizational behavior section consisted of 34 participants; however, two withdrew from the class for personal reasons. Therefore, 32 remained and fully participated in the study. Twenty-six were female, and six were male, and both groups combined had an average age of 39 and a 3.23 overall GPA. The spring management class consisted of 29 participants, with twenty-three females and six males, with both groups combined having an average age of 40 and a 3.12 overall GPA.

<center>

Instruments

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The Occupational Personality Questionnaire (OPQ), the instrument used to measure the outcome variables, was developed by Saville & Holdsworth, Inc. (SHL) in 1984. This instrument is intended for use in the workplace to assess workplace-relevant competencies and supports businesses during the hiring process. The OPQ has been translated into 22 different foreign languages. Also, it has provided assistance to over 5,000 clients, including Fortune 500 companies, during the job selection process. Version OPQ32 was used for the study and includes a 32-dimension personality profile. The OPQ includes 230 occupational related questions that focus on the assessment of work behaviors. During the electronic assessment,

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participants are provided a five-point Likert scale that ranges from "strongly agree (5)" to "strongly disagree (1)." Measurements are organized within three categories: Relationship with People, Thinking Styles, and Feelings and Emotions. The combination of scores across categories allows researchers to create a best-fit employment profile that assists with employee selection. Some of the critical areas that constitute a good job match are work-related behaviors and preferred leadership style and team type, behaviors assessed with the OPQ. The OPQ also measures Social Desirability, which can determine if respondents are consistent in responses rather than providing answers based on what the test administrator seeks. Each of the 32 personality dimensions are assigned a value between one and ten, and are presented in a sten score format (SHL, 1990).

A sten score is an abbreviation for "standardized ten" score scales. Scores range from one through ten, with a mean of five and a half and a standard deviation of two. Scores that are farther from the mean (either high or low) are considered extreme. The more extreme a score is toward a given factor pole, the more likely that the descriptors for the scale's pole will apply for that score and that the trait will be apparent in the examinee's behavior. In a sten distribution, people generally score in the middle with 16% at the low end, and 16% at the high end (Wikipedia, 2009).

Reliability and Validity of the OPQ

Reliability and validity of the OPQ have been demonstrated in relation to personnel development (Kachik, 2003; SHL, 1990; Sloan, 2002). Data supports reliability of the instrument, including test/retest reliability and internal consistency (SHL, 1990). The test/retest examined the correlation between the initial test and the follow-up test taken one month later. Correlation coefficients ranged from 0.64 for Critical to 0.91 for Outgoing, with a mean of 0.84 (SHL, 1990). Because a preferred correlation coefficient should be 0.70 or higher, the data

confirms the reliability of the OPQ for assessment purposes. The validity measurements of the OPQ have been compared to the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and the Gordon Personality Profile. The comparison shows that there is criterion validity, therefore confirming that the OPQ is valid and measures what it is intended to measure (SHL, 1990).

The OPQ is an instrument that employers recognize in the community where this study was conducted. Instrumentation was discussed at several advisory board meetings to evaluate the value of implementation of a personality instrument. Advisory boards serve the college and program by providing expertise in relation to employability skills and trends in opportunities in the local community. Advisory boards include personnel from large and small companies in the community; specifically, human resource executives representing sectors from healthcare, banking, insurance, transportation, and retail. Many of these individuals hire graduates from the community college in the study and recognize the OPQ as a valid and reliable instrument for employee selection (Business Advisory Board, 2007).Because the OPQ is used for a variety of job profiles and business sectors, a local provider of the OPQ facilitated a focus group session to meet with local employers and determine a job profile specifically for students enrolled in the local community college program. The OPQ was used to assess if students in the BAS program had acquired competencies deemed essential for employment.

During the focus group session, the following characteristics were established as competencies for BAS graduates:

- Create technical documents and other formal written materials.
- Communicate succinctly and persuasively with diverse stakeholders.
- Make decisions within an appropriate ethical framework.
- Manage and prioritize multiple and often competing demands.
- Critically evaluate information for trends, errors, and potential problems.
- Motivate and inspire diverse populations for results.
- Engage others through people-oriented leadership processes.
- Use current technologies to work more effectively.
- Introduce, facilitate, and manage change.

- Participate in an entire talent management cycle of selection, development, and performance evaluation.
- Use a wide range of resources to stay current with trends and issues that impact own role and organizational success.

Following the focus group session, a job description report was developed to identify key activities and behaviors relevant to frontline supervisors and managers based on the subject matter expert's input during the focus group session. The report includes background requirements, work activities, and interpersonal contact essential for successful job performance (see Appendix E). In addition, an OPQ32 Model that incorporates relevant OPQ32i and OPQ32n scales to determine the relevance of the 32 scales relative to the ideal job model. Each of the 32 scales determines whether an attribute is not relevant, low relevance, moderate relevance, or high relevance (see Appendix F).

Definition of Variables

Students enrolled in the fall or spring organizational behavior class section were both given the OPQ assessment to determine their entry leadership attributes in leadership trait indices. The pre-test was administered between weeks one and two of the course, and the post-test was taken four weeks after the class ended, approximately at week twelve.

The fall class section was the experimental group and was given an assignment based on Deutschman's Three-Step Change Model: relate, repeat, reframe. An Individual Change Plan (ICP) was designed for students to journal their progress and served as the manipulated variable for the study. The ICP incorporated a combination of face-to-face mentoring from a current supervisor, a virtual support group made up of five to seven class members, and self-help activities that included reading assignments related to the skills the students were working to enhance (see Appendix G).

The group engaged in what Schein describes as an "awareness process" by reviewing the pre-test OPQ assessment results. The awareness training took place in the classroom and was

lead by three industrial psychologists using a script from the OPQ training manual. The ICP was the independent variable for the study. The dependent variable was the student's post-test scores on the OPQ.

Research Design

The spring class section was the control group and did not receive the ICP. However, they did participate in the awareness training session with industrial psychologists and take the pre- and post-OPQ assessments. Survey research was administered through use of the OPQ questionnaire that measures 32 personality characteristics of BAS students enrolled in a bachelor's-level management class. Statistical analysis includes descriptive statistics, analysis of variance, and statistical follow-up procedures to determine if leadership can be learned through ICP or awareness training.

Data Collection

Pilot Study

During fall 2008, the organizational behavior course was offered on two occasions, each in an eight-week format. During the first eight-week term, a pilot study was conducted to test the reliability of the OPQ. Between weeks one and two of the class, the OPQ was administered to 34 students. Prior to taking the assessment, students were provided instructions to answer the questions honestly and relative to their current work environment. They were told that the assessment would be sent to their college e-mail addresses, the test should be taken electronically, and that its length was approximately 45 minutes.

One issue that identified during the pilot was that some student e-mail accounts would not allow the assessment to be sent, due to firewall protection. Those assessments had to be re-sent to participants. On a few occasions, students did not recognize the e-mail and had accidentally deleted it from their inboxes. As a result, a few students' results were delayed.

During the second week, three industrial psychologists visited the class to discuss assessment results with the students. The OPQ Profile Report results were distributed to each student on a one-page summary of the 32 scales (see Appendix H). Afterward, students were divided into three groups and assigned an industrial psychologist to review and explain their OPQ results. The session lasted approximately an hour and a half, with time for follow-up questions.

During week three, students were provided an overview of Deutschman's Three-Step Change Model. Students were also presented the Individual Change Plan (ICP), a PowerPoint presentation discussing the Deutschman Model and deadlines to complete the assignment. During weeks four through seven, students submitted weekly progress reports outlined in the ICP. During week eight, the ICP was submitted for grading. Due to cost constraints, the post-OPQ assessment was not administered during the pilot study.

Due to experience and information gained during the pilot, the ICP was slightly modified to improve written instructions. A directions document described how to select a mentor, what was meant by a support group, and how to research self-help articles. The review session with industrial psychologists was reduced to one hour. And a media file was recorded of one industrial psychologist's instructions for students to refer to throughout their learning.

Experimental Group

The experimental participants included 34 students during the second half of the fall 2008 term in an eight-week session. Two students withdrew from the class for personal reasons; 32 students remained and fully participated in the study. Twenty-six were female, and six were male; the mean age and GPA were 39 and 3.23, respectively.

Students were given instructions regarding the OPQ, as outlined in the pilot, and were also provided directions concerning technical issues identified in the pilot study. During class,

three industrial psychologists visited and conducted group reviews of the OPQ32 scales and informed students of how they could review individual results.

Participants reviewed their individual OPQ Profile Reports, which summarized work style preferences on 32 dimensions. Sten scores on a scale of 1 to 10 reported attribute scores. In addition, a Social Desirability score was calculated to examine reliability of the students' responses. This portion of the assessment was designed to verify the validity of the assessment.

The 32 participants reviewed the information from the OPQ report to develop an Individual Change Plan (ICP). The ICP required that each student identify two attributes that they were disappointed with in their scores but were considered essential to future success. Students were then instructed to develop an ICP based on assistance from a mentor, virtual support group, and self-help activities to improve these two OPQ scores.

Students were then shown a PowerPoint presentation describing the Three-Step Change Model of relate, repeat, and reframe. Using this model, students were instructed to take the two attributes they identified for improvement and create goals and objectives to produce change. Students implemented their ICPs though weekly classroom time and Blackboard group discussions, weekly meetings with a designated mentor, and reviews of literature that related to their two attributes. The OPQ was also administered as a post-test, and participants were provided with a report detailing the findings of this assessment.

Control Group

The control participants included 29 students that attended the first half of the spring 2009 term of an eight-week session immediately following the experimental class. Although there was no attrition during class, because the post-test was administered at week 12, four weeks after class ended, four students did not complete the post-test. Therefore, 25 students remained as participants in the control group. Nineteen were female, and six were male; the

mean age and GPA were 40 and 3.12, respectively. Students received identical instructions regarding the OPQ and technical issues, as outlined in the pilot. The participants also received feedback from three industrial psychologists identical to the feedback provided to the experimental group.

Unlike the experimental group, the control group did not develop an ICP; they were given an alternate assignment. The assignment was to locate a journal article that related to one of the attributes that the student wanted to develop. Furthermore, students did not view the PowerPoint presentation of the Three-Step Change Model.

Data Analysis

The data analyzed were to determine if the implementation of an Individual Change Plan (ICP) would improve students' scores on OPQ behavioral attributes by two or more sten units, following an eight-week change intervention.

T-tests were used to analyze the difference in student post-test score between the treatment group and control group, with student pre-test scores as the covariance. The analysis was conducted by the software program SPSS 17.0. The differences in student post-test scores as a whole were analyzed individually on three subscales: Feelings and Emotion, Relationship, and Thinking Style. Coefficient alpha was used and carried out by SPSS 17.0 for the three subscales, and the instrument as a whole to assess the internal reliability of the OPQ.

Summary of Chapter 3

Chapter four described an explanation of the research methodology of the study including the purpose, population, instrumentation, research design and data collection methods in addition to the methods used for data analysis. Data analysis results are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

The purpose of the study was to examine the outcome of a course that addressed leadership behaviors of students enrolled in a bachelor's-level management course at a community college in the United States. The study explored a theoretical framework of change by examining two models designed to impact leadership abilities. This chapter presents the findings of the study, including descriptive statistics. Research questions were designed to determine if change in behavior was evident after the completion of a change project in an organizational behavior class.

T tests were used to analyze the difference in student pre- and post-test scores between the treatment group and control group with respect to the four aspects: Relationship, Thinking Style, Feelings and Emotions, and the OPQ instrument in all domains related to working style preferences combined. The analysis was conducted by the software program SPSS 17.0. Coefficient alpha was used and carried out by SPSS 17.0 for the three subscales, and the instrument as a whole to assess the internal reliability of the OPQ.

Aggregate Data-Descriptive Statistics

The mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of control group and experimental group are presented (see Table 4-1). With the criteria of two (skewness and kurtosis statistic divided by standard error) for skewness and kurtosis as the acceptance value for distribution's normality, all test score distributions except control group post test score on Feelings and Emotions scale are distributed normally with no large deviations for skewness or kurtosis. Therefore, the reader should be especially cautious of the interpretation about the data analysis result regarding student post-test scores on the Feelings and Emotions scale.

Research Question 1

The review of the literature indicated the importance of leadership and soft skills. Therefore, this research question centered on whether or not there is a difference in pre-test scores between the treatment and control groups on the three subscales: Relationship Scale, Thinking Style Scale, Feelings and Emotions Scale, and the instrument as a whole, following a change intervention.

H_0: There is no significant difference in pre-test scores between the treatment and control groups on the three subscales: Relationship Scale, Thinking Style Scale, Feelings and Emotions Scale, and the instrument as a whole.

H_a: There is significant difference in pre-test scores between the treatment and control groups on the three subscales: Relationship Scale, Thinking Style Scale, Feelings and Emotions Scale, and the instrument as a whole.

The pre-test score differences between the control group and experimental group were measured using an Independent Samples T test. There was no significant difference between these two groups with respect to their pre-test scores in the three subscales: Relationship Scale (t (55) = -0.582, p = 0.563); Thinking Style Scale (t (55) = -0.660, p = 0.512); Feelings and Emotions Scale (t (55) = 0.622, p = 0.537); and the scale as a whole (t (55) = -0.376, p = 0.708) (see Table 4-2). This summarizes that both the control and experimental group were equivalent prior to the change intervention that was administered to the experimental group.

Research Question 2

This research question centered on whether or not there is a difference in post-test scores between the treatment and control groups related to interpersonal relationships.

H_0: Students will not exhibit a significant difference in the post-test scores.

H_a: Students enrolled in a bachelor's-level management class will improve on the Relationship Scale domain scores on the OPQ following an eight-week change intervention, as measured by a post-test.

The post test score differences between the control group and experimental group were measured related to interpersonal relation using an Independent Samples T test. There was no significant difference between these two groups with respect to their post-test scores on the Relationship Scale (t (55) = -0.794, p = 0.431) (see Table 4-3).

Research Question 3

This research question focused on whether or not there is a difference in post-test scores between the treatment and control groups in relation to thinking style.

H_0: Students will not exhibit a significant difference in the post-test scores.

H_a: Students enrolled in a bachelor's-level management class will improve on Thinking Style domain scores on the OPQ following an eight-week change intervention, as measured by a post-test.

The post-test score differences between the control group and experimental group in relation to their thinking styles were measured using an Independent Samples T test. There were no significant difference between these two groups with respect to their post test scores on the Thinking Style Scale (t (55) = 0.085, p = 0.933) (see Table 4-3).

Research Question 4

This research question focused on whether or not there is a difference in post-test scores between the treatment and control groups related to feelings and emotions.

H_0: Students will not exhibit a significant difference in the post-test scores.

H_a: Students enrolled in a bachelor's-level management class will improve on Feelings

and Emotions domain scores on the OPQ following an eight-week change intervention,

as measured by a post-test.

The post-test score differences between the control group and experimental group related to

feelings and emotions were measured using an Independent Samples T test. There was no

significant difference between these two groups with respect to their post test scores on the

Feelings and Emotion Scale (t (55) = 0.250, p = 0.803) (see Table 4-3).

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Research Question 5

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This research question focused on whether or not there is a difference in post-test scores on the

OPQ instrument in all domains related to working style preferences combined.

H_0: Students will not exhibit a significant difference in the post-test scores.

H_a: Students enrolled in a bachelor's-level management class will improve on the overall

scores of the OPQ following an eight-week change intervention, as measured by a post-

test.

The post-test score differences between the control group and experimental group on the OPQ

instrument in all domains were measured related to working style preferences combined using an

Independent Samples T test. There was no significant difference between these two groups with

respect to their post test scores on the OPQ instrument as a whole (t (55) = -0.280, p = 0.781)

(see Table 4-3).

Reliability coefficients were calculated for the three subscales: Relationship Scale,

Thinking Style Scale, Feelings and Emotions Scale, and the instrument as a whole. Two batches

of coefficients were obtained based on the two tests: student pre-test and post-test (see Table 4-

4). Relatively high reliability coefficients obtained for this instrument as a whole demonstrate

that this instrument is an overall reliable measurement for working style preferences. However,

the low reliability coefficients for the Feelings and Emotions scale casts doubt on its reliability as

a measurement for people's feelings and emotions.

Summary of Chapter 4

Chapter four described the results of the research questions relative to whether three domains, including relationships with people, thinking style, and feelings and emotions, could show change after an eight week organizational behavior class. While Furnham (2005) explained that people believe that personality and behavior styles are difficult to change, compared to the other components of human capital, personality and behavior are the most easily modified, the results of this research showed otherwise. Instead, the results show that modifying personality and behavior were not attainable using the change theory model in an eight-week class.

Table 4-1. Comparison between control group and experimental group in pre- and post-tests

			Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Total Score Experimental Group	Pre-Test	Relationship	47.13	11.98	0.09	0.41	-0.78	0.81
		Thinking Style	60.38	12.60	0.37	0.41	1.20	0.81
		Feelings & Emotions	53.34	8.53	0.24	0.41	-0.26	0.81
		Total Score	160.84	25.44	0.32	0.41	-0.47	0.81
	Post-Test	Relationship	48.31	11.77	-0.20	0.41	-0.24	0.81
		Thinking Style	61.59	8.51	0.09	0.41	0.92	0.81
		Feelings & Emotions	55.44	8.02	-0.52	0.41	-0.64	0.81
		Total Score	165.34	23.44	-0.53	0.41	-0.23	0.81
Total Score Control Group	Pre-Test	Relationship	45.44	9.17	-0.30	0.46	-0.05	0.90
		Thinking Style	58.32	10.36	0.42	0.46	-0.13	0.90
		Feelings & Emotions	54.76	8.54	-0.19	0.46	-0.78	0.90
		Total Score	158.52	19.82	-0.12	0.46	-0.56	0.90
	Post-Test	Relationship	46.12	8.14	-0.55	0.46	-0.59	0.90
		Thinking Style	61.80	9.79	0.72	0.46	1.72	0.90
		Feelings & Emotions	55.96	7.56	-1.17	0.46	2.20	0.90

Table 4-2. Independent samples test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
*PreRScore	Equal variances assumed	2.437	.124	-.582	55
	Equal variances not assumed			-.602	54.985
*PreTScore	Equal variances assumed	.534	.468	-.660	55
	Equal variances not assumed			-.676	54.830
*PreFScore	Equal variances assumed	.115	.736	.622	55
	Equal variances not assumed			.622	51.705
*PreScore	Equal variances assumed	1.771	.189	-.376	55
	Equal variances not assumed			-.388	55.000

Notes:*PreRScore- Relationship scales ,*PreTScore- Thinking scales, *PreFScore- Feelings and Emotions scales, *PreScore-Aggregate of all scales

Table 4-3. Independent samples test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
PostRScore	Equal variances assumed	3.304	.075	-.794	55
	Equal variances not assumed			-.830	54.293
*PostTScore	Equal variances assumed	.218	.643	.085	55
	Equal variances not assumed			.084	47.822
*PostFScore	Equal variances assumed	.768	.385	.250	55
	Equal variances not assumed			.252	53.037
*PostScore	Equal variances assumed	4.331	.042	-.267	55
	Equal variances not assumed			-.280	54.090

Notes:*PostRScore- Relationship scales, *PostTScore- Thinking scales, *PostFScore- Feelings and Emotions scales,*PostScore-Aggregate of all scales

Table 4-4. Reliability coefficients for scales

	Relationship scale alpha	Thinking Style scale alpha	Feelings and Emotions scale alpha	Instrument alpha
Pre-test	.667	.681	.388	.750
Post-test	.716	.551	.305	.728

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

The objective of this study was to explore and empirically determine if a change intervention would impact leadership behaviors as personality characteristics and improve a student's leadership attributes. In this chapter a discussion of the results, suggestions for future research, and implications for faculty and administrators will conclude this study.

Discussion of the Results

Upon review of the literature and development of the study, the urgency for graduates to develop leadership and soft skill competencies was of paramount concern (as cited in Holdsworth & Gearhart, 2002). According to The Occupational Information Network (O*NET), a computerized Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT), professional experts report the most sought-after knowledge, skills, and abilities in hundreds of occupations (National Center for O*NET Development, 2009). After a thorough evaluation of the job title Manager of Operations, it was evident that the occupation fell into three distinct domains that correlated well with the OPQ questionnaire (see Appendix I). As Warren (2002) explained, a small change can improve significant gains, and, furthermore, if individuals can learn to change one negative behavior, this can significantly impact workplace success.

Because supervisors and managers require essential skills, this study examined whether or not leadership and soft skills could be improved by following a change model based on the Three-Step Change Model, a theory developed by Alan Deutschman, author of *Change or Die* (2006). The OPQ was used to measure the change because of the construct alignment with the job model. A statistical analysis was used to determine if the change intervention increased the likelihood of improved leadership and soft skill attributes. Coplin (2003) suggests that employers prefer to hire potential leaders and that leadership skills are essential employability

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skills. He explains that students want to have leadership experience primarily because they think it will look good on their resumes or graduate school applications, and employers value leadership because it is associated with a willingness to improve oneself and demonstrates optimism about change. According to Furnham (2005), while people believe that personality and behavior styles are difficult to change, compared to the other components of human capital, personality and behavior are the most easily modified, the results of the study show otherwise. This study examined this belief and revealed that change is difficult, within the structure of this study.

Research Question One

This research question centered on whether or not there is a difference in pre-test scores between the treatment and control groups on the three subscales: Relationship Scale, Thinking Style Scale, Feelings and Emotions Scale, and the instrument as a whole, as it relates to the job model. The purpose was to empirically test whether the change intervention had an impact on the three subscales. The results did not find a significant difference between these two groups with respect to their pre-test scores on the three subscales. In this instance, the data showed no difference between the treatment and control groups. As Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) explained, changing habits is difficult because it necessitates a reversal of learning developed over many years. In other words, an eight-week change initiative may be too short in duration, since change requires significant commitment relative to time and effort. Perhaps a longer change initiative timeline would have produced more impressive results. Eldredge (2006) pointed out that as important as technical skills are, employers cite that another challenge in workforce recruitment is a shortage of soft skill competencies. Soft skills include the ability to interact and communicate appropriately with other people.

Research Question Two

As Eldredge (2006) explained, it is essential to interact and communicate appropriately with other people. Examples of these skills, such as social graces, friendliness, and teamwork, are vital toward workplace success. The OPQ was used to measure the construct called "relationships with people" and included ten scales, such as outspoken, socially confident, and persuasiveness. The goal of research question two was to determine if there is a difference in post-test scores between the treatment and control groups related to relationships with people, after a change-related intervention. T-tests were used to analyze the difference in student post-test score between the treatment group and control group, with student pre-test scores as the covariance. I did not find significant differences between the treatment group and control groups with respect to student post-test scores. As described in the literature, while most people agree that change is necessary, it often creates anxiety and resistance (Yukl & Lepsinger, 2006). Therefore, there may not have been enough time to implement the changes.

Research Question Three

Robinson, Garton, and Vaughn (2007) studied employability skills of graduates in the College of Agriculture, Food, and Natural Resources at the University of Missouri, and results indicated that graduates perceived problem solving and analytic skills as critical. Therefore, this research question focused on whether or not there is a difference in post-test scores between the treatment and control groups related to thinking style. Within this domain, analytics, creativity, and forward thinking were examples of the twelve scales representing this construct.

In this case, the effect of treatment related to thinking style on student post-test scores at the end of the semester, controlling for the differences in their pre-test score from the beginning of the semester, was tested. The results did not find significant differences between the

treatment and control groups with respect to student post-test scores; however; the effect of difference in student pre-test score on post-test score was statistically significant. Perhaps this construct is too abstract for undergraduate students to be expected to develop. Moreover, fewer than 30% of employers rated college graduates as "excellent" in skills that will become more important, such as critical thinking, teamwork, creativity, and diversity.

Research Question Four

One of the most widespread leadership constructs discussed in the literature was emotional intelligence (EI), often referred to as "street smarts." As described by Caruso and Salovey (2004), leaders' feelings and emotions affect how well they influence people, therefore providing the core of leadership. Cartwright and Pappas (2007) explained that there is a relationship between EI and an employee's performance. More specifically, there have been claims as to the economic benefits when selecting personnel based on EI. Taking all of this information into consideration, this research question focused on whether or not there is a difference in post-test scores between the treatment and control groups related to feelings and emotions. The OPQ domain referred to as "feelings and emotions" include ten scales, such as emotionally controlled, tough-minded, and relaxed, to provide a definition of the construct. Using T-tests to determine change of differences between the treatment and control groups with respect to student post-test scores, I did not find significant differences. Because EI is central to leadership success, it should be more significantly studied and practiced in higher education, across the curriculum rather than limited to one course.

Research Question Five

As the literature described, personality tests are used by employers to assess personality abilities for prediction of employee behaviors. Additionally, since previously published research suggested that personality tests measure an individual's job skills, relative to skills and

personality characteristics, to determine if someone is suitable for a job, there is interest from employers to incorporate personality tests as part of employee screening (Highhouse, 2002; Jeanneret & Silzer, 1998; Prien & Schippman, 2003).

Therefore, this research question addressed a broad range of traits that included relationships with people, thinking style, and feelings and emotions to determine changes relative to all scales, following a change intervention. The question focused on whether or not there is a difference in post-test scores on the OPQ instrument in all domains related to working style preferences combined.

I evaluated the effect of treatment on student post-test scores from the end of the semester, controlling for differences in their pre-test scores from the beginning of the semester. I did not find significant difference between the treatment and control groups with respect to student post-test scores. However, the effect of difference in student pre-test scores on post-test scores that was statistically significant. It is recommended that I validity test the OPQ to determine if the instrument is designed to measure what I used it for in this study.

Recommendations for Future Research

There are several noteworthy suggestions for future research that offer some theoretical and practical implications relative to change and leadership development in supervision and management baccalaureate education at community colleges. As the literature suggested, leadership and soft skills are imperative for students to successfully enter the workforce upon college graduation. Because employers describe a work-readiness gap related to leadership and soft skills and expect that colleges and universities will provide meaningful opportunities to develop these skills, it will be valuable for college academics to determine how to implement a curriculum that aligns with employer expectations and ensures that students are prepared. Furthermore, if students lack the necessary skills, it will be valuable to incorporate the practice

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of change, specifically self-change through the use of a behavioral model, and measure the change through the use of baseline, formative, and summative assessments.

As the literature described, there has been much written concerning the value of change and developing leadership and soft skills; however, there needs to be more corroboration between the job model and its alignment with leadership and soft skills. A worthwhile study would include a review of the O*NET directory and its relationship with soft skill and leadership competencies to identify the most important attributes, then determining if those competencies could be successfully taught in a baccalaureate program.

Another recommendation would include a longitudinal study to determine if graduates that possess soft and leadership skills are more successful in becoming gainfully employed, by following graduates' transition from college to the workforce. As the literature suggests, more research is necessary to develop curriculum that integrates technical and soft skills, and the value of employer and higher education collaboration to ensure that the workforce is better prepared after college graduation (Carnevale, Gainer, & Meltzer, 1990).

An additional recommendation is for stakeholders, including colleges, graduates, employers, accrediting agencies, and policy makers, to collaborate through continued dialogue to better align program and workplace competencies for seamless transition into the workforce. One approach to provide a forum for increased collaboration is through college advisory boards, to ensure that colleges meet the needs of business and industry. While desirable, the challenge will be to implement teaching and learning opportunities and determine ways to teach and measure the added value of a college degree relative to the constructs of interest, specifically leadership attributes. Quantitative studies with a survey design can be used to measure learning gains, using an assessment instrument such as the OPQ that is valid in relation to selection. While the OPQ job model for this study was developed by an expert panel to ensure that

competencies were in alignment with workforce preferences, further validity testing using statistical tests, such as structural equation modeling, will provide another measure for construct validity. Furthermore, with publically funded colleges and universities having to develop program assessment studies to ensure that learning is occurring, it will be beneficial to determine if leadership skills are effectively learned in higher education.

Another recommendation will include a study that occurs across curriculum rather than within a specific course, as with this study. Perhaps within a one-year time frame, three courses could adopt the individual change project (ICP), and the progress reports could be spread throughout the academic year, providing students more time to develop. In addition, a 360-degree feedback component is also recommended for students to receive additional feedback from employers. While a student might not want to change his or her personality, it is possible to change behavior, especially when employment is dependent upon it.

Because the research subjects were junior-status college students enrolled in a bachelor's-level organizational behavior course, a convenient sample of these subjects was utilized in the data collection. Therefore, the study is not generalizable to students enrolled in organizational behavior courses at universities. Another potentially noteworthy study would compare community college and university students in similar programs, to determine if the type of institution impacts change relative to leadership and soft skills development.

While more research is necessary to develop curriculum that integrates change development relative to technical and soft skills, employers can partner with colleges and universities to improve the preparedness of the new workforce. This can be achieved by open communication, shared research findings, and collaboration between educational institutions and workforce industries.

One final recommendation would be to consider studying one domain that is tied into self-awareness, which, according to the literature, is critical to success. Perhaps more focus should first be on a domain related to emotional intelligence since the literature emphasizes this as a foundation—for example, in Caruso and Salovey (2004), who state that emotional intelligence, referred to as "street smarts," describes how leaders' feelings and emotions affect how well they influence people, the core of leadership. Without such a foundation, can other soft and leadership skills even be developed?

Implications for Higher Education Administration

The results of this study have contributed to the literature regarding the importance of change theory relative to the development of soft skills and leadership attributes while students are enrolled in college. While change is about ending the status quo and embracing a new beginning, individuals typically resist change primarily because of fear. Furthermore, because organizations do not change unless people inside the organization change, self-change is critical to organizational success. As Quinn (2004) explains, individual transformation is the critical ingredient for deep change, but is resistance bound. Only individuals can decide to venture in a new direction, adopt a new vision, or take a risk, because all change is self-change. Unfortunately, it is difficult to implement primarily because all change is self-change, and it requires dealing with emotions and self-control. Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) describe the following:

> Changing habits is hard work. "One need only think back to one's successes or failures with New Year's resolutions to find ample evidence of this. Whenever people try to change habits of how they think and act, they must reverse decades of learning that resides in heavily traveled, highly reinforced neural circuitry, built up over years of repeating that habit. That's why making lasting change requires a strong commitment to a future vision of oneself—especially during stressful times or amid growing responsibilities." (p. 25)

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This is why the development and implementation of a change model can guide students through a process towards goals. This study's framework was built upon the work of Carl Lewin, known for the Three-Step Change Model, central to all change initiatives.

Because community colleges educate approximately half of the nation's college students, in addition to beginning to offer baccalaureate degrees, it is imperative to study whether or not community colleges are malleable enough to provide success in the area of change initiatives and soft skills and leadership skills, making their graduates more competitive when entering the workforce.

Conclusion

Changing behaviors is a challenging undertaking for college students, as evidenced in this study. While a ten-week change initiative did not show results that were statistically significant, it did make students aware of the importance of developing soft and leadership skills through the development of a change initiative. While Warren (2002) asserted that most behavior patterns result from habits and spontaneous reactions to situations, and not from self-conscious, self-directed efforts, becoming aware of a predisposition and making a conscious effort to monitor the habit, an individual can learn to suppress negative behavior. Kotter (1996) suggested that people can change habits that they have developed over many years, sometimes in a short five-day training session. Although Deutchman described the theoretical framework of change including a three step process, this research did not support the authors model. Another factor is student motivation. Because education describes learners as intrinsically or extrinsically motivated, it may be necessary to understand the motivational factors as a variable to consider when studying change.

This study provided the framework to recognize the value of change theory initiatives, and the importance of recognizing that while a college education, grade point average, and

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experience are essential in becoming gainfully employed, having appropriate soft and leadership skills is equally essential. While assessing one's strengths and challenges relative to soft and leadership skills can be frustrating, disappointing, and sometimes seem unimportant, this study revealed that these skills are paramount and that determining a baseline through a work styles personality assessment can be an ideal starting point to begin the process of change, as students transition through their baccalaureate education.

Furthermore, by changing one's behavior, an otherwise aggressive, impatient person can dramatically reduce the number of times that he or she irritates others and increase the opportunities to hear his or her co-workers' insights regarding work-related matters. Most behavior patterns are driven strictly by habit and are not consciously directed. Many people erroneously think that personality and behavior are "hardwired" and cannot be changed. While considerable effort is required to break longtime patterns, altering behavior does not require dramatic personality changes. Becoming conscious of how personality affects oneself and others can represent a giant step toward modifying behavior. Just as a conductor uses a baton to quiet the horn section and bring in the strings, individuals can learn to consciously orchestrate their behaviors.
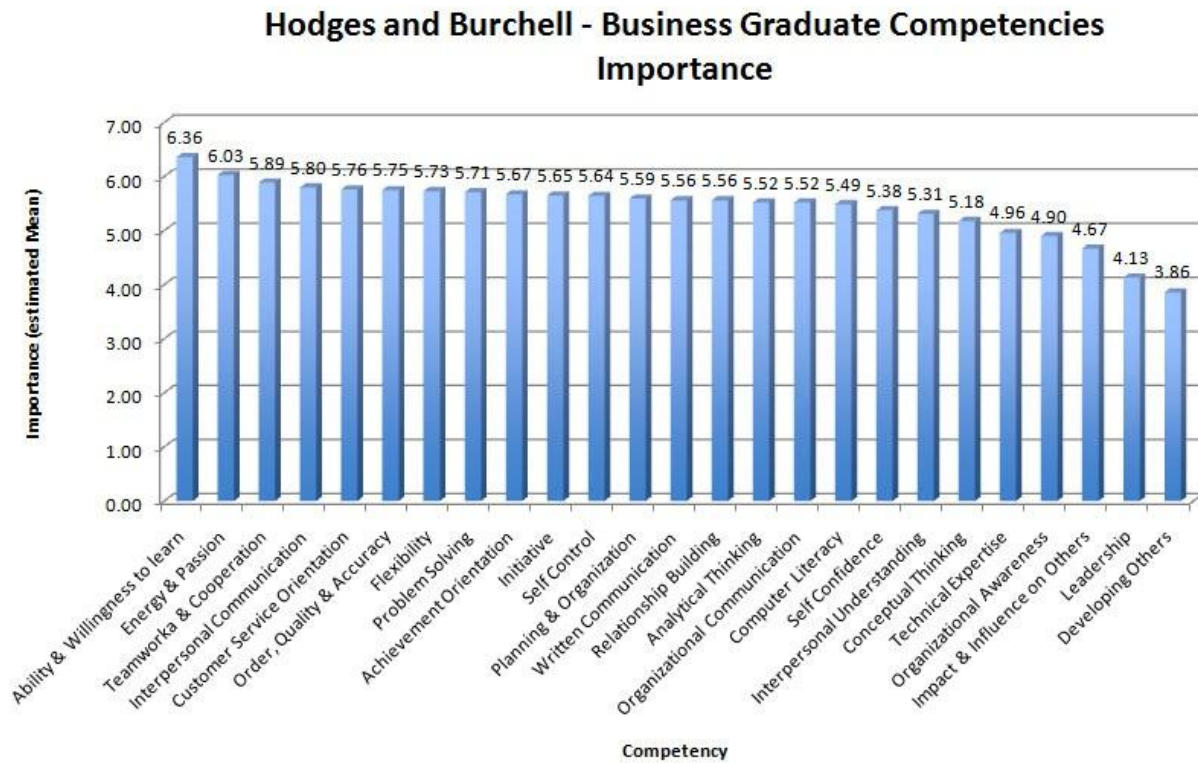
APPENDIX A
GENERAL OPERATIONS MANAGER SKILLS, ABILITIES, AND WORK ACTIVITIES

Skills / Ability / Work Activity	Description
Active Listening	Giving full attention to what other people are saying, taking time to understand the points being made, asking questions as appropriate, and not interrupting at inappropriate times
Reading Comprehension	Understanding written sentences and paragraphs in work-related documents
Speaking	Talking to others to convey information effectively
Critical Thinking	Using logic and reasoning to identify the strengths and weaknesses of alternative solutions, conclusions or approaches to problems
Monitoring	Monitoring/Assessing performance of yourself, other individuals, or organizations to make improvements or take corrective action
Coordination	Adjusting actions in relation to others' actions
Social Perceptiveness	Being aware of others' reactions and understanding why they react as they do
Active Learning	Understanding the implications of new information for both current and future problem-solving and decision-making
Complex Problem Solving	Identifying complex problems and reviewing related information to develop and evaluate options and implement solutions
Judgment and Decision Making	Considering the relative costs and benefits of potential actions to choose the most appropriate one
Oral Comprehension	The ability to listen to and understand information and ideas presented through spoken words and sentences
Oral Expression	The ability to communicate information and ideas in speaking so others will understand
Problem Sensitivity	The ability to tell when something is wrong or is likely to go wrong. It does not involve solving the problem, only recognizing there is a problem
Written Comprehension	The ability to read and understand information and ideas presented in writing
Written Expression	The ability to communicate information and ideas in writing so others will understand
Speech Clarity	The ability to speak clearly so others can understand you
Deductive Reasoning	The ability to apply general rules to specific problems to produce answers that make sense
Speech Recognition	The ability to identify and understand the speech of another person
Information Ordering	The ability to arrange things or actions in a certain order or pattern according to a specific rule or set of rules (e.g., patterns of numbers, letters, words, pictures, mathematical operations)
Inductive Reasoning	The ability to combine pieces of information to form general rules or conclusions (includes finding a relationship among seemingly unrelated events)
Getting Information	Observing, receiving, and otherwise obtaining information from all relevant sources
Making Decisions and Solving Problems	Analyzing information and evaluating results to choose the best solution and solve problems
Coordinating the Work Activities of Others	Getting members of a group to work together to accomplish tasks

Scheduling Work and Activities	Scheduling events, programs, and activities, as well as the work of others
Skills / Ability / Work Activity	Description
Monitor Processes, Materials, or Surroundings	Monitoring and reviewing information from materials, events, or the environment, to detect or assess problems
Monitoring and Controlling Resources	Monitoring and controlling resources and overseeing the spending of money
Selling or Influencing Others	Convincing others to buy merchandise/goods or to otherwise change their minds or actions
Communicating with Persons Outside the Organization	Communicating with people outside the organization, representing the organization to customers, the public, government, and other external sources. This information can be exchanged in person, in writing, or by telephone or e-Mail.
Establishing and Maintaining Interpersonal Relationships	Developing constructive and cooperative working relationships with others, and maintaining them over time
Communicating with Supervisors, Peers, or Subordinates	Providing information to supervisors, co-workers, and subordinates by telephone, in written form, e-mail, or in person

HODGES AND BURNETT'S (2003) RANKING OF BUSINESS PROGRAM GRADUATE
COMPETENCIES, AS CALCULATED BASED ON EMPLOYERS' RESPONSES TO A
QUESTIONNAIRE

Hodges and Burchell - Business Graduate Competencies Importance

APPENDIX C
BAS SUPERVISION AND MANAGEMENT CURRICULUM

Requirements	Credit hours
Associate Degree Credit (From non Gen. Ed. Core – Electives, Professional Core or Professional Electives)	42
Additional General Education Core must be made up of the following courses:	36

- Communications (2000 Level or higher)
- Humanities (2000 Level or higher)
- Mathematics (2000 Level or higher)
- Natural Sciences

Two general education natural science courses including one with a lab. One course must be at the 2000 level or higher.

Social and Behavioral Sciences (2000 Level or higher)

At least one course from the behavioral sciences.

Supervision and Management Core Courses	15

- BUL 3130 - Business Law and Ethics Credit Hours: 3
- FIN 3400 - Financial Management Credit Hours: 3
- GEB 3212 - Business Writing Credit Hours: 3
- MAN 3240 - Organizational Behavior Credit Hours: 3
- MAN 3353 - Management Theory and Practices Credit Hours: 3

Supervision and Management Specialization Courses	27

- ISM 4011 - Introduction to Management Information Systems Credit Hours: 3
- GEB 4891 - Strategic Management and Decision Making Credit Hours: 3
- MAN 4120 - Leadership and Group Dynamics Credit Hours: 3
- MAN 4162 - Customer Relations for Managers Credit Hours: 3
- MAN 4301 - Human Resources Management Credit Hours: 3
- MAN 4504 - Operational Decision Making Credit Hours: 3
- MAN 4900 - Capstone Project in Supervision and Management Credit Hours: 3
- MAN 4930 - Selected Topics in Management Credit Hours:3
- MAN 4940 - Internship Credit Hours: 3

BAS SUPERVISION AND MANAGEMENT COURSE SEQUENCE

Requirements	Credit hours
Associate Degree Credit (From non Gen. Ed. Core – Electives, Professional Core or Professional Electives)	**42**
Additional General Education Core must be made up of the following courses: ▪ Communications (2000 Level or higher) ▪ Humanities (2000 Level or higher) ▪ Mathematics (2000 Level or higher) ▪ Natural Sciences Two general education natural science courses including one with a lab. One course must be at the 2000 level or higher. Social and Behavioral Sciences (2000 Level or higher) At least one course from the behavioral sciences. *Includes any general education accepted from your A.S., A.A. or higher degree. Refer to A.S. degree General Education Requirements*	**36**
Supervision and Management Core Courses ▪ BUL 3130 - Business Law and Ethics Credit Hours: 3 ▪ FIN 3400 - Financial Management Credit Hours: 3 ▪ GEB 3212 - Business Writing Credit Hours: 3 ▪ MAN 3240 - Organizational Behavior Credit Hours: 3 ▪ MAN 3353 - Management Theory and Practices Credit Hours: 3	**15**
Supervision and Management Specialization Courses ▪ ISM 4011 - Introduction to Management Information Systems Credit Hours: 3 ▪ GEB 4891 - Strategic Management and Decision Making Credit Hours: 3 ▪ MAN 4120 - Leadership and Group Dynamics Credit Hours: 3 ▪ MAN 4162 - Customer Relations for Managers Credit Hours: 3 ▪ MAN 4301 - Human Resources Management Credit Hours: 3 ▪ MAN 4504 - Operational Decision Making Credit Hours: 3 ▪ MAN 4900 - Capstone Project in Supervision and Management Credit Hours: 3 ▪ MAN 4930 - Selected Topics in Management Credit Hours:3 ▪ MAN 4940 - Internship Credit Hours: 3	**27**
Total	**120**

Foreign Language Requirement **Bachelors' degree-seeking students must meet a foreign language requirement prior to graduation. Students may fulfill the requirement by completing eight semester hours of the same foreign language or sign language or by passing two years of the same high school foreign language with a grade of "C" or higher, then submitting a high school transcript to their degree program. Also, appropriate**

College Level Examination Program (CLEP) level one and two scores in French, German, and Spanish will be accepted. Math and English waivers from associates' degree do not apply.

APPENDIX E
ESSENTIAL WORK ACTIVITIES

ESSENTIAL WORK ACTIVITIES

Essential activities are defined as task statements with ratings equal to or greater than 60 on a 100 point scale of task criticality. Criticality ratings take into account the importance of the task in meeting job objectives and the time spent performing the task. These ratings were provided by people who know this job well. See WPS Technical Report for details.

B1: SUPERVISING / DIRECTING

Directly supervising people at work
Give instruction to non supervisors
Giving verbal instructions to colleagues
Maintaining a physical presence to make sure all is well
Issuing directions in an emergency
Directing others to repeat a task not satisfactorily done
Supervising to ensure compliance with laws/regulations
Supervising people at a distance (e.g., other locations)

E1: ASSESSING / EVALUATING

Evaluating quality of output of a production system
Testing a system for correct function
Critically examining information for accuracy / quality
Evaluating information for purposes of recommendation
Evaluating the written work of others
Identifying points of danger, fire or crime risk
Assessing items prior to acquisition
Evaluating alternatives prior to choice

A3: CONTROLLING / DIRECTING

Controlling the use of people in meeting objectives
Requiring work to be redone to meet specifications
Authorizing actions
Ensuring work is within a pre-specified budget
Following up with people to expedite work completion
Directing the implementation of agreed policy
Ensuring agreements (legal and / or binding) are adhered to
Laying down procedures for maintenance or safety
Controlling non-people resources to meet objectives

B3: MOTIVATING

Creating a good team spirit
Encouraging cooperation between team members
Appealing to people to increase their motivation
Sustaining interest of others in projects or continuing tasks
Stimulating interest in activities
Encouraging a faster rate of work
Persuading an individual to carry out an unappealing task
Emphasizing the importance of reaching a work objective
Warning people in order to increase their motivation
Understanding the personal needs or motives of others

B5: DISCIPLINING / HANDLING DISPUTES / GRIEVANCES

Reducing tension between people
Defending another individual's position
Avoiding emotional involvement in disputes
Resolving disputes
Listening to grievances
Disciplining people
Physically restraining people
Handling disciplinary problems firmly
Issuing formal warnings
Pointing out poor standard of work
Maintaining discipline in a work environment
Giving verbal warnings in order to correct behavior
Being sympathetic

A1: PLANNING

Setting priorities for utilizing resources
Planning short term (task) objectives
Revising plans to account for changed circumstances
Planning a logical sequence of events or tasks
Creating schedules
Creating a roster or list of duties
Anticipating problems

A2: IMPLEMENTING / COORDINATING

Organizing resources to meet an objective
Allocating resources (people, materials) between jobs
Allocating resources in emergencies
Ensuring the efficient coordination of activities
Allocating duties to others
Initiating action in emergency

F3: INFORMING / DISCUSSING / INTERVIEWING

Discussing issues for clarification or explanation
Making constructive written criticism
Making constructive verbal criticism
Informing workers or staff of management policies
Interviewing formally to establish facts
Providing spoken information about a problem/issue
Providing written information about a problem/issue
Making a verbal report to a supervisor or manager
Answering critical questions about activities
Interviewing formally using structured questionnaire
Challenging instructions or orders

E8: LEARNING / RESEARCHING

Keeping abreast of developments in a specialist field
Undertaking informal training or coaching
Learning new systems, methods or processes

E2: ANALYZING / DIAGNOSING

Identifying patterns or trends within data
Analyzing numerical information
Analyzing written information
Diagnosing problems in physical process or machinery
Diagnosing problems in non-physical system/procedure
Breaking down a procedure into logical steps

B2: APPRAISING / EVALUATING

Evaluating behavior in progress
Evaluating the work of others on completion
Undertaking on the job training of others
Creating confidence among those learning new skills
Demonstrating procedures to help others
Evaluating the work of others in progress
Evaluating the past performance of individuals
Appraising the personal development of individuals
Helping others to produce ideas
Considering appropriate staff development action
Appraising individuals for recruitment or promotion

A4: REVIEWING / EVALUATING

Checking adherence to schedules
Evaluating the cost of a project or venture
Evaluating numerical data on organization or dept.
Evaluating written reports on organization or dept.
Reviewing progress of a case or project
Identifying problems in a project design
Reviewing efficiency of an operation
Reviewing systems or processes to assess adequacy
Reviewing to assess compliance with rules, laws, etc.

OPQ32 Model Scale	Not Relevant	Low Relevance	Moderate Relevance	High Relevance
RP1 - Persuasive	↓		↑	
RP2 - Controlling	↓			↑
RP3 - Outspoken	↓			↑
RP4 - Independent Minded	↓	↑		
RP5 - Outgoing	↑↓			
RP6 - Affiliative	↓	↑		
RP7 - Socially Confident	↓			↑
RP8 - Modest	↑↓			
RP9 - Democratic	↓		↑	
RP10 - Caring		↓	↑	
TS1 - Data Rational	↓			↑
TS2 - Evaluative	↓			↑
TS3 - Behavioral	↓			↑
TS4 - Conventional		↓	↑	
TS5 - Conceptual	↓	↑		
TS6 - Innovative	↑↓			
TS7 - Variety Seeking	↑↓			
TS8 - Adaptable		↑	↓	
TS9 - Forward Thinking	↓	↑		
TS10 - Detail Conscious	↓		↑	
TS11 - Conscientious	↓	↑		
TS12 - Rule Following	↓			↑
FE1 - Relaxed	↓	↑		
FE2 - Worrying	↑	↓		
FE3 - Tough Minded	↓		↑	
FE4 - Optimistic	↓	↑		
FE5 - Trusting	↓		↑	
FE6 - Emotionally Controlled	↓	↑		
FE7 - Vigorous	↓	↑		
FE8 - Competitive	↓	↑		
FE9 - Achieving	↓	↑		
FE10 - Decisive	↓	↑		

APPENDIX G
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP SELF-ASSESSMENT CHANGE PROJECT

Individual Assignment
Worth 15 point (15% of your overall grade for the class)

This is an exciting assignment, one that will not only assist you in the **present** but also in the **future**. If you read the *Wall Street Journal* article, "Personalities Put to the Test" in Module #2, you can see how personality assessments are ubiquitous, and it may not be unusual as part of the selection process the next time you seek employment. Keeping this in mind, the assignment will support you in developing a strategy to improve your OPQ scales and ultimately provide you with career growth opportunity.

The actual assignment is on a different document (See Self-Assessment Change Project). These are instructions that I generally would review in class, but since this section is online, I have provided some guidelines.

A few important points to keep in mind:
1. **General:** While I have provided individual due dates for each part of the assignment, this will be a self-paced project.
2. **Grading:** I am a hard grader on this assignment and can identify when someone does not take the assignment seriously, so make sure that you stay focused. If you want maximum points, you will need to do quality work.
3. **How to Submit:** You will submit the assignment through the assignments tab. Refer to the Due Dates.
4. **Writing Style:** You will follow the APA Guidelines that are outlined in the syllabus and under the documents button. Review the paper **The Importance of HR within Fred Meyer**. This is for style only. Also review the APA Beginners' Guide. I recommend that you consider purchasing the official APA Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association or checking it out from the library. This is the best way for you to fully understand how to write scholarly.
5. **Sample Paper:** Refer to the sample **Self-Assessment Change Project (Sally Smith-Questions 1-5)** to give you an idea of what I am looking for. Your assignment is a little different than this one, but this resource will assist you in better understanding what is expected.
6. **Support Group:** Your support group is the members of your virtual office; therefore, you should be communicating with them weekly to discuss your progress. You will insert the actual communications into your final paper.

7. **Selecting Two Sten Scores:** It is not unusual for students to wonder how to select the sten scores for the assignment. While I am happy to provide you with guidance, it is even better when you consult with your employer. By doing so, you can ask them which of the scales are most important for someone seeking a supervision or management position. These are always different, depending on your company and the type of job you are interested in the future. Please be future-thinking. You want to be prepared for the next job, not your current one. So, for example, if Data Rational is really important, and you did not score well in that category, that might be something you want to work on.
8. **Mentor:** Your mentor should preferably be your immediate supervisor, as they can best provide insight as to what is important for professional growth. Sometimes students say "I don't trust or like my supervisor." If this is the case, find someone at work that you do trust and like, perhaps someone that will help you network toward your next job. Be strategic! If you are not currently employed, you can ask an instructor to serve as your mentor.
9. **Contemporary Research:** Please refer to scholarly articles, journals, and Web sites—no Wikipedia, dictionary, or Web sites that are not evidenced based

Please enjoy the project; it will get you to think a lot about yourself.

	RELATIONSHIPS	Score	Trait	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10		Category
7	rarely pressures others to change their views, dislikes selling, less comfortable using negotiation		Persuasive		enjoys selling, comfortable using negotiation, likes to change other people's view	INFLUENCE
5	happy to let others take charge, dislikes telling people what to do, unlikely to take the lead		Controlling		likes to be in charge, takes the lead, tells others what to do, takes control	
2	holds back from criticizing others, may not express own views, unprepared to put forward own opinions		Outspoken		freely expresses opinions, makes disagreement clear, prepared to criticize others	
6	accepts majority decisions, prepared to follow the consensus		Independent Minded		prefers to follow own approach, prepared to disregard majority decisions	
4	quiet and reserved in groups, dislikes being center of attention		Outgoing		lively and animated in groups, talkative, enjoys attention	SOCIABILITY
3	comfortable spending time away from people, values time spent alone, seldom misses the company of others		Affiliative		enjoys others' company, likes to be around people, can miss the company of others	
5	feels more comfortable in less formal situations, can feel awkward when first meeting people		Socially Confident		feels comfortable when first meeting people, at ease in formal situations	
7	makes strengths and achievements known, talks about personal success		Modest		dislikes discussing achievements, keeps quiet about personal success	EMPATHY
4	prepared to make decisions without consultation, prefers to make decisions alone		Democratic		consults widely, involves others in decision making, less likely to make decisions alone	
4	selective with sympathy and support, remains detached from others' personal problems		Caring		sympathetic and considerate towards others, helpful and supportive, gets involved in others' problems	

	THINKING STYLE	Score	Trait	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10		Category
5	prefers dealing with opinions and feelings rather than facts and figures, likely to avoid using statistics		Data Rational		likes working with numbers, enjoys analyzing statistical information, bases decisions on facts and figures	ANALYSIS
6	does not focus on potential limitations, dislikes critically analyzing information, rarely looks for errors or mistakes		Evaluative		critically evaluates information, looks for potential limitations, focuses upon errors	
1	does not question the reasons for people's behavior, tends not to analyze people		Behavioral		tries to understand motives and behaviors, enjoys analyzing people	
6	prefers changes to work methods, prefers new approaches, less conventional		Conventional		prefers well established methods, prefers a more conventional approach	CREATIVITY AND CHANGE
5	prefers to deal with practical rather than theoretical issues, dislikes dealing with abstract concepts		Conceptual		interested in theories, enjoys discussing abstract concepts	
6	more likely to build on than generate ideas, less inclined to be creative and inventive		Innovative		generates new ideas, enjoys being creative, thinks of original solutions	
2	prefers routine, is prepared to do repetitive work, does not seek variety		Variety Seeking		prefers variety, tries out new things, likes changes to regular routine, can become bored by repetitive work	
4	behaves consistently across situations, unlikely to behave differently with different people		Adaptable		changes behavior to suit the situation, adapts approach to different people	
5	more likely to focus upon immediate than long-term issues, less likely to take a strategic perspective		Forward Thinking		takes a long-term view, sets goals for the future, more likely to take a strategic perspective	STRUCTURE
6	unlikely to become preoccupied with detail, less organized and systematic, dislikes tasks involving detail		Detail Conscious		focuses on detail, likes to be methodical, organized and systematic, may become preoccupied with detail	
5	sees deadlines as flexible, prepared to leave some tasks unfinished		Conscientious		focuses on getting things finished, persists until the job is done	
8	not restricted by rules and procedures, prepared to break rules, tends to dislike bureaucracy		Rule Following		follows rules and regulations, prefers clear guidelines, finds it difficult to break rules	

FEELINGS AND EMOTIONS	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

	Left description	Trait	Right description	
4	tends to feel tense, finds it difficult to relax, can find it hard to unwind after work	Relaxed	finds it easy to relax, rarely feels tense, generally calm and untroubled	EMOTION
4	feels calm before important occasions, less affected by key events, free from worry	Worrying	feels nervous before important occasions, worries about things going wrong	
6	sensitive, easily hurt by criticism, upset by unfair comments or insults	Tough Minded	not easily offended, can ignore insults, may be insensitive to personal criticism	
5	concerned about the future, expects things to go wrong, focuses on negative aspects of a situation	Optimistic	expects things will turn out well, looks to the positive aspects of a situation, has an optimistic view of the future	
2	wary of others' intentions, finds it difficult to trust others, unlikely to be fooled by people	Trusting	trusts people, sees others as reliable and honest, believes what others say	
9	openly expresses feelings, finds it difficult to conceal feelings, displays emotion clearly	Emotionally Controlled	can conceal feelings from others, rarely displays emotion	
6	likes to take things at a steady pace, dislikes excessive work demands	Vigorous	thrives on activity, likes to keep busy, enjoys having a lot to do	DYNAMISM
6	dislikes competing with others, feels that taking part is more important than winning	Competitive	has a need to win, enjoys competitive activities, dislikes losing	
6	sees career progression as less important, looks for achievable rather than highly ambitious targets	Achieving	ambitious and career-centered, likes to work to demanding goals and targets	
4	tends to be cautious when making decisions, likes to take time to reach conclusions	Decisive	makes fast decisions, reaches conclusions quickly, less cautious	
7	has been more self-critical in responses, is less concerned to make a good impression	Social Desirability	has been less self-critical in responses, is more concerned to make a good impression	

OPQ32n (U.S. English) - US General Population 2005

OPQ Scales	O*Net Crosswalk and Reference
Persuasive	Selling or influencing others_____W-54
	Persuasion_____S-60
	Resolving conflicts & negotiating_____W–73
Controlling	Management of personal resources_____S–74
	Guiding directing motivating_____W–81
Outspoken	Provide consultation & advice_____W–59
Independent Minded	Independence_____WS–79
	Independence_____WV–72
Outgoing	Communicating with supervisors, peers, sub_W–87
Affiliative	Establishing and maintaining relationships __W-82
	Communicating with person outside Org_____W–77
	Social orientation_____W–69
Socially Confident	Communicating with person outside Org_____W–77
Modest	N/A
Democratic	Active listening_____S–81
	Getting information_____W–91
Caring	Service orientation_____S–67
	Assisting and caring for others_____WS–82
Data Rational	Mathematics_____S–61
	Mathematical reasoning_____A–50

Evaluative	Reading comprehension_____	S–79
	Critical thinking_____	S–77
	Complex problem solving_____	W–80
	Making decisions and solving problems_____	W–80
	Analyzing data and information_____	W-64
Behavioral	Social perseptiveness_____	S-70
Conventional	Conventional_____	I-78
Conceptual	Deductive reasoning_____	A-66
	Inductive reasoning_____	A-66
	Active learning_____	S-69
Innovative	Fluency of ideas_____	A-60
	Originality_____	A-60
	Thinking creatively_____	W-63
Variety Seeking	Adaptability,flexibility_____	WS-78
	Perform administrative activities_____	W-72
Adaptable	Monitoring_____	S-76
	Oral expression_____	A-81
	Speech recognition_____	A-78
Forward Thinking	Organizing planning & prioritizing work____	W-79
	Scheduling work and activities_____	W-72
	Developing objectives and strategies_____	W-72
Detail Conscious	Identify object, actions, events_____	W-76
	Process information_____	W-75
	Attention to detail_____	WS-90
Conscientious	Selective attention_____	A-60

	Dependability_____WS-92	
	Persistance_____WS-76	
Rule Following	Evaluating information to comply_____W-74	

Notes: W - Work activity,S – Skills,WS – Work styles, A – Abilities,I – Interest

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Sheri D. Litt received her Bachelor of Fine Arts from Pratt Institute in 1990. She also holds a Masters of Social Work from Florida State University and graduated in December 1993. Prior to relocating to Florida, Ms. Litt lived in New York for twenty years, followed by five years in Maryland working for multinational corporations, nonprofit organizations, and educational institutions of higher education at the community college and university level.

Litt joined the Florida Community College System in August 2001, where she was hired as a full-time faculty member. Soon after receiving tenure in 2004, she became the Associate Dean of Workforce Development at Florida Community College at Jacksonville. Some of her recent accomplishments include serving as Integrative College-wide Leader for the Supervision and Management program, the 2009 Administrative and Professional Collaborative chair, and one of a four-person team that developed the college's High Level Leadership, a formal program to develop future leaders that also provides monthly social activities.