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INTRODUCTION

The Journal of Higher Education Management is published under the auspices and sponsorship of the American Association of University Administrators. The association's purpose in doing so is to provide opportunities (a) for the discussion of the current issues, problems and challenges facing higher education; (b) for the exchange of practical wisdom and techniques in the areas of higher education leadership, policy analysis and development, and institutional management; and (c) for the identification and explication of the principles and standards of college and university administration.

Taken as a whole, the articles contained in this issue certainly cover all three of these purposes. The five articles in this issue sustained a rigorous consideration process and were accepted for publication only after a blind review by three independent members of the editorial board recommended their acceptance.

The Journal of Higher Education Management invites you to read, enjoy, analyze, digest, and react. We encourage you consider contributing a thought-provoking piece for a future issue.

Dan L. King
Editor-In-Chief

Our Time Has Come

Eduardo J. Marti

Queensborough Community College (City University of New York)

The early part of the 21st Century will mark a time when the majority of undergraduates will complete the first two years of their post-secondary education at two-year institutions; a time when the majority of the workforce will be educated and trained at one of our colleges. In a February 6, 2008 speech, then-presidential candidate Barack Obama referred to the American people saying, "Our time has come." We could apply these same words to community colleges. During the 21st Century, these uniquely American institutions will assume their rightful place in the minds of the higher education community.

While we have student enrollment on our side, we still have a long way to go to gain the credibility that will put us "at the table" with the other sectors of higher education. We operate under an Open Admissions policy. This egalitarian policy of welcoming anyone who holds a high school diploma or a GED, regardless of their achievements does not appropriately inform the performance indicators developed to measure the effectiveness of colleges and universities that operate under a Selective Admissions policy. Rather than admitting those students who we believe have the best chance of completing our curricula, community colleges embrace all with a desire to attend. While this policy has great societal benefits, the traditional indicators such as graduation and retention rates are not as useful in expressing the quality of the educational services provided by community colleges. Our measures of success are usually grounded in the aspect of access. We are considered to be the colleges of opportunity; we provide a second chance to the American Dream by giving underprepared, underprivileged, minorities and adults the possibility of "getting on the right track." So, we measure our success on how accessible we are, how many students we serve, how many of our entering freshman complete remediation, how many of our part-time students are retained from one semester to another, how many of our "stop outs" return to complete their degrees; of those who complete, how many transfer to a baccalaureate institution, how many obtain employment. The measures of excellence are varied. There is no accepted convention to validate the claims of success. The

closest we come to having a common approach is the peer review accreditation process.

Although there is significant interest in developing accountability measures for community colleges (Julian and Smith, 2007), for the measures to be effective there must be a consensus as to what is accountable. College officials must not use the data for punitive actions, the colleges must use the findings to improve performance, and the college community must differentiate between politically driven accountability measures and academic concerns. As the funding of community colleges is generally based on property taxes and as community college trustees are either locally elected or appointed, community college presidents are always aware of the political implications of any data collected about their colleges. These are institutions with little or no endowments, institutions that are solely dependent on the budget allocations of the local counties that, in turn, receive local assistance from the State based on FTE enrollment. In addition, these colleges must maintain their tuition at the lowest possible rates so as to fulfill their mission of providing access to underserved populations. All these factors tend to favor collection of general data rather than a deep analysis of the elements that inform pedagogical success. The purpose of collecting data at the community colleges needs to be refined. A “culture of evidence” based on pedagogical research needs to be developed if we are to provide not only access but also insist on quality.

One initiative that has made some important inroads in creating a “culture of evidence” at the community colleges is the “Achieving the Dream Project (2005)”. This longitudinal study involving 83 colleges in 15 states is designed to provide community colleges, policy-makers and higher education researchers with meaningful data to benchmark colleges’ performance based on student outcomes, enable community college administrators to recognize the value of data-driven decision making and help them analyze student outcomes at their institutions. The project will provide colleges, policy-makers and funders with better research on institutional policies and practices that improve student outcomes.

The use of data driven decision-making at the community colleges is still in the nascent stages. An important analysis of 41 community colleges conducted by the Community College Research Center at Teachers College, Columbia University and the MDRC (formerly the Manpower Demonstration Research

Corporation) demonstrated that even colleges that participate in the Achieving the Dream found that 1) Colleges who participate in the American Dream project are more prone to use a data-driven decision making process; 2) the change to a culture of evidence is a long process; and 3) the use of data-driven decision making is more prevalent at the departmental level than at the administrative level (Jenkins and Reid, 2008).

Using the findings of the Achieving the Dream Project and the research spun from this project, we have an opportunity to leap ahead of more traditional institutions in developing state-of-the-art methodologies that will assess quality not just by comparing one institution to another, but by obtaining a deeper understanding of the teaching and learning process that takes place at community colleges; we must invest our energies in studying *community college pedagogy*. We must create community college-specific protocols that address the idiosyncrasies of teaching in an Open Admissions environment that are compared by the public with the Selective Admission environment of the four-year colleges and universities.

In this article we examine the challenges confronted by community college administrators; we propose a student-centered approach to meet these challenges; and throughout, we make a strong plea for more research, both at the research universities and at the community colleges, on community college pedagogy.

The Challenges

Growth

According to a special analysis of community college enrollments published by the National Center for Education Statistics (2008) and reported in *Inside Higher Education* (2008) from 2000 to 2006 there was a 10% growth in overall enrollment at community colleges. Across the nation, 6.5 million students are enrolled for credit toward an Associate's degree in two-year institutions, about 46% of undergraduate enrollment (American Association of Community Colleges Fast Facts, 2006).

In a recent article that appeared in the *Chronicle of Higher Education* (January 23, 2009), while enrollments are soaring at the community colleges several

states have decreased their support to community colleges by at least 5%. This places a tremendous strain on operating budgets causing community college administrators to concentrate on providing basic services rather than comprehensive support services that improve retention and graduation rates.

Low Graduation Rates

According to the latest report from National Center for Education Statistics, 17.3% of students who started in a two-year college had attained an Associate's degree by 2001 (IPEDS, table 318.) In a study of Florida community colleges Bailey, Crosta and Jenkins (2006) posited that when graduation measures are corrected, the results did not change much. This is counter to the claims by many that using graduation rates to measure success at community colleges is not appropriate because it does not take into account transfer rates, stop-outs and part-time student enrollment. This study shows that when corrected for the above, in the Florida system the graduation rate went from 18.7% to 25%. Still, this is an unacceptable figure for most.

There is a fundamental difference between community college students those colleges where a selection process identifies students who can meet the rigor of their particular curriculum. Open Admissions by definition will result in a lower completion rate. If community colleges were selecting students who had that potential of completing in three years, these colleges, operating under Open Admissions policy, would only admit between 25 to 30% of the applicants. We must find ways to address the 75% of first-time enrollees who do not complete our programs

The above notwithstanding, community colleges are used by many, especially in these difficult economic times as a way to save money. The cost of attending a community college is much less than that of an independent college away from home. So, for some it is launching pads for a baccalaureate education with the expectation to transfer before graduation; for others it is a place to retrain by taking one or two courses to gain a particular skill or engage in a particular intellectual pursuit (Bailey & Morest, 2006).

Training or Education

Community colleges are seen by many as places that can quickly adapt to the local business needs and that provide effective training for the local workforce needs. Many community colleges provide this function and are celebrated by the local business community and the community-at-large as beneficial to the local economies. Community colleges sometimes are said to be economic engines of local communities. The AACC website proudly proclaims that 80% of all first responder are trained by community colleges. While this is clearly an accomplishment, 60 credits is just not enough to ensure that the majority of the people in the U.S. will be educated rather than just trained for a job. How can we provide the skills that are necessary to be trained for highly skilled jobs while ensuring that every graduate attains the necessary critical thinking skills, the computational ability, the scientific background, the historical perspective, and the civic responsibility so necessary to sustain our democracy? Is a trained workforce sufficient to make the US truly competitive in a highly competitive global market (Friedman, 2005, Tough Choices, Tough Times, 2007)?

Goal Clarification, Delayed Gratification, Low Self-Esteem

Our students come to us with a plethora of needs. The first, and perhaps the most important, action that we must take is to assess the aspirations of our first-time students. Goal clarification is essential. As many of our students are not familiar with the nuances of college life, it is vital that prior to entry into a program, a professional assessment of the student-stated goals be made. In our quest to look like a four-year college, we do not provide much prior to the start of classes. Just think of the difference in populations: In a selective college, a student has researched the institution, the student has made an application, the student has written an essay that forced her to think about her aspirations, and the student's intellectual and academic ability has been vetted against the norms of the institution. In an open admissions college, the student does not have to write an essay that forces him to think about his aspirations and the measurement of his abilities is reduced to a basic skills (reading, writing, and computational skills) assessment. Yet, we treat both populations equally. We must address the issue of ensuring that the student knows what he is doing and how he is going to get there.

The first few weeks are essential. Many of our students come to us with low self-esteem. They fully expect someone to let them know that they do not belong in college. So, a harsh word by an instructor; a brush-off by an over-

worked secretary; a bad grade on a quiz; a snide remark by a peer; a difficult financial situation; a problem at home; all or any of these can trigger the “escape response.” We have the responsibility to seek out every incoming student individually and pro-actively monitor their progress, ever on the lookout for warning signs of despair. Institutions must deploy significant resources for this type of monitoring; we must develop ways to approach the first year students in a holistic manner.

While goal clarification is essential, community college students must understand that all the work, all the sacrifice they are making has an ultimate pay-out. Difficulty with the understanding of the concept of delayed gratification is a major cause for community college attrition. Milestone and capstone experiences are wonderful mechanisms to show a student that there is a light at the end of the tunnel and that this light is not a train coming. They can range from internships, to mentorships, to a class project, to service learning, but in whatever form it is expressed, the overarching foundation of the experience is to demonstrate to the student that “book- learning” is necessary for “real life situations.”

A community college version of an instrument designed to determine the extent of student engagement in the four year colleges (Kuh, 2001) has been developed (McKlenney, 2005.) These nationally normed instruments report on the frequency with which students engage in a number of activities representing good educational practice (e.g., participating in classroom discussions, interacting with faculty in and out of class, attendance at orientations, internships, developmental education and learning communities.

This is an important development the assessment of student learning at community colleges. But, there is much to do.

Finances

Most community college students live at home and must pay for living expenses. At our College, 45 %work 30 hours per week or more and attend college full-time. It is difficult for community college students to have the luxury of time. Everything is done in a hurry and therefore any shortcut to learning is taken. While financial aid covers most expenses, there are many students who attend community colleges who are above the poverty line.

These students do not get full financial aid. Even those who get a “full ride” must work to support their families. It is important to have good financial aid counseling and a strong private scholarship program.

This is special important for undocumented students. While children of illegal immigrants can attend public schools (*Plyler v. Doe*, 1982), there are only 10 states that permit these same students to attend public higher education. However, these students are not eligible for financial aid. Hopefully, a new version of the defeated Dream Act will put undocumented students on a course to citizenship. At present, the financial barrier is too great for many and this contributes to the drop out rate by this primarily Hispanic population.

Underpreparedness

A significant number of students come to community college with poor academic preparation. While the majority of community colleges have some kind of assessment of basic skills instrument, not all require students with demonstrated remedial needs to take remedial courses prior to enrolling in college-level courses. Twenty-one states require students who do not meet the minimum college-level performance criteria to take remedial education. In California, Maine and South Carolina, community college students who do not meet the minimum basic skills required are advised to take remedial courses, but are not required to do so. In Connecticut and several other states, students who enroll in fewer than 12 credits are not required to take remedial courses.(Jenkin & Boswell, 2002)

A strong remedial program at a community college is as necessary as a strong undergraduate experience is to a rigorous graduate program. Without the foundation, there are only two options: lower standards or decrease your retention rates.

We must put adequate resources, our best faculty members, our best thinking into the remedial experience. We must stop being ashamed of spending dollars on this process, we must celebrate the victories and we must assess the results. A lot of pedagogical research must be done to find the most efficient ways to help adult learners, as well as low achieving high school graduates, to gain the necessary skills to meet the rigor of the curriculum. We must not inflate grades in the name of retention; the worst insult that can be levied against anyone in

need is to provide them with false praise; we must ensure that the graduates of our community colleges continue to exit our institutions being well-educated and well-prepared for the world of work.

The research needs are complex. The many different populations, educational preparation, aptitudes and abilities make any meaningful collection of data extremely difficult. But, collect data we must. This is the crucible where quality at an open admissions institution is forged. How to assess the individual student's placement is relatively easy through tests such as the ACT/COMPASS; how to prescribe the remedial activities is more difficult. However, without a serious effort at providing effective remediation, especially for those cohorts of students who place at the bottom of the scale, all that we do at community colleges could be considered to be suspect. Clearly, if we are to provide opportunities without the possibility of success, we are wasting time and resources. If we take the position that it is best to have tried than to not try at all, we may be cruelly raising expectations for those who can least afford the ignominy of failure.

A Tried and True Approach with a Twist

No matter how we do it, we must find the way to connect students with each other. Various approaches have been tried by many. A recent study by the MDRC seems to demonstrate that students in the learning community moved more quickly through developmental English requirements, took and passed more courses, and earned more credits in their first semester (Visher, Wathington, Richburg-Hayes, & Schneider, 2008). At Queensborough Community College, we are participating in a three year study whose conclusions will be published sometime in the spring 09. Based on our interest in cohort based education, we decided to scale up our effort. As of the fall 09, at Queensborough Community College, we will admit all first time, full time students through one of six Freshman Academies. They are: Business, Education, Liberal Arts, Health Related Sciences, Visual and Performing Arts, and Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM.) In these Freshman Academies:

- *All first-time, full-time students will have an extended orientation (2 days).*

- *All first-time, full-time students will take at least two block courses or one learning community, including the Introduction to College Life course.*
- *Each student will have an administrative “home” staffed by a secretary and Freshman Coordinator. The Freshman Academies will be staffed day and evening.*
- *Freshman Academy-specific counseling and discipline clustered tutoring will be provided.*
- *Freshman Coordinator(s) will monitor the success of the students.*
- *Student activities will be tailored to each academy.*

The Freshman Coordinator will have a case load of about 150 students. Our average entering first-time, full-time class is about 1200 students. The Freshman Coordinator will be responsible for ensuring that the students attend classes, get the help they need, feel welcomed at the College. Each Freshman Academy also will have a dedicated faculty coordinator on partial release time. This member of the teaching faculty will ensure that the lines of communication between the Freshman Coordinator and the faculty are functioning.

Each Freshman Academy will have high impact activities. These range from e-portfolios to internships to research projects. There will be a milestone and a capstone experience designed by the faculty teaching in each of the Freshman Academies.

This is an expensive project. We calculate that the cost of the six Freshman Academies will total more than \$700,000. We are proceeding with this project in spite of serious budget cuts because we believe that this will greatly improve the learning and, concomitantly, the retention of our students.

The assessment protocol for these Freshman Academies is still a work in progress. At present we want to use student outcomes segmented by populations, retention rates segmented by populations, and nationally normed instruments such as CCSSE.

Community College Pedagogy

Much research is needed in providing meaningful data about community colleges that can inform effective decision making. However, we must appreciate that the professorate of the community colleges are practitioners first. Although there is some discipline-based research conducted at the community colleges, the principal focus of the majority of the faculty members is teaching. Colleges must provide the resources, the atmosphere and the reward mechanisms that will promulgate pedagogical research. This must be our next phase in the development of this uniquely American post-secondary institution.

It is necessary that further research be conducted about how our students learn, what the effective teaching methodologies for our type of students are, what factors are impacting on the retention and graduation rates, and what the essential general education components are of community college curricula. These are but a few examples of areas that could benefit from systematic inquiry.

Realizing the community college faculty's teaching load, realizing that the focus of attention by governing boards at most community colleges is in the preparation of local workforce rather than research, and realizing the very difficult budget conditions of many community colleges, it may be important for two-year college administrators to use their political influence to call upon the federal government for sufficient funding to support this important research. Just as the country mobilized around science 50 years ago when the Sputnik launch woke the US from its comfort zone, we need to call upon the public funders of community colleges to provide the resources to address this massive population. In the absence of a large governmental intervention, we can, as administrators, urge, stimulate, and cajole faculty who are interested in conducting research in "community college pedagogy" to team up with university faculty. This consortial arrangement can create a synergy through the association of practitioners and researchers that may lead to significant advancements in our understanding of community college education. The College Board in the recently published report: "Winning the Skills Race and Strengthening America's Middle Class: An Action Agenda for Community Colleges 2008)" calls for the creation of a Community College Competitiveness Act that will provide adequate funding for this sector. If this comes to fruition, we may be able to divert needed resources to fully support this sector.

American higher education is at a crossroad. Are we to continue the practice of believing that higher education is a privilege that benefits the individual or must we realize that high-quality post-secondary experience, at least to the Associate Degree level is a national imperative for the common good? Community colleges have the infrastructure in place; we have a history of success; and, now, we have the students to have a greater impact on the economic recovery of our nation. Our time has come.

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Developing a Paradigm for Academic Leadership Development

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In this paper we present a paradigm for the design, development, and implementation of comprehensive academic leadership development training programs in higher education. The purpose of academic leadership development is to produce academic leaders who: (a) have high levels of Confidence, Determination, and Integrity. (b) have unique abilities for Innovation, Inspiration, and Vision. (c) have a conceptual sense of organization for success and capacity for action powered by passion. (d) have capacity to step out, reach out, speak out, bring out the best in other people and make things happen.

Rationale

There is no shortage of sound rationale for the development of programs to foster and develop academic leadership. Effective and economically sound policies and practices are critical factors in the success of any institution. Most studies of educational institutions consistently attribute success to strong leadership. While good teaching may be possible in a school with weak and ineffective leadership, sustained improvement is extremely difficult without effective leadership. Often, however, academic leaders are hired or put in positions of leadership for which they have little training, experience, knowledge and/or skills.

We are proposing the following rationale for academic leadership development programs.

1. A breadth of knowledge and depth of understanding of the culture and climate of the university is a crucial element in the success of academic leaders. Acquiring this understanding requires time, energy, and

interaction with all types of people. Many colleges and universities cannot afford the time, or do not have the resources to hire appropriate individuals from outside their own institution. An Academic Leadership Development Program within the institution can recognize, identify, and train potential academic leaders who are already an integral part of the climate and culture.

2. Colleges and universities have missions, philosophies, and goals that are unique. For example, DeVry University "provides high-quality, career-oriented programs with a balance of general education and specialized coursework in technology, business, and management. DeVry aims to help students gain the knowledge, skills, and credentials needed to meet present and future challenges of a global economy" (Mayers Gialamas 2002). This means that through DeVry university helps to develop within its students both high levels of creative thought and creative productivity in commerce. This kind of integration of academic and commercial thought is foreign to many academic leaders. Academic Leadership Development Programs can identify potential personnel who already understand the institutional mission, philosophy, and goals.
3. Academic leadership training programs within the institution bring with them the potential for professional promotion. Potential promotions serve as a strong incentive for faculty, which in turn leads to increased productivity.
4. Bringing and training potential academic leaders together from various geographical locations, will help standardize the differences in administrative style, academic programs, policies and regulations, uniformity of goals and missions, and help to develop a global community network. Training programs also provide the opportunity to observe and identify interactive abilities and leadership traits.
5. Academic leadership training programs provide a platform for open dialogue. This is important in shaping ongoing strategy.
6. Academic leadership training programs give the institution the opportunity to create a large pool of highly trained potential academic leaders.

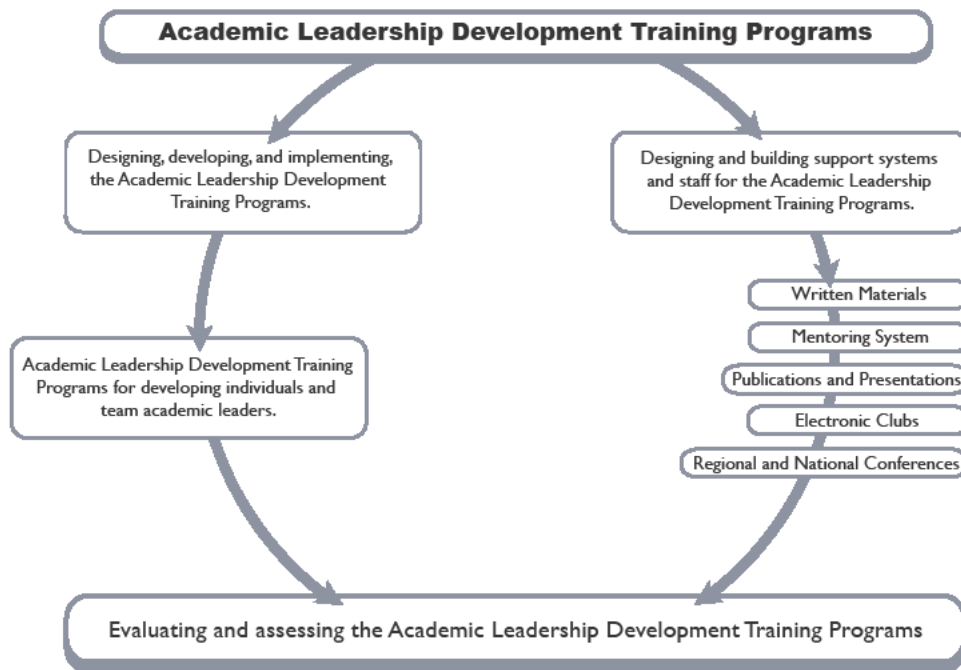
7. Having individuals who have successfully completed academic leadership training programs generates a cadre of effective temporary replacements for administration sabbaticals or emergency leave. Replacements such as these ensure both the continuity of effective leadership and the productivity in the institution.
8. With faculty having successfully completed academic leadership training programs, chairs feel more inclined to develop accountability. A growing body of literature on the role of the human factor in the development of society has convincingly argued that appropriate human factor qualities, such as dedication, honesty, integrity, accountability, responsibility, commitment, loyalty, self-control, truthfulness, etc., hold the key to all forms of productive development. Without these, no institutional programs, policies and plans will work effectively and remain functional over time. (cf., Cherif, Gialamas and Ofori-Amoah, 2000, Adjibolosoo 1999, 1996, Chivaura and Mararike 1998, Adjibolosoo and Ofori-Amoah, 1998). According to Adjibolosoo (1993, 1995, 1996), effective leadership depends on well-prepared people.
9. Although Academic leaders hired from outside the institution are always necessary, they will require more time to learn the climate and the culture of the institution and to become comfortable with the working environment of the institution.
10. Many colleges and universities might not have the resources to conduct their own academic leadership development programs. Institutions such as these might consider sending their newly appointed and/or current academic leaders to attend a well established leadership development program.

Description of the Program.

As seen in diagram #1, the program consists of two main components that are intertwined: First, Leadership Development training programs for individuals and team leaders. Second Support Systems and Staff.

I. Leadership Development Training Programs for Individuals and Team Leaders.

This component of the program includes designing and developing the programs, identifying and selecting potential personnel for academic leadership positions, implementing the training program for developing academic leaders, evaluating and assessing the academic leadership training programs, re-designing, developing, implementing, and re-evaluating the program. Later in this paper we will explore this section in detail.



selected based on their exemplary academic work and accomplishments in their professional careers or work habits and style.

1. Self-Nomination through Application: Faculty, staff and administrators respond to a call For Self- Nominations to participate in academic leadership training programs.
2. Nomination by Others: Current academic leaders, faculty and staff forward names to the office of the Dean of Faculty and Instruction for consideration.
3. Supported Nomination by Current Academic Leaders: Current academic leaders nominate and provide documented support.

II. Support Systems and Staff

This component of the program consists of written materials, individual and team mentoring systems, publications & presentations, electronic clubs, regional and national conferences of university campuses and professional organizations, etc.

Identifying and Selecting Personnel

A number of mechanisms have been implemented to select the right personnel for participating in leadership development training programs. In all cases, a committee from the office of the Dean of Faculty and Instruction reviews the applications.

1. Administrative Nominations: Potential personnel for are identified and selected based on their exemplary academic work and accomplishments in their professional careers or work habits and style.
2. Self-Nomination Through Application: Faculty, staff and administrators respond to a call For Self- Nominations to participate in academic leadership training programs.
3. Nomination By Others: Current academic leaders, faculty and staff forward names to the office of the Dean of Faculty and Instruction for consideration.

4. Supported Nomination By Current Academic Leaders: Current academic leaders nominate and provide documented support.

Evaluation

In order to produce a practical model for Academic Leadership Development we are constantly engaging in evaluating and assessing the program. For example, the parts of the training are examined and the successful elements are identified. This self-renewing approach provides us with a practical model for systemic improvements in effectiveness.

The programs are designed and conducted in a way that provides opportunities for participants to ask questions, share experiences, and examine their own leadership practices. In so doing, we are creating the environment to apply various evaluation tools, strategies and procedures to gather quantitative and qualitative data and information that is needed to make a sound decision regarding the effectiveness of the training program. Continuous observations during the training, in-depth interviews with selected numbers of those who complete the program, questionnaires both at the beginning and at the end of the training program, individual and group daily assignments, personal opinion of two outside academic leaders who are invited to attend each training program, after session assignments, follow up limited interviews, follow up surveys, self-reflection evaluation, all serve this process.

Transition from an Existing Position to an Academic Leadership Position

The Transition from Faculty to Chair: Using specific criteria faculty and staff are identified for possible entry to the Chair Development Program (CDP). Identified faculty and staff are asked to provide two written pages to justify why they should be part of this program and become chairs. The finalists enter the training program. During the training in the CDP program, comprehensive observations based on a set of criteria are collected and used to further determine those who possess the potential for becoming successful chairs.

After completing the CDP program, participants are again asked to prepare two written pages to justify why they should be given the opportunity to become

chairs. They are also asked to do a self-reflective evaluation of the program. Their written justification and self-reflective evaluation are kept and included as a part of the criteria for future selection.

The Transition from Chair to Dean: The Mechanism and the procedures for implementing CDP are used for developing potential chairs to become deans (DDP). The differences are in the focus, content, and the goals of the program.

Transition from Dean to Academic Chief: The Mechanism and the procedures for Implementing DDP are used for developing potential deans to become Chief academic Officer (ACOP). The differences are in the focus, content, and the goals of the program.

Team Leadership Training Program

Since DeVry University opens at least one new campus every 2- years, there is a need to design, develop, and implement specific programs for developing a team of academic leaders. A team of academic leaders may include the following: four potential chairs, two potential deans, and one potential academic chief officer. Or it may include one existing chair and four potential chairs, one existing dean and two potential deans, and one existing and one potential academic chief officer. The members of a given team academic leaders work together throughout the training period and are required to do individual assignments as well as team assignments including assimilation of running one of DeVry University campuses for one whole academic year.

Building a Support System and Staff for Academic Leadership Programs

The success of the ALDP depends on a support system and staff who are not only highly qualified but who also have a strong belief in the mission of the institution and the goals of the ALDP. A support system such as this should include written materials, individual and team monitoring, publications and presentations, electronic clubs, and regional and national conferences at both institutional level and professional organization levels. Collectively, these supportive mechanisms and strategies provide additional opportunities for participants to increase those skills that will produce greatness in their own campuses and in turn the whole institution. It develops and extends their networks of professional contacts, and increases their knowledge,

understanding and appreciation of the various factors and forces that influence education on their campus and institution. This way they acquire personal growth in a supportive, enjoyable professional environment that helps set a positive, energized tone for beginning a career in academic leadership.

Written material: Written materials include a newsletter that reports trends, research findings, exemplary programs, and available resources in leadership development, effectiveness, and productivity. It also reports on the relationship between effective leadership, creative management, effective teaching and productive learning in career-oriented institutions; and serves as a vehicle for communicating new ideas and the use of educational materials for training and building a leadership support system. Written materials also include related books and professional journals.

Mentoring Support System: The Mentoring support system provides real and concrete help and support to those who successfully complete the academic leadership training programs.

Publications and Presentations Support System: Those who successfully complete the academic leadership-training program will be supported and encouraged to conduct research, present professional lectures and presentations, and publish academic papers and research results and findings. The support also includes making them aware of the professional journals that publish their kind of work and publishing companies that might be interested in publishing their work.

Electronic Clubs: Electronic clubs are effective meeting, sharing, and communicating tools for those who work on campuses that are distributed nationwide, or for those who work at different time periods during the workday, semester, or academic year. These types of electronic clubs include Discipline Electronic Clubs, Publishers Electronic Clubs, Chairs Electronic Clubs, Deans Electronic Clubs, and Chief Academic Officers Electronic Clubs.

Regional and National Conferences: Those who successfully complete the academic leadership programs are encouraged to attend, participate and present in conferences and workshops that focus on various aspects in academic leadership. Furthermore, they are encouraged to maintain some level of interest in their original academic profession (e.g., information technology) by

attending a few selected conferences for two reasons: 1. People respect those leaders who are still able to intellectually communicate with their peers in their chosen discipline. Maintaining some level of interest in the original professional discipline (e.g., information technology) would help make any backward transition easier. After working for a number of years, some academic leaders decide to go back to teaching and classroom related activities.

Regional Campuses and National Institutional Conferences: Those who successfully complete the academic leadership programs are given the opportunity to organize, attend, and participate in regional campus and national institutional conferences and workshops that focus on their field and professional interest. They are provided the financial support, the flexibility in courses, teaching schedules and or administrative duties, the library resources, personnel and manpower to do research, articulate their ideas and philosophies, and prepare their presentations and workshops in professional fashions. Often they are provided an opportunity to present their presentations at the campus before presenting them in regional and national institutional venues.

Regional and National Professional Organization Conferences: Those who successfully completed the academic leadership program are given the opportunity to attend and present in regional and national professional organization conferences and workshops that focus on their field and professional interest.

Elements to Look for After The Participants Successfully Complete The Program.

1. Did the academic leaders recognized the critical role regular meetings and open dialogue play in shaping ongoing direction?
2. Did the academic leaders delegated much of the work associated with the improvement of instructional and management matters to coordinators, and yet, maintained a key role at every stage of implementation to ensure desirable success and productivity?
3. Did the academic leaders develop and build mechanisms that ensure a balance between pressure and support in their institutions (Hill and Crevola 1999)?

4. Did the academic leaders undertake team-rigorous evaluations of their campuses before initiating limited and or comprehensive improvement strategies for their campuses?
5. Did the academic leaders invested resources, time and staff before initiating a limited or a comprehensive institutional approach to improvement within their own campuses?
6. Are maximizing learning and achieving high student performance still the number one priority of the academic leaders and are these the principles that guide the rigorous evaluations of and the improvement strategies for their campuses?
7. Did the academic leaders built a focused institutional support service to ensure improvement actions can take place at all levels in the campuses?
8. Did the academic leaders design, develop and implement accountability and incentive frameworks that link performance to well established standards of productivity, delivery of educational services and improved student learning outcomes. ?
9. Did the academic leaders give coordinators of programs, chairs of departments, etc., substantial autonomy to improve quality and responsiveness of decision making and in turn the quality of teaching and learning in their own campuses?
10. Did the academic leaders make the changes in their current work habits and philosophy to more leading and less managing?
11. Have the academic leaders been able to identify and lock in the changes that have led to positive and desirable improvement in their campuses?
12. Have the academic leaders "incorporated continuous improvement processes into daily operations so that the gain achieved are not only sustained but progressively extended" Hill & , 1999, p. 138) in their campuses?

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Appendix 1

Knowledge and Skills for Academic Leadership Development Training Program

Administrative
Process Improvement
Budget, Spending, and Accounting
Classroom Teaching
Communicating Mission
Communication Through Technology
Community Relationship Skills.
Dealing Controversial Issues
Dealing With Projects and Programs
Dealing with Troublesome Employees
Developing an Assessment System
Developing curricula
Developing Instruction
Early Intervention
Employee Assessment and discipline
Employee Rights and Obligations.
Employee-Employer Relationship Skills.
Funding Raising Skills.
Inspiration and organization skills.
Interpersonal Skills
Lead More, Manage Less skills.
Leadership
Goals alignment
Community Partnership
Time management
Monitoring and assessment Skills.
Organizational Skills.
Planning and controlling
Problem Solving and Trouble Shooting
Professional development Skills.
Project Management Skills.
Reading Information Skills (in Content areas)
Reporting

Safety
Goal setting.
Staff Development
Standards and targets Skills.
Motivation
Taking action and making things happen skills.
Transition from School to work Place Skills.
Legal Responsibilities
Regulatory
Work for rather than wait for success skills.
Written communication

Appendix 2

Knowledge and Skills - Know How:

Administrative knowledge and Skills (A)

- * To Effectively Interpret and Communicate the Institution's Mission and Goals. **A**
- * To Understand the Rules and Regulations of effectively leading a campus. **A**
- * To Professionally Identify, Hire and evaluate employees **A**
- * To promote undergraduate education in the campus which is the primary goal for all colleges and universities in our country. **A**
- * To Delegate Responsibilities to The Right People Skills. **A, B, M**
- * To Assess, Reword, and Discipline Employees. **A**

Monitoring and Assessment Knowledge and Skills (E)

- * To Assess and Monitor the "In-process" Improvement Efforts and Initiatives. **E**
- * To Effectively Deal With Projects and Programs That are Not On Track or Not Achieving Their Goals. **E**
- * To Effectively Intervene and Provide Specific Assistance at Early Stages. **E**
- * To Report Success and Failure of Projects to Employees and to Administration. **E**

Academic Knowledge and Skills (B)

- * To Identify Classroom Teaching Programs. **B**
- * To Communicate Through Technology. **B**
- * To Develop Comprehensive Learner-centered Instructional Materials. **B**
- * To Develop Comprehensive Learner-centered Assessment System. **B**
- * To Develop Curricula that Prepare Students For Life Beyond Schools. **B**
- * To Develop Instruction That is Consisted with Content-Areas-Learning Process. **B**
- * To Develop a Student-centered Meaning (why/how) Based Learning Environment. **B**
- * To Develop Programs to Educate Students to Make the Transition from School to Work. **B**

Finance Knowledge and Skills (C)

- * To Effectively Handle Budget, Spending, and Accounting. **C**
- * To Engage In Fund Raising That Can be Transferred to Academic and Public Institution Sectors. **C**
- * To Plan, Write, and Prepare Competitive Reader-Friendly Grant Proposal Skills. **C**

Outreach, Publicity, and Public Relation Knowledge and Skills (D)

- * To Build Strong Communities and Effective Community Relationships. **D**
- * To Develop School-Community Partnerships. **D**

Management Knowledge and Skills (G)

- * To Deal With Daily Management Issues Skills. **M**
- * To Deal with Troublesome Employee Skills. **M**
- * To Build Employee-Employer Relationship Skills. **M**
- * To Install Inspiration, Leadership and Management Skills. **M**
- * To Develop Organization and Coordination skills. **M**
- * To align Employee and Programs Goals With The Missions of the Institution. **M**
- * To Organize and Manage Time Skills. **M**
- * To Develop Problem Solving and Trouble Shooting Skills. **M**
- * To Build Effective Project Management Skills. **M**
- * To Set Measurable Goals to Oneself, Groups, Employee, and Programs Skills. **M**
- * To Understand Legal Responsibilities. **M**
- * To Make a Balance Between Leading and Managing. **M**
- * To Keep up to date with current methods of faculty evaluation. **M**
- * Current methods of grants and funding sources. **M**
- * To Keep up to date with current methods of departmental accountability to the college, and annual assessment strategies of majors. **M**
- * To Identify Those With Low self-efficacy Beliefs and Help them Develop To Make Productive Balance Between Employee Rights and Obligations. **M**

- * To Understand and Communicate Safety Rules In Work Place. **M**
- * To Read Information-Content Areas Skills. **F/M**
- * Keep up to date with current successful methods for communicating with Admissions. **B/M**

Research, Development and Training Knowledge and Skills. (F)

- * To Develop Systems According to Specific Needs Skills. **F**
- * To Develop a Comprehensive Assessment Plans and Methods Skills. **F**
- * To Plan and Follow Control-System Skills. **F**
- * To Plan, Develop and Carry Out Professional Development Skills. **F**
- * To Plan, Develop and Carry Out Staff Development Skills. **F**

Interpersonal Skills (H)

- * Higher Self-Efficacy Belief. **H**
- * To Build a High Level of Confidence, Determination, and Integrity. **H**
- * To Help Others To Innovate, Inspire, and to have Vision. **H**
- * To Build Capacity for Action Powered by Passion. **H**
- * To Step out, Reach out, Speak out, and Bring out the Best in Other People **H**
- * To Care with The Ability To Effectively Handle Crisis Skills. **(H)**

Professional Growth and Development Skills (I)

- * To Identify broadly based, resourceful teacher-scholars. **(I)**
- * To Effectively develop a system of evaluation of established faculty members. **(I)**
- * To use Boyer's (1990) 4-scholarship Model of faculty development: (1) Scholarship of Discovery, (2) Scholarship of Integration, (3) Scholarship of Application, and (4) Scholarship of Teaching; "which all faculty members need to be engaged, at some meaningful level, and for some significant amount of time, in each." (Wallace, Robert , 2002) **(I)**

Important Quotations

“Oh, it is excellent to have a giant's strength, but it is tyrannous to use it like a giant.”
(William Shakespeare)

“The ear of the leader must ring voices of the people.” (Woodrow Wilson)
“Example is not the main thing in influencing others; it is the only thing.” (Albert Schweitzer)

“For every complex problem, there is a simple solution ... and it's wrong.”
(Anonymous)

“The signs of outstanding leadership are found in the followers.” (Max de Pree)

“Great Leaders ... are restlessly driven by possibilities and potential achievements.”
(Donna Harrison)

Guidelines for Contributors

The purpose of the **Journal of Higher Education Management** is to promote and strengthen the profession of college and university administration the **Journal** provides a forum for:

- (a) a discussion of the current issues, problems and challenges facing higher education;
- (b) an exchange of practical wisdom and techniques in the areas of higher education leadership, policy analysis and development, and institutional management; and
- (c) the identification and explication of the principles and standards if college and university administration.

Manuscripts should be written for the college or university administrator who has the general responsibilities of educational leadership, policy analysis, staff development, and/or institutional management. Practical as well as scholarly-oriented submissions are welcome.

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The Importance of Identifying and Communicating Sophisticated Vocabulary Strategies

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Research devoted to second language (L2) vocabulary acquisition is growing (Cook, 2001; Gass and Schachter, 1989; Jiang, 2002; Long, 2007; Paribakht and Wesche, 1999; Read, 2004). There is, however, a relative paucity of study devoted to understanding the strategies advanced L2 learners adopt to develop their lexical competency. For this reason, the purpose of this study was to survey and identify the specific strategies these L2 learners used to integrate new words into their English language. Establishing a casual relation between the learners' strategies and successful vocabulary acquisition was beyond the scope of this investigation. The discussion first reviews research devoted to second language acquisition (SLA) as it pertains to implicit and explicit learning, inferring and the distinction between receptive knowledge and productive knowledge. Analysis of the learner's stated strategies were then classified through Oxford's (1990) and Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy of learning strategies and were situated within Henriksen's (1999) theory of lexical competence. The conclusion considers the important role L2 educators occupy in communicating sophisticated strategies for vocabulary acquisition among advanced L2 learners, and maintains that L2 learners acquire advanced vocabulary typically encountered in academic, authentic texts, and in standardized English as a Second Language (ESL) exams administered by state and educational institutions.

Vocabulary Acquisition

Implicit and explicit learning

The acquisition of English vocabulary for adult learners is an issue of significant importance in their linguistic development. The literature suggests that L2 learners are often acutely aware of their ignorance of vocabulary in a

way that they are unaware of their ignorance of grammar and phonology (Cook, 2001; Gass and Schachter, 1989). Vocabulary acquisition is a process that involves meaningful encounters with a previously unknown word, and that continues through the successful integration of key features of that word into their mental lexicon (Paribakht and Wesche, 1999). First language (L1) and L2 research supports the conclusion that most vocabulary acquisition occurs largely through explicit learning and implicit or incidental learning (Lightbown and Spada, 1999; Paribakht and Wesche, 1999; Schmitt, 2000; Singleton, 1999). Gass (1999) explains the process of incidental learning as repeatedly encountering the newly acquired lexical term in various contexts until it becomes fully internalized. Learning new vocabulary is incremental and multistage because word meanings are not neatly contained in concise definitions, rather conglomerates of associations with other words and collocations of words situated at different points of several related continua at any given time (Gass, 1999).

Ellis (1995) developed four hypotheses that framed implicit and explicit vocabulary learning models, incorporating explicit vocabulary learning into a framework that recognized most vocabulary learning was implicit. The first hypothesis – implicit-learning model – states that words are acquired largely by unconscious means. The second hypothesis – weak implicit-learning model – contends that words cannot be learned without at least some consciousness or observance that a new word is being learned. The third hypothesis – weak explicit-learning model – holds that learners are active processors of information and that a range of strategies are used to infer the meaning of a word, usually with reference to its context. The fourth and final hypothesis – strong explicit model – holds that a range of metacognitive strategies such as planning and monitoring are necessary for vocabulary learning. It is in the fourth hypothesis that a more secure and explicit, long-term learning is likely to occur if the learner engages in greater depth of processing. Ellis (1995) states that this process involves metacognitive strategies “for inferring the meanings of words, for enmeshing them in the meaning networks of other words and concepts and imagery representations, and mapping the surface forms to these rich meaning representations.” (p. 16). According to Ellis, successful vocabulary acquisition occurs when learners employ metacognitive strategies to internalize unfamiliar words.

Inferring

For those new lexical items that L2 learners attend to, inferring is the main strategy employed. Inferring results in higher rates of acquisition than do appeals to direct definitions, because learners have to do some problem solving to make inferences, which in turn strengthens the cognitive associations between the word and its meaning (Gass, 1999). Increasing L2 students' volume of reading has been found to produce significant gains in vocabulary knowledge and other aspects of linguistic proficiency (Nagy, 1997).

Guessing meaning from context is much more difficult in a L2 than in a L1. Paribakht and Wesche (1999) found that L2 learners seemed to ignore a large proportion of new words they encountered while reading. The difficulty for L2 learners relying solely on inference – or context learning – is that it can be a very slow process, dependent on linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge, and susceptible to arriving at a wrong conclusion, especially for students with low-level proficiency (Read, 2004; Sokmen, 1997). Nagy (1997) explains some of these complexities in relying on inference as a learning strategy:

Inferring the meaning of a word from context involves a relationship between the situation model (the reader/listener's model of meaning of the text) and the text model, as well as knowledge of the nature of the possible mappings between the two. These, in turn, draw on the learner's world knowledge, his or her theory about the way in which the word belongs, and knowledge about the way in which the relevant part of the lexicon is organized (p. 83).

Nevertheless, Sokmen (1997) acknowledges that inferring may be especially helpful for L2 students with higher proficiency when used in combination with explicit instruction or when learning highly complex words.

Receptive and productive knowledge

A word can be distinguished in terms of a learner's receptive use (listening or reading) and use of the word for productive purposes (speaking or writing). Studies have shown that learners are able to demonstrate a much larger receptive vocabulary than a productive vocabulary, and one's receptive knowledge precedes production as much as the productive knowledge of a

word extends the receptive knowledge of it (Nation, 1990; Schmitt, 2000; Singleton, 1999). Expanding a learner's vocabulary is part of that agenda to meet their receptive and productive communication needs. The dichotomy between reception and production may seem a convenient notion for vocabulary teaching; however, some scholars have advanced the claim that the distinction should be avoided while others have investigated the combination of receptive and productive learning to facilitate better receptive retention than receptive learning alone (Mondria and Wiersma, 2004). Melka (1997) contends that the gap between the dichotomous relationship of receptive and productive vocabulary is a difference of degrees of knowledge shifting along a continuum that evolves in accordance with "various linguistic or extra-linguistic factors" (p.99).

Acquiring word meaning is a complex process that involves syntactic information and, in particular, the subcategorization of words – that is, the syntactic frames that words fit into. Gass (1999) states that it is possible for a learner to have completely accurate semantic associations with a given word and yet have a deviant syntactic sub-categorization frame for it. Jiang (2002) considers whether L2 lexical forms are mapped on their own to the existing semantic content of their L1 translations rather than to new semantic specifications, finding strong evidence in support of the presence of L1 semantic content in L2 lexical entries. Cook (2001) claims that the words of two languages are stored in the L2 learner's mind as separate, dependent, or single stores. Taken together, vocabulary acquisition involves multiple processes, linking words to their semantic interpretation.

The process of mapping meaning onto form was considered by Henriksen (1999) who set out to understand the learners' ongoing process of constructing and reorganizing their interlanguage semantic networks. According to Henriksen, language learners face at least three different but related tasks when acquiring word meaning: (a) labeling, (b) packaging, and (c) network building. Network building refers to the process of discovering the sense relations or intentional links between words – fitting the words together in semantic networks, which mean extending the word's meaning potential through processes of categorization, abstraction, and generalization in varying contexts and situations. This process is described by Henriksen as the semantization process in order to emphasize the learners' "ongoing and simultaneous process of developing semantic (i.e. definitional, referential, or extensional links) understanding of a word and working out its semantic relation to other lexical

items in the complex structure of mental lexicon or semantic networks (i.e. “intentional links)” (pp. 307-308).

Vocabulary acquisition strategies

There are a number of strategies for acquiring unfamiliar words, including recognizing contextual clues, inferring word meaning from context, using a dictionary, analyzing word units, incorporating mnemonic devices, elaborating on semantic interpretations, memorizing collocations and lexical phrases, and developing oral production, among others (Cook, 2001; Qian, 2004; Sokmen, 1997). Of these, learners often use multiple sources of information while processing a word and employ various strategies as they mature or become more proficient in the target language. Strategies for understanding and learning vocabulary have identified the learner making deductions from the word-form or resorting to the language they already know and link cognates that are similar in form, particularly if the languages are closely related.

Strategies for acquiring new words can be categorized into two areas: strategies for the discovery of a new word’s meaning and strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered (Schmitt, 2000). Under each category, approaches adopted by L2 learners to acquire the lexical terms include repetition and memorization, writing in margins, taking notes, organizing words in a word map or in groups by common morphology linked to meaning, and linking a word to existing knowledge through mental imagery, to name a few (Cook, 2001).

Effective acquisition of vocabulary can never be just the learning of individual words and their meaning in isolation – nor is it just linking a form with a translated meaning. The acquisition of words – or the attention to words in a written text or spoken context – involves learning the range of semantic and syntactic information that goes with acquiring vocabulary and the associations with other words and collocations of words in a discourse environment. According to Cook (2001), internalizing a new word includes “acquiring a complex range of information about its spoken and written form, the ways it is used in grammatical structures and word combinations, and several aspects of meaning” (p. 62).

Deeper vocabulary learning strategies such as forming associations can be effective especially if they are employed by advanced L2 learners (Schmitt, 1997). This stance is echoed by Long (2007) who stresses the importance of

elaboration of listening and reading comprehension materials to enable the learner to comprehend new lexical items through clarification requests, comprehension checks, and confirmation checks. He further emphasizes that exposure to unfamiliar vocabulary is essential to enable the learner to make the link between meaning and use for successful retention.

Finally, classroom instruction differs in terms of its overall focus, and the type of input and corrective feedback: recasts, elicitation, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, and repetition (Lightbown and Spada, 1999). It is generally believed that authentic text-based language teaching whereby L2 learners are exposed to speeches given by native-speaking politicians, telephone conversations between native speakers in natural speech, and academic lectures facilitates the acquisition of new vocabulary. However, Long (2007) cautions against simplifying so-called authentic text, as he believes that “elaborate input” is more conducive to language learning in general and vocabulary acquisition in particular. He recommends Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT), which focuses on pedagogic tasks rather than on using language as an object for communication purposes. Doughty and Long (2003) contend that by engaging learners in problem-solving tasks, teachers can raise the L2 learners’ level of consciousness and hold their attention.

Methodology

A survey was distributed to 189 adult L2 learners enrolled in an advanced ESL remedial writing course in a large, public university in the northeast of the United States to plumb their strategies for integrating vocabulary. The student-centered writing course emphasized the production of regularly written essays in the context of responding critically to authentic and academic texts. Students in the fifteen-week course were provided with content-based instruction in rhetoric, grammar, usage, and introduced to college reading skills such as identifying main and implied ideas, recognizing supporting details, inferring, and understanding the thesis statement. The course also prepared the ESL students for a standardized writing test that many had difficulty passing in the university they were enrolled.

A survey (see Appendix A), consisting of eight demographic questions and six open-ended questions related to vocabulary acquisition, was distributed to ten sections of the writing course. Rather than list a number of vocabulary

strategies in semi-closed-ended questions for the participants to choose from, open-ended qualitative questions were formulated for advanced L2 learners to avoid a response-bias pattern. In order to assure a higher response rate than if the survey was mailed or distributed on-line, the researchers distributed the survey at the end of each class that participated in the study. Students were told their participation was voluntary, not connected to individual grades or course performance, and their responses anonymous. In accordance with the university's minimum age requirement for participation in research, it was stated that students under the age of 18 years were not allowed to respond to the survey.

The majority of the participants were between the ages of 18-25 (77%); 13% between the ages of 26-25; 7% between the ages of 26-45; 1% between the ages of 46-55; and one participant over 55 years. Many of the participants were enrolled as full-time students (79%). A small percentage identified themselves as part-time students (21%). A sizeable percentage of the participants were engaged in part-time (39%) or full-time (19%) employment; others were non-employed (37%), self-employed (2%), or identified as 'other' (3%). There was an almost equal distribution of male (46%) and female participants (54%). Many lived in the U.S. for more than three years, and most received at least 5 years of ESL classroom instruction. The largest number of participants identified their L1 as either Spanish or Chinese. Fourteen other L1s were selected (see Appendix B).

Results

Students in the advanced writing course identified "communication" as the principal reason to develop their vocabulary, followed by academic motivations, personal reasons, and job-related incentives. All but two participants stated that increasing their vocabulary was very important for their L2 development, and declared they devoted time improving their knowledge of English vocabulary. Factors that caused difficulties for L2 participants integrating new vocabulary included the spelling and pronunciation of a word, guessing meaning from context, using new vocabulary in context, determining parts of speech, and socio-emotional factors such as linguistic insecurity, inaccessibility to native English speakers, and interacting with non-native speaking compatriots, to name a few.

The strategies identified by the L2 participants as contributing to and facilitating their vocabulary development were first classified under five themes: Memorization – remembering and repeatedly writing a word; Inference – reading books, newspapers, magazines, poetry, and novels; Receptive-productive – class participation, language laboratory use, pronunciation exercises, interacting with peers, course lectures, essays, grammar exercises, quizzes, debates, and discussions; Morphological, semantic, and syntactic knowledge – stem, derivational affixes, grammatical inflections, and cognates between L1 and L2; Dictionary use – mono-bilingual, pictorial, and electronic; and Individual strategies – employing index cards and vocabulary sheets, underlining unfamiliar words, seeking information from native speakers, utilizing the Internet, and actively listening to new words communicated on television or through songs. The themes that emerged from the data were instructive but prevented discrete and sophisticated linguistic analysis in terms of layered, multiple interpretations. The strategies classified below allowed for more precision and clarity of interpretation and analysis.

Classification and interpretation of learners' strategies

Oxford (1990) and Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy of learning strategies provided a useful classification for organizing and compressing the students' stated lexical items into five discrete categories. Schmitt's Determination strategy was added to Oxford's Memory, Cognitive, Metacognitive, and Social strategies. The rationale for the addition of Schmitt's strategy was that there was no category in Oxford's taxonomy which highlighted the actual strategies used by the surveyed L2 learners to decipher meaning from unfamiliar words without resorting to an external source. The five categories are described below:

Memory (MEM) (Oxford, 1990): reflects simple principles and approaches that relate new material to existing knowledge, such as arranging, making associations, and reviewing.

Cognitive (COG) (Oxford, 1990): essential in learning, with varied strategies such as repeating, analyzing, and summarizing – approaches that exhibit manipulation or transformation of the target language by the learner.

Metacognitive (MET) (Oxford, 1990): allows the learner to coordinate the learning process through centering, planning, and evaluating. It

involves a conscious overview of the learning process and making decisions about planning, monitoring, or evaluating the best ways to study.

Social (SOC) (Oxford, 1990): strategies used in interactions with other people to improve language learning.

Determination (DET) (Schmitt, 1997): used to describe the kind of strategy utilized by the learner when faced with discovering a new word's meaning without recourse to another person's expertise.

Both Oxford (1990) and Schmitt (1997) observe that the classifications are not without questions surrounding what strategies are, how many strategies exist, whether some strategies should be classified as MEM or COG, and the inadequacies of some categories with strategies that could fit into two or more groups. Furthermore, while the categories are fluid and open to debate, Schmitt (1997) suggests that they are not entirely comprehensive. Indeed, there is a degree of subjective judgment determining which strategy fits in a particular classification.

Strategies used by the participants in this study to internalize new words through rote learning, writing down the new word, and remembering the spoken word in context were classified as MEM, because they involved a conscious process of memorizing information. In contrast, the largest number of strategies reported by these participants involved mental processes to think, perceive, and recognize unfamiliar lexical items. These strategies were employed by the participants to accomplish language-learning tasks, and were classified as COG. It should be noted that the participants reported using COG strategies for academic purposes and, to a large extent, relied on technology such as on-line monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, and computer software to decipher the meaning of new words. For this reason, those strategies pertaining to academic purposes and the use of technology were also classified as COG. This decision was based on Cummins's (1980) Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), which describes the special types of strategies learners frequently use to perform academic tasks. Moreover, following Schmitt (1997), strategies without recourse to external informational sources such as a native speaker's knowledge or a language teacher's expertise were classified as DET. Finally, strategies reported by the participants to improve Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) – skills required for

interpersonal and social communication which are cognitively relatively undemanding and depends on guessing meaning from context (Cummins, 1980) – were classified as SOC.

Table 1 lists the participants' reported strategies to integrate new lexical terms. In the first column, the participants' strategies are identified. The percentage of participants who cited the respective strategy as part of their cognitive processing is shown in the second column. The third column equates the participants' strategies to Oxford and Schmitt's classification. While the spread of strategies classified as MEM, COG, DET, or SOC comprises a rich variety of approaches, the wide range of lexical strategies does not, however, indicate an evaluative component of each strategy identified in the data. Another framework to assess the classified strategies was sought.

Henriksen's (1999) theory of lexical competence provided a clear and rigorous theoretical construct for describing lexical competence, and presented a theoretical model to evaluate and interpret the learners' strategies. Henriksen's (1999) three dimensions of vocabulary development does not overemphasize one phase or aspect of learning but can be used to interpret and analyze learners' strategies of vocabulary development along different continuums, with an interrelationship between dimensions of lexical competence and processes of learning and use.

The first dimension of lexical competence, *partial-precise knowledge*, relates to learners who may or may not reflect on meaning of a term, and may use a number of inferential strategies, sorting tasks, and translation. In this low lexical knowledge dimension where meaning is applied onto form, learners' understanding of a certain lexical item moves from mere recognition through degrees of partial knowledge. The development in this dimension is associated with mapping or fitting words in semantic networks (Henriksen, 1999).

The second dimension, *depth of knowledge*, pertains to the complexity of vocabulary knowledge, and the many types of knowledge that comprise full understanding or representation of a word. In the second dimension, there is knowledge of a word's referential meaning, as well as its different intentional or sense relations to other words in the vocabulary, such as paradigmatic (autonomy, synonymy, hyponymy, gradation) and syntagmatic relations (collocational restrictions). The learner acquires knowledge of syntactic and morphological restrictions, and features of a lexical item. The development in

this dimension is primarily associated with network building or developing an understanding of sense relations. According to Henriksen, acquiring word meaning (i.e. labeling and packaging) and developing understanding of sense relations (network building) in dimensions 1 and 2 are “basically knowledge continua, in which levels of declarative word knowledge may be tapped or operationalized as levels of word understanding or comprehension” (p. 314).

The third dimension, *receptive-productive*, conveys the division between receptive and productive vocabulary, and relates the substantial difference in how well different lexical items are mastered in terms of the L2 learner’s ability to comprehend and produce the words accurately. In this dimension, receptive and productive vocabularies are distinguished in order to emphasize that the two are not dichotomous (i.e. completely distinct sets of vocabularies) but operate on a continuum: “Dimension 3 is essentially a continuum that describes levels of access or use ability, which may be operationalized through different types of receptive and productive knowledge” (p. 314). Henriksen’s (1999) three dimensions of lexical competence were instrumental in positioning Oxford and Schmitt’s classified strategies in the fourth column of Table 1.

When the three dimensions of lexical competence were applied to the strategies reported by the participants in this study, a more comprehensive and evaluative picture emerged. In column 4 of Table 1, the learners’ strategies first classified through Oxford and Schmitt’s taxonomy are placed within Henriksen’s three dimensions of lexical competence. In this analysis, there is a relatively unequal distribution of strategies amongst the three dimensions. As Table 2 shows, tallying the three dimensions reveals the preponderance of learners’ strategies that are aligned with dimensions 1 and 2 and the relative dearth of strategies in dimension 3.

Two conclusions are revealed from the classification of the participants’ reported strategies in terms of percentage distribution within the three dimensions of lexical competence. First, a strategy is not restricted to a particular dimension: it may occupy a first, second, or third dimension of lexical competence. That is, a strategy classified as DET, for example, may relate to a first or third dimension of lexical competence depending upon the strategy identified. Second, a large number of the strategies identified by the learner to expand their vocabulary were situated in the first and second

Table 1
Reported Vocabulary Learning Strategies, in
Dimensions of Lexical Competence

<i>Stated strategies used to expand vocabulary</i>	<i>Identified</i>	<i>Classification</i>	<i>Dimensions</i>
Internalize through repetition and memory	28.53%	MEM	1
Write new word on note cards	17.31%	MEM	1
Remember the spoken word	16.95%	MEM	1
Read newspapers, magazines, novels/poetry	30.82%	COG	2
Review words written on paper	7.26%	COG	2
Refer to online dictionary, computer software	5.16%	COG	2
Revisit a text over and over	4.47%	COG	2
Guess meaning from context	3.35%	COG	2
Use context clues	1.69%	COG	2
Learn through relationship or association	1.68%	COG	2
Apply similar meaning words	1.13%	COG	2
Identify prefix and suffix	1.12%	COG	2
Visualize new word, object, idea, or concept	0.56%	COG	2
Incorporate synonyms and antonyms	0.56%	COG	2
Pay attention to grammatical parts of speech	0.56%	COG	2
Mono/bilingual, elect/pictorial dictionary	33.67%	DET	1
Write essays, sentences, and quizzes	8.65%	DET	3
Take tests, debate in class, complete homework	6.73%	DET	3
Listen to music, radio; TV caption; use Internet	3.15%	DET	2
Relate word to first language	2.88%	DET	1
Compose letters, take memos in notebook	2.26%	DET	3
Rely on L1 to understand L2	2.23%	DET	1
Review notes, study, practice pronunciation	1.92%	DET	1
Express individual interest in the new word	0.56%	DET	3
Monitor words when talking, writing	22.03%	SOC	3
Activate new words in speech	21.79%	SOC	3
Interact with others and ask questions	18.04%	SOC	3
Concretize new words frequently	11.86%	SOC	3
Integrate new word in sentences when speaking	8.38%	SOC	3
Internalize new words when talking with others	2.79%	SOC	3
Ask teachers/classmates clarification questions	2.26%	SOC	3
Sound out syllables in a new word	1.13%	SOC	3
No strategy; searching for one	3.82%	N/A	N/A

Table 2
Distribution of Reported Strategies within Dimensions of Lexical Competence

Number of strategies used to expand vocabulary	Percentage Identified	Dimension of Lexical Competence
20	43%	2
15	32%	1
12	25%	3

dimensions of lexical competence. The prevalence of the vocabulary strategies in these two dimensions is revealing when set against the relatively small percentage of more advanced and sophisticated heuristic strategies in dimension 3. While the advanced L2 learners are employing a variety of learning strategies, the overwhelming distribution of these strategies in dimensions 1 and 2 suggests that they are not integrating more sophisticated heuristic approaches characteristic of dimension 3.

Discussion

This study began by asking what learning strategies advanced L2 students are employing to acquire vocabulary. The discussion in this section shifts to focus on what L2 educators should be doing to facilitate vocabulary development in their students. Findings from this research support conclusions drawn in other studies that sought to explore what approaches instructors ought to move toward to facilitate successful acquisition of English vocabulary in advanced L2 learners. Measures to develop L2 learners' fluency, confidence, competence, and literacy for social, sociopolitical, economic, familial, educational, and cultural integration agendas need to be considered.

Some advanced L2 learners who participated in this study are aware of diverse approaches to assist their integration of lexical items and may be using them. This was not the case, however, for many other learners. This study found that a significant percentage of advanced L2 learners are relying on strategies indicative of dimensions 1 and 2. The assumption that a strategy is equally useful at all stages of one's lifetime is called into question, as many strategies taught to young learners are abandoned as they mature (Schmitt, 1997). Different strategies are needed at different stages of linguistic proficiency and cognitive maturity. It may be that some learning strategies are more beneficial

at certain ages than others, and that learners naturally mature into using different strategies. If this is true, then L2 educators must take the learners' cognitive maturity and language proficiency into account when recommending strategies. Many of the strategies that become more important with age entail a deeper, more involved metacognitive processing and manipulation of information to promote more effective learning.

This study points to L2 learners' reliance on strategies and heuristic devices that exhibit a low frequency occurrence of Dimension 3 cognitive approaches for acquiring vocabulary, positioned at a stage that is packaging vocabulary rather than building networks. L2 educators and teacher training programs need to become more familiar with the potential role of pedagogy in providing heuristic strategies in students who need to advance their L2 vocabulary. It is, therefore, important that communicative-based instruction integrate explicit, sophisticated, and diverse metacognitive strategies to L2 learners, emphasizing the effectiveness of multiple, cognitive approaches that underscore the learners' ability to comprehend and produce newly acquired words accurately. By doing so, one is demystifying the assumption widely held by L2 educators that advanced L2 learners possess sophisticated approaches for acquiring vocabulary, and critiquing the position that inferring alone will allow the learner to acquire and use new and discipline-specific vocabulary in academic oral and written communication independently of an instructor. Indeed, students may not know alternative methods of vocabulary acquisition. It is a position that acknowledges Ellis's (1995) fourth hypothesis related to the explicit-learning model, underscoring the range of metacognitive strategies such as planning and monitoring which are necessary for the L2 learner's vocabulary acquisition.

The importance of evincing clear strategies for L2 vocabulary development cannot be stressed enough. Nation (1990) contends that incorporating effective strategies is pivotal to acquiring low-frequency vocabulary items in that the learners can be equipped with tools necessary for processing unfamiliar words. There are a wide variety of ways for dealing with L2 vocabulary: mnemonic devices (thinking strategy) – identifying syntactic structures, parsing the root and derivational affixes; recycling (active manipulation) – integrating new lexical items into a journal; and academic word lists (active manipulation) – highlighting words with frequency/occurrence (Nation, 1990). In particular, academic word lists are difficult to acquire because most L2 students are more familiar with their discipline-specific jargon and because the lists contain low-

frequency lexical items. As Coxhead (2000) points out, “an academic word list should play a crucial role in setting vocabulary goals for language courses, guiding learners in their independent study, and informing course and material designers in selecting texts and developing learner activities” (pp. 213-214). For this reason, teaching students strategies to improve their academic vocabulary is especially important when it comes to dealing with low frequency words. To communicate diversity in vocabulary acquisition is to focus on context and emphasize network building. To impart active strategies for students to increase lexical competence is to move beyond passive methods – for instance, dictionary reliance and memorization – and integrate strategies that incorporate productive, semantization approaches. Opportunities for indirect vocabulary learning should occupy much more time in a language-learning course than direct vocabulary learning activities. Strategies should not be considered inherently good but dependent on the context of language proficiency level, task, text, language modality, background knowledge, context of the learning, target language, cultural background, and learner characteristics (Schmitt, 1997).

Conclusion

Our first conclusion is that the higher the academic level, the greater the vocabulary mastery needed for understanding advanced, authentic texts. The second conclusion we draw is that L2 learners seem to lack effective strategies to acquire vocabulary – relying on cognitive strategies in dimensions 1 and 2 that may reflect an awareness deficit of more advanced approaches in dimension 3. At all levels, classroom instruction needs to introduce learners to diverse, research-based vocabulary learning approaches that enable learners to integrate them into their existing strategies, to incorporate a diversity of advanced strategies (for example, network building), and to become independent learners.

Based on the results of this study, an implication regarding testing and assessment may be drawn. Vocabulary is a discrete area assessed in L2 learners through standardized tests in higher education. It seems imperative, then, that instructors provide L2 learners with sophisticated strategies to advance their vocabulary for discipline-specific tests and state assessments that measure their understanding of lexical terms in isolation and in context. Ongoing monitoring, assessment, reflection, and activities in class are crucially important for measuring the L2 learner’s vocabulary development. In the context of many

universities in the United States where a growing number of freshmen are non-native speakers of English, exhibiting advanced communicative competence is particularly significant for these students seeking to successfully maintain their academic performance in college courses, and is critical for those L2 learners preparing for entrance examinations into professional programs. This raises the question as to how instructors should prepare advanced students for standardized university qualifying examinations which assess the learners' knowledge of words.

The following questions are suggested for research and instructional considerations as they relate to the teaching and learning of L2 vocabulary. First, does the extra knowledge of strategies help advanced students in their vocabulary acquisition, or does the extra knowledge simply reinforce natural strategies rather than provide new ones? Second, in what ways are advanced students' vocabulary strategies evolving over time? If the strategies are not changing, then why are they remaining relatively static despite the L2 learner's unsuccessful attempts at internalizing unfamiliar words? Third, how sophisticated are learners in their application of metalinguistic cues – i.e. morphological, semantic, syntactic, and inferring? Finally, how do advanced L2 learners use dictionaries, and how do these references facilitate vocabulary learning? The last question is particularly important for an empirical investigation since 33% of the participants in this study reported employing a dictionary.

As a final point, advanced L2 learners are faced with the tedious and daunting task of learning and incorporating new words in speech and writing for an extended period. It is, therefore, essential that they be taught effective strategies for enhancing their vocabulary learning skills. Systematic vocabulary instruction facilitates learning more than simply deciphering meaning of unfamiliar lexical items from contextual clues. It is clear that L2 learners will be the ultimate beneficiaries of such research-informed instruction.

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Appendix A
A Survey Investigating How Second Language Learners
Acquire and Develop English Vocabulary

1. Are you?
 male
 female

2. Are you between the ages of?
 18 – 25
 26 – 35
 36 – 45
 46 – 55
 55 and over

3. What is your first language?

4. Are you a?
 part-time student
 full-time student

5. Are you?
 employed part-time
 employed full-time
 self-employed
 non-employed
 other _____

6. List any other language in which you feel confident communicating.

7. How long have you been studying English?

8. How many years have you received formal English instruction?

9. How many years/months have you lived in the United States?

10. Approximately how many hours do you speak English each day (as opposed to your first language)?
(Circle one) 0-4 hours 5-8 hours
 9-12 hours More than 12 hours
11. On a scale of 1 to 5, how important is it for you to expand your vocabulary?
1 (not very important) 2 3 4 5 (very important)
12. Briefly describe why it is important to improve your vocabulary.
13. List the methods, techniques, or strategies that you experienced in your English language class that have helped you to expand or develop your vocabulary.
14. What have you found to be the best method or most effective strategy for developing your vocabulary?
15. How has your approach to acquiring vocabulary changed over time?
16. When you encounter a new word, concept, or term, what do you do to remember or internalize the word?
17. What factors create difficulty for you in learning a new word?
18. What techniques or approaches do you use to integrate new vocabulary into your spoken or written English?

Appendix B

First Language of Participants

Ukrainian	1
Filipino	1
Armenian	1
Hebrew	1
Portuguese	1
Tagalog	1
Gujarati	1
Pashto	1
Benin	1
Indonesian	1
Polish	1
Turkish	2
Thai	2
Japanese	2
Greek	2
Arabic	2
Hindi	3
Bengali	4
Urdu	4
French	5
Persian / Farsi	5
Russian	6
Punjabi	7
Creole and French	9
Korean	16
Spanish	49
Chinese	53

The Impact of Leadership Styles on Employee Performance

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The thematic subject matter focus on the 'Impact of Leadership Styles on Employee Performance' is meant to demonstrate the instrumentality of various styles of leadership in the pursuit and achievement of organizational goals and objectives. For the purpose of this discussion of the subject matter, the concept of leadership embodies a process of exerting or exercising a superior's influences or leadership control power over his or her subordinates or other associated persons, in order to accomplish the objectives of an organization. In broad conceptual and generic terms, there are people in the contemporary societies who possess unique or superior traits that enable them to tell others what to do (leaders), and some others who possess less of the same traits, and so are predisposed to do what they are told (i.e. followers). It is also significant that, for a leader to tell others what to do, a leader must possess requisite knowledge and competencies, appreciable courage, generosity, temperament, humility and honesty. Hence, the leader's solidity and depth of character must be sacrosanct.

The university is one of the greatest world institutions that has taken root widely in modern World, the acquisition, the transmission and application of knowledge are accepted as crucial in the development and progress of any country in the world. As the World enters the new millennium, the environment in which a giving country's universities must operate has changed greatly during the last two decades, and is still changing rapidly. Therefore, the future has become increasingly unpredictable. This calls for greater creativity, innovation and resourcefulness in the management of universities than has been demonstrated hitherto. The management factor in the sustainability of a giving Country's university at this crucial period is no doubt central to the achievement of positive results especially the creation of a conducive atmosphere for moving the universities forward.

Interestingly, however, it may be pertinent to note that leadership is not a right but a responsibility and, more importantly, a manifestation of the capacity to translate vision into reality. Moreover, for a leader to win the respect of others, the leader must deliver more than he/she promises, rather than promise more than can be practically delivered. Also, the way that a leader would relate with another person does matter. By implication, leaders must be close enough to relate to others, but far enough ahead to motivate them for better performance of an assigned responsibility (or a set of responsibilities). A leader that knows his/her onus should explore the six demands of leadership in order to enhance employees performance which include, understanding oneself, energizing others, enabling change, building teams, communicating direction and enrolling support. There is no leader without followers and, correspondingly, no followers without a leader. Further still, the leadership styles common to the various leaders are, for example: autocratic, laissez-faire, group-centered and democratic. Nevertheless, the democratic style has been adjudged, by far, the best style for enhancing better performance in any organization.

It will suffice to say that leadership is a process of influencing or using power over the subordinates in order to accomplish the objectives of an organization. Consequently, and with particular reference to this paper, the impact of leadership styles on employee performance in the educational system can be seen as a process of combining and/or making use of various styles of leadership for the specific pursuit of the founding goals, through the rational deployment of power and authority, responsibility, etc. More importantly, there are many types of leaders. These include the following: family leadership, traditional leadership, economic leadership, religious leadership, political leadership, emergency/temporary leadership and institutional leadership.

Nevertheless, there are three major types of leadership positions. The first is the institutional type of leadership which is commonly found in schools, colleges, universities, and other bodies performing teaching research and training functions. The second is leadership of a political nature and leadership of political and semi-political organizations. The third is professional leadership or leadership of professional organization. In the first and third types the leader must be educated and possibly trained. In the second type claims to leadership are rather loose, no form of qualification or training is desired and anyone can become a leader depending on the individual's characteristics, attributes or charisma.

It is further reasoned in this paper that, for a better performance in the educational system, relative to the founding goals and objectives, there is the need for the leadership to explore and effectively apply the qualities expected of a good leader. Some of these qualities are:

- The leader seeing himself/herself as a servant and not as a master.
- Being a good and honest follower.
- Being tolerant in dealing with other people.
- Being impartial while discharging his/her duty as a leader.
- Being obedient and compliant with the rules and regulations of the operating system.
- Being concerned about the problems of his/her people.
- Being hardworking and readily available to help his/her followers.
- Being polite while discussing with his/her followers.

According to Cameron and Whetton (1985), in order for leadership to succeed in the University system, the leadership must display certain leadership characteristics which include the following, among others:

- Place emphasis on process and outcome;
- Have low fear of failure, and willingness to take risks;
- Nurture the support of strategic constituencies;
- Not immediately succumb to the tyranny of legitimate demands;
- Leave a distinctive imprint;
- Error in favor of over-communication, especially in times of crisis;
- Respect the power of organizational culture; and
- Preserve the highlight sources of opportunity at the institution.

From the foregoing submission, it is imperative for a leader in the contemporary educational system to achieve the established aims and objectives, especially for the purposes of robust organizational performance

enhancement, to inspire the employees with noble and patriotic acts and conducts; to show, by example, high standards of morality and ethics; and to generate and put to effect ideas that are capable of transforming the educational system and positively impacting upon the robustness of employee total experience as well as the quality of working life. The thematic focus of this paper on the educational sector (or industry) is in recognition of the catalytic role of education and human development in the achievement of sustainable national development. Further still, this paper will enhance the necessary understanding of comparative leadership patterns, as well as the wider applications of leadership thought, scenarios and processes, within the context of national and international systems of educational delivery. The paper will draw upon the peculiar circumstances that influence formative processes and practices of development planning and administration in an emerging country, in the World.

Definition of Leadership

In the world today, leadership is a long standing and widespread topic of concern, which has not gotten a universally accepted definition. The reason for this assertion is not far to seek as it is credited to the fact that many people see leadership from different perspectives. In business, schools, social organizations, political institutions, organizations and systems, leadership is emphasized. For example, in the political circle, the leader is either elected or appointed. In other situations, the leader emerges; yet in another situation, the leader may either impose himself, or be imposed, on a follower-ship. It must be noted at this juncture that, whatever concept of leadership is preferred, it must be admitted that leadership connotes the ability to get things done with the assistance and cooperation of other people within an institution or organization. In other words, the leader is the person who gets things done by enlisting the efforts of other people. More importantly, an effective leader is the person who is not only able to make his subordinates to do what they have to do but also recognizes that the goals and objectives of the institution, organization or system, are met.

Types of leadership Positions

A leader is a person who shows, directs, governs or guide another person or group of persons in order to achieve certain established goals. There are many types of leaders. These types include the following:

1. Family Leadership: This kind of leadership exists with the family arrangement. Since the family setting varies from one place to another, family leadership equally varied as well.
2. Professional Leadership: This includes leaders of professional organizations. These leaders have firm control of the intake of members of their respective profession.
3. Institutional Leadership: This exists in schools, colleges, universities and other bodies performing teaching and training functions. This implies that the leadership here must be educated and possibly trained.
4. Political Leadership: This exists in political and semi-political organizations. Mostly, this type of leadership are rather loose, no form of qualification or training is desired. Any one can become a leader depending on the individual's characteristics, attributes or charisma. Political leaders include presidents of countries, governors, commissioners, etc. They are selected through election and appointments.
5. Emergency/Temporary Leadership: These are leaders appointed in case of emergency and other situations.
6. Religious Leadership: Religious leaders vary from religion to religion. In Christianity religious leaders are arranged in hierarchical order such as Pope, Arch. Bishop, Bishop, Reverend, Pastor, Evangelists, etc. In Islamic realm we have the Chief Imam, Imam, Alfa, etc. The hierarchy in the religious organization is limitless.

Qualities of a Good Leader

Presently over the world, a firm agreement on what the qualities of the leader are does not exist. There is a consensus however that leadership should revolve around what a person is as well as what a person does. In defining the qualities of the leader further more, attention should be given to what he does than to what he is. Some of the qualities expected of a good leader are as itemized below:

- A good leader must see himself/herself as a servant and not as a master.

- ... must be a good and honest follower.
- ... must be tolerant in dealing with other people.
- ... must be impartial while discharging his duty as a leader.
- ... must be an obedient citizen who keeps the rules and regulations of the society.
- ... must take interest in the problems of his people.
- ... must always be hardworking and readily available to help his followers.
- ... must be polite while discussing with his followers.

Leadership Styles

For the accomplishment of the objectives of an organization, an effective leader is expected to make use of some leadership styles to have positive impact on employee's performance. In general, leadership styles have come under four headings: authoritarian, democratic, group-centered, and laissez-faire.

The authoritarian leader argues that the end justifies the means and supports the mechanistic interpretation of leadership. The interests of the members of the group do not normally count as long as the interests of the leader are well catered for. Members of the group or the system are treated as if they are machines, with no consideration for their human problems and needs. The authoritarian leader is feared but not respected. Sometimes he gets things done fast but the group are used only to keep the leader in power and to ensure that the system continues to operate in accordance with his wishes. The main characteristics of the authoritarian leader are ruthlessness, selfishness, wickedness, greed, love of power, and desire to be flattered.

The democratic or participatory leadership is a great shift from the mechanic interpretation of leadership to an organic principle of leadership interpretation. Democratic leadership argues that the group is greater than the sum of its parts. The leader takes note of society, nature and man and ensures that the needs of these are taken into consideration in the decision-making process. Leadership functions within the group are decentralized and delegated. The leader assumes the roles of a coordinator and an organizer of the several components of the system. Everybody in the system is kept actively involved in the administration process and allowed to function and interact.

The group-centered leader is the one who has shifted the responsibilities of leadership from himself to the group. He is often difficult to identify in the group as a leader. He is the disappearing leader who depends on the group for initiatives and solutions. He identifies himself with the group and argues that he is a member of the group to think with the members and not for them or about them. Under this system everybody seems to be a leader and in crisis situations the system normally collapses.

The laissez-faire and laissez-passer approach to leadership implies that things should be left to sort themselves out. The leader hates crisis situations. He tries to satisfy everybody in the system. He is indifferent on certain critical issues as long as his indifference would keep the team together and keep the boat moving. He is too anxious about the unity of the group and the need not to upset the apple cart. He prefers to solve problems by himself rather than risk opposition and debates on them from the group. He prefers to hold individual meetings with members of the group to seek support on issues and ensure support this way rather than open the whole subject for discussion. In short the laissez-faire leader prefers no action to ensure peace to any action at all.

One cannot conclude that a certain method of leadership is preferred or superior in all situations and for all leaders. Few leaders would deliberately decide to use a particular form of leadership in their systems without clearing certain fundamental issues. In leadership situations the leader must ask himself some questions. Does the leader understand the basic assumptions of the methods of leadership he chooses to use? Can he meet the demands of this method and be comfortable with it? What is the experience of the members of this group vis-à-vis the method of leadership employ? Have the members of the system had any experience with the type of leadership that the leader prefers to use? If not can it be introduced to them without much difficulty? What possibilities does the method have for recognizing individual differences? To what extent will the method fit into the system and ensure its effectiveness?

Leadership Tasks for Effective Employee Performance

1. Motivation

The specific task areas of leadership would vary from one situation to another. Broadly, leadership functions are the same for all enterprises. For instance a major task of all leaders is how to influence the behavior of subordinates so that

the results of the system are attained. The goal of all enterprises is to obtain maximum performance from the members of the group within the standard conditions set forth in the system's procedures.

In the educational sector we want to ensure that each person from the head of the institution to the gateman is making his maximum contributions to ensure that goals of the institution are attained. This obviously means that each person must be motivated to put forth his best effort. It has been said that one of the key problems in educational sector is not that employees lack motivation but that leaders lack the ability to nurture it. The attitude of leaders to employees and the extent to which the leaders demonstrate an understanding of the employees' problems are sure to affect the performance of employees. If the leader places too much emphasis on the requirements and the needs of the institution and shows little concern for the basic needs of the personnel particularly the instructional staff, it is unlikely that people within that system will be motivated to make maximum contribution.

There are at least three major ways by which the leader can prepare or organize an ideal environment that would motivate his employees. The first is by providing immediate attainable goals towards which the employees should work. The second approach of facilitating motivation among employees is by ensuring that means are provided for attaining goals that are set for the employees. The third method of preparing a good atmosphere for motivation is through feedbacks. Undoubtedly, feedbacks per se are an important element in motivation. When goals have been set and means of achieving them clearly established, employees would like to know how they are faring in their efforts. Feedbacks do not necessarily have to be positive; they cannot be altogether negative also. For maximum effectiveness feedbacks must be immediate and specific.

2. Understanding the Ability of Employees

It would be very difficult for leader to attempt to motivate his employee if he makes no attempt to know them and ascertain their strengths and weakness. Since an organization would comprise men and women of different specialization it is essential for the leader to get to know the characteristics and capabilities of the men and women under him. Very often the information provided in applications is inadequate. The applications do not give information about such intangible issues concerning likes and dislikes, personality, temperament and social habits of the applicants.

3. Job Classification

On entering a system, the new employee would like to know what his specific tasks are. It is the leader's task to match people and position. This implies that the leader should know the specific specialization of employees and both the employee and leader show the task requirements of the former. It is common to find leaders complaining to leaders that they were being requested to perform tasks that are unrelated to their training or their own job expectations.

4. Staff Orientation

Orientation is one of the tasks that leaders should concern themselves. After staff have been recruited and assigned, it is still essential that those in leadership positions formally introduce them to the system so that adjustment problems confronting the new staff can be minimized. A new employee coming into a system needs to know how the system operates. If he is unfamiliar with the whole atmosphere he becomes insecure and apprehensive of many things. Unless he is adequately informed of the ways things are done in the new system he would mostly fumble and stumble.

5. Staff Development

Staff development is one of the most significant facets of every leadership role. Staff development implies the ways and means by which the leader recognizes employee performance needs and the extent to which the leader shows interest in ensuring that employee needs are met through programs that would improve the qualitative and quantitative contributions of employee to the overall goals of the system. Such programs would aim at enabling individuals within the system to be more effective in performing their work or at preparing individuals for greater responsibilities.

6. Staff Supervision and Assessment

Supervision plays a major role, not only in creating a positive relationship between the leader and his subordinates, but also in providing ample evidence upon which assessment can be made. In a given system, supervision helps the new employee to understand the purposes, responsibilities and relationships of his position and the directions of his efforts. Actual supervision however involves giving guidance to employees in a system, so that they can be self-

directing or so that they can function effectively with minimum supervision. In assessing employees, emphasis must be placed on the requirements of the position and the relevance of the employee's contributions to the system's activities, aspirations and objectives.

In the final analysis, it is pertinent to note that the impact of leadership styles on employee performance is of immense importance if the objectives of a given system are to be attained.

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Preparing High School Students for College Success: A College and High School Leadership Collaboration

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Preparing high school students for a successful collegiate experience is a major challenge but one that presents opportunity for both sides—colleges and high schools. The leadership at both levels must be aware of and committed to fully addressing the challenges as well as being appreciative of the opportunities and their associated rewards.

In order to enhance (if not insure) collegiate success, students must be guided through a long, oft times unpredictable, and individually challenging journey as they must prepare themselves not for one, but for at least four different post-educational careers. This emerging awareness of the need to prepare for a multiple-career lifetime poses several fundamental questions that should now inform our educational planning and programming: What multi-career skills must high school and college graduates acquire, and how should high schools and colleges teach students to think critically and make decisions? What academic/intellectual skills are essential for high school and college studies and which processes should schools and colleges develop to help students successfully cope with future challenges?

We believe that answers to these questions we can derived from the teaching and learning philosophical approach of the ancient Greeks defined as *Morfosis*. Gialamas & Pelonis (2009), define Morfosis as the confluence of sustainable, holistic, meaningful and harmonious educational strategies.

The concept of **holistic** refers to the understanding and successful combination of academic, emotional, physical, intellectual and ethical components to ensure a healthy, balanced individual—an individual who can successfully cope with the changes involved when entering higher education as well as the changes that life brings.

Meaningfulness is related to the degree of congruence of educational goals and outcomes with students' dreams, strengths, talents, and desires. In addition, **meaningfulness** ensures congruence between one's principles and values and one's personal and professional life goals.

Harmonious is the designation given to the notion of synchronicity and agreement among the various and often competing dimensions of humanity. In other words emotions, intelligence and intellect must be harmonically integrated, with this integration being a critical characteristic of the leadership competencies of listening thinking, reflecting, and decision-making.

As we look at secondary education, some of the most fundamental questions being asked include, How many and which of the skills acquired during those years really are necessary and sufficient to ensure student success in college pressuring a particular discipline? What content specific and general knowledge is transferable? Are students able to apply this knowledge in different situations, make educated decisions or providing solutions to specific problems? How well do we understand individual student learning styles and interest? And, how difficult is it for any college to train their faculty and staff to teach effectively especially during the freshman year in college?

Secondary education teachers must not only understand the corresponding freshman collegiate curriculum, but they must thoughtfully and systematically determine what skills students must develop for application in college. Similarly, faculty and administrators of higher education institutions focus on analogous goals for their institutions, and rightly so. In particular, collegiate-level leaders who are the content experts and leaders of curriculum and teaching and learning, must exhibit leadership and establish collaboration opportunities between and among college/university faculty, and secondary school teachers and administrators. It is beneficial for colleges and their academic departments in particular to have a holistically clear understanding of the characteristics of students they will be teaching; this facilitates the collegiate personnel's ability to motivate students toward a quest for achieving maximum

potential. This represents one of the most challenging issues in higher education freshman retention. Since it is well known that the freshman year is the most crucial and most important in college life, both secondary school and collegiate personnel must be proactive and not reactive.

Thus, if we are committed to addressing the challenges of college success for incoming college freshmen we must build an educational bridge between the secondary school and collegiate experience. There is therefore a need to internalize, and adopt a philosophy which requires higher education faculty and department chairs to assume leadership to educate on one hand the secondary education teachers and administrators but also to do the same to themselves for providing to incoming high school students a meaningful transition to college learning.

We cannot assume that students will automatically know how to apply the skills acquired in secondary education. Similarly, we cannot assume that the best of professors and teaching methods will ensure student success, without prior conversations and implementation of such teaching and learning approaches across the environments. Effective bridging method requires a reciprocal understanding of both worlds by both the higher education community and the secondary education community. Students are guided, at best, in high school, to do what is necessary to meet the required criteria of the desired higher educational institution, and—in the best circumstances—they are also provided with academic guidance that is appropriate to a specific discipline or area of studies.

Our more than one century collective experience in higher education (undergraduate and graduate) leaves no doubt that the most successful college student is the one who is satisfied with and feels fulfilled by his/her area of studies, the institution, its mission, philosophy, culture as well as the location. Therefore, it is extremely important for students to understand the characteristics, norms, and expectations of the discipline they will study so that they can make an informed college selection by investigating and understanding the mission of the institution (e.g., focus on teaching, research, or both), its faculty strength, interests, size, approaches to teaching and learning, its students if it is the best choice for them.

College leaders and faculty in collaboration with high school teachers and administrators are hereby called to develop content based transitional academic

programs for 10th and 11th grade students. These programs can be designed to be taught by college professors, or by a team comprised of both collegiate and secondary school faculty. Such deliberately designed programs can lead to meaningful learning outcomes for, students, college professors and leaders, and high school faculty and leadership.

This can be done in a variety of ways. In cities where universities are accessible to high schools, agreements and relationships could be established so that high school students could take college courses, or college professors could teach courses at high schools, or both institutions can engage in other joint programs. The goal for such relationships is to ensure continuation in the educational process and also to ensure that the student transfers the skills and knowledge obtained in high school environment to the higher education institution.

In 2006, the American Community Schools of Athens (ACS Athens) created the Institute of Creative and Critical Thinking (ICCT); this institute provided students with a for better understanding the collegiate environment. The ICCT offers college level courses with the cooperation of colleges and their faculty, world wide. In addition, the institute provides programs for students to visit higher education institutions, attend courses, engage in research projects with professors, and thus experience college life, at least one or two years before they graduate from high school. Therefore college it will not be a scary, difficult, complicated environment and they will not rely on movies, friends' stories, or college brochures and advertisements to make their decision which college will prepare them better for a successful life.

Colleges leaders are engaged to identify the best professors from their institutions to teach college level courses at the ACS Athens campus during a three week intensive period. Teaching methods are innovative, and an atmosphere of college level seriousness and rigor is promoted. To date, ICCT has offered college courses in mathematics, international relations, business, drama, and leadership for qualified 10th and 11th grade students.

In the summer of 2009 the course Foundations of Leadership (a three week-long course) was offered to 10th and 11th grade students in a unique delivery approach. A team of instructors, from ACS Athens and the University of Richmond taught the course. Students began the course at ACS Athens for one week , then continued at the University of Richmond, and ended in Washington, DC .

Collaborations between college faculty and leaders, and high school counterparts resulted in a win-win situation with the students reaping the benefits and reinforcing previous skills and knowledge. This experience is expected to foster collegiate-level success by applying the concept of *Morfosis*. The successful application of this concept facilitates students' ability to focus on learning, strengthen already acquired skills, and reflect on and develop/improve study techniques. Furthermore, students also have the opportunity to engage in a learning process with a college professor, and thus develop a positive image of college learning.

In conclusion, education is a continuous act of not only acquiring skill, knowledge, and problem solving capability, but also is a way of learning and making educated decisions in academic establishments—a *journey* to be experienced. In this journey the transition from one environment to another must be smooth, as painless as possible and meaningful in a holistic way.

As travelers between the two worlds, secondary and university education, we find it refreshing and inspiring to work with colleagues on both ends of the spectrum that have the same goals; to inspire students to be the best that they can be.

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Book Review

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Review of: Colby, A., Beaumont, E., Ehrlich, T., & Corngold, J. (2007). **Educating for Democracy: Preparing Undergraduates for Responsible Political Engagement**. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

As one would expect from a book sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation, this is a thoughtful, high-level examination of the potential for political education within the undergraduate curriculum and co-curriculum. The authors, two of whom are co-directors of a Carnegie program called the Political Engagement Project (PEP), base many of their conclusions on the documented outcomes of 21 courses and programs nationwide that focus on political learning to enhance students' political understanding, motivation, skills, and involvement. PEP itself is a documentation of outcomes from its 21 selected programs, rather than a designed approach to undergraduate education. As such, the project is open to the charge of being structured to deliver its desirable results. A closer look largely dispels these doubts, however; the selected programs reflect a great diversity of institutions, students, pedagogical approaches, and purposes.

PEP's conclusions are that educating for political understanding, skills, and motivation produces meaningful gains not only in these political dimensions, but appears to support development of many of the core undergraduate skills of critical thinking, communication, teamwork, leadership, and reflective judgment. The authors are able to cite gains in the political dimensions based on interviews with PEP faculty and pre- and post-program surveys of the students. To measure gains in the broader undergraduate goals of critical thinking, leadership, and judgment, the authors suggest use of instruments such as the Collegiate Learning Assessment (CLA), a widely used measure of intellectual growth in undergraduate education. They do not apply such an instrument to the PEP participants, however, and this leaves the connection to the larger goals unsubstantiated. (It also leaves the issue open to further investigation by the authors or by other researchers.)

Educating for Democracy promotes political education and involvement as an ideal vehicle for achieving meaningful intellectual growth, and contrasts it to merely civic engagement that is often expressed in the forms of service learning or volunteering. In the authors' view, the goal of political education is to foster a broader and more active version of democratic participation than just voting, including involvement in local politics, grassroots campaigns, and policy-related work.

In developing their recommendations, the authors address the charge from conservative commentators that colleges and universities operate from a pronounced liberal bias that gives little scope to divergent viewpoints. Rather than debate the general political orientation of the universities, the authors focus on the prospects for an open and balanced political education. The prospects are good, they maintain, that political education—conducted in the right way—will support the values of intellectual pluralism and respect for diverse perspectives that are at the heart of the higher education mission. The right way of educating is to create the conditions for a “reasoned discourse” that maintains civility and respect for divergent opinions while subjecting all views to searching analysis and examination. An important part of this approach, one that is reflected in many of the PEP projects, is to model civility and reasoned discourse for students. In addition, one of the project's findings is that political education does not change party affiliation or ideological orientation.

Five of the book's thirteen chapters are devoted to pedagogical strategies for effective political education. The strategies draw on the examples provided in the PEP projects and reach conclusions from analysis of the projects' outcomes. The authors point to gains in democratic participation skills, such as the ability to influence, and to increased levels of motivation and commitment, as well as a sense of political efficacy. Effective pedagogical methods include reading and discussion, research, action projects, use of speakers and mentors, and learning through placements in community organizations, internships, and structured service learning assignments. An important element in these diverse experiences is to set up mechanisms for reflection, in which an experience is viewed as a case in point of a larger process or pattern.

In a concluding chapter, the authors point to an institution's overall responsibility in leveraging the benefits of political education strategies. These include working across the curriculum to connect multiple disciplines, courses, projects, and experiences. To help students achieve cumulative, integrated

learning, the authors maintain, the institution should use its curriculum, co-curriculum, and campus culture to provide a deeper, broader, richer, and more lasting educational experience for its students.

The idea that campus culture can and should be part of the enriched learning environment prompts the authors to observe that, in this way at least, campus-based education is superior to distance learning. And while this may be a reasonable conclusion regarding the traditional first-time, full-time student, it does not help shape the educational choices of the growing numbers of working adult learners who study part time and take courses online to balance educational goals with family and work responsibilities. While some of the PEP projects include a residence hall component, for example, none are distance-learning based nor incorporate online learning in a significant way. The selection of the PEP projects, and the strategies proposed by this text, would have both been enhanced by consideration of learning formats used in online education, and the strengths and limitations of this increasingly significant educational mode.

These qualifiers aside, administrators and faculty will find *Educating for Democracy* inspiring, thought-provoking, and challenging in many general and specific ways. They will find the appendix providing detailed summaries of all 21 PEP programs useful in a practical way. They will then be left with the design challenge posed by the authors, one that each institution must address in its own way: designing the curriculum and co-curriculum and shaping the institutional culture to help students achieve the broadest and deepest possible learning for their own intellectual growth, for their careers, and for their participation in a democratic society.

Professional Standards of the AAUA

In 1975, the AAUA developed a set of professional standards, which embody the principles of moral and ethical leadership and which define the rights and responsibilities of administrators in higher education. These professional standards were revised in 1994. This revision process began in October, 1992. The Association's Professional Standards Committee developed a series of draft revisions that were reviewed and amended by the Board of Directors at its regular meetings, and by the AAUA membership at the 22nd National Assembly in June 1993. In November 1993, Draft IV of the revised standards was mailed to all members of the AAUA with a questionnaire, the responses to which were included in Draft V. Draft V of the revised standards was approved, with amendments, by the Board of Directors at the 23rd National Assembly in June 1994.

Standard 1 – Non-discrimination

(a) An applicant for employment or promotion as an Administrator has the right to consideration without being discriminated against on the grounds of race, gender, sexual orientation, religion (except where exempt by Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, or other statute), national origin, age, or disability.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility to perform the duties of his or her office in such a way as to not discriminate on the grounds of race, gender, sexual orientation, religion (except where exempt by Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, or other statute), national origin, age, or disability.

Standard 2 – Written Terms of Employment

(a) An Administrator has the right to a written statement of the terms of his or her employment, including, but not limited to, statements on salary and fringe benefits, term of office, process of review, and responsibilities of the position.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility to perform the duties of his or her office as defined in the written statement of the terms of employment or as defined in an official handbook of the institution.

Standard 3 – Institutional Authority and Support

(a) An Administrator has the right to the authority necessary to fulfill the responsibilities of his or her office and to a supportive institutional environment.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility to use the authority of his or her office and the support provided by the institution to fulfill the responsibilities of his or her office.

Standard 4 – Availability and Use of Resources

(a) An Administrator has the right to the financial, physical, and human resources necessary to fulfill the responsibilities of his or her office.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility to use the financial, physical, and human resources of his or her office in a way that is consistent with the policies and priorities set by the institution's governing board; and has the responsibility to develop, allocate, and preserve the resources of the institution that are within the limits of his or her office.

Standard 5 – Policy Development and Implementation

(a) An Administrator has the right to participate in the development and implementation of those institutional policies that relate to the authority and responsibilities of his or her office.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility to participate in the development and implementation of those institutional policies that relate to the authority and responsibilities of his or her office.

Standard 6 – Speaking for the Institution

(a) An Administrator has the right to act as a spokesperson of the institution within the limits of his or her office and subject to the policies of the institution.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility to act as a spokesperson for the institution within the limits of his or her office, insofar as that function is a requirement of the office.

Standard 7 – Professional Growth and Development

(a) An Administrator has the right to support for his or her professional growth and development by means such as participation in professional activities and attendance at professional meetings and by sharing in sabbaticals, leaves of absence, and other developmental programs of the institution.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility to improve his or her professional skills, abilities, and performance by means such as participation in professional activities and attendance at professional meetings and by sharing in sabbaticals, leaves of absence, and other developmental programs of the institution.

Standard 8 – Job Performance Evaluation

(a) An Administrator has the right to regular formal evaluation of his or her job performance, to participate in the evaluation process, and to the timely receipt of the results of those evaluations.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility for ensuring that his or her subordinates receive regular formal job performance evaluations, that they participate in the evaluation process, and that they receive in a timely manner the results of those evaluations.

Standard 9 – Advancement Within the Institution

(a) An Administrator has the right to be considered for career advancement opportunities within the institution.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility when positions become available that are within the limits of his or her office to post those positions within the institution and to give consideration to candidates from within the institution.

Standard 10 – Academic Freedom

(a) An Administrator has the right to enjoy the benefits of academic freedom insofar as the concept of academic freedom (as defined by the institution) is applicable to his or her duties.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility to perform the duties of his or her office in a way that maintains and secures the academic freedom of faculty, students, and administrators, and that maintains and secures the academic freedom of the institution.

Standard 11 – Expression of Personal Opinions

(a) An Administrator has the right to enjoy the benefits of academic freedom insofar as the concept of academic freedom (as defined by the institution) is applicable to his or her duties.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility when expressing personal opinions on issues that are related to the institution to make clear that he or she is speaking as a private person and not as a representative of the institution.

Standard 12 – Harassment-Free Environment

(a) An Administrator has the right to perform the responsibilities of his or her office without being harassed.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility to perform the duties of his or her office in a way that creates and maintains an environment in which each person is able to perform his or her responsibilities without being harassed.

Standard 13 – Personal Privacy

(a) An Administrator has the right to privacy in all personal matters, including, but not limited to financial information, religious beliefs, and political views and affiliations, unless this right is specifically limited by statute or the conditions of the particular office.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility to respect the right of privacy of others, in all personal matters including, but not limited to, financial information, religious beliefs, and political views and affiliations, except where this right of others is specifically limited by statute or the conditions of their office.

Standard 14 – Participation in Associations and Support of Causes

(a) An Administrator has the right to participate in associations and to support causes of his or her choice, subject only to the constraints imposed by institutional responsibilities or conflict of interest considerations.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility to respect the right of his or her subordinates to participate in associations and to support causes, subject to the constraints imposed by institutional responsibilities or conflict of interest considerations.

Standard 15 – Fair and Equitable Treatment

(a) An Administrator has the right to fair and equitable treatment by his or her superiors and by the institution's administrators and governing board and to receive treatment that is free from arbitrary or capricious action.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility to treat subordinates fairly and equitably and to avoid arbitrary or capricious actions especially in situations relating to performance evaluations, promotions, demotions and, or, the termination of employment.

Standard 16 – Reappointment and Termination

(a) An Administrator has the right to receive a copy of the institution's policies and procedures relating to the timely notification of reappointment and termination actions, prior to his or her appointment. When these policies and procedures are amended, an administrator has the right to receive the amended policies and procedures.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility to respect his or her subordinates' rights contained in the institution's policies and procedures relating to the timely notification of reappointment and termination actions.

Standard 17 – Post Employment Support

(a) An Administrator has the right, when his or her termination of employment is for reasons other than for cause, to receive professional and technical support from the institution in seeking new employment.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility, within the limits of his or her office, to provide professional and technical support to subordinates whose employment is terminated for reasons other than for cause.

Standard 18 – Post Employment References

(a) An Administrator has the right, when ending his or her employment or subsequent to ending his or her employment, to receive a written statement from the institution that reflects clearly and accurately his or her job performance evaluation and the reason for his or her termination of employment.

(b) An Administrator has the responsibility, when requested by a subordinate or former subordinate, for providing a written statement from the institution that reflects clearly and accurately the performance evaluation and the reason for termination of employment of that subordinate or former subordinate.

The Mission of AAUA

The mission of the American Association of University Administrators is to develop and advance superior standards for the profession of higher education administration. Through its policy statements, programs, and services the association emphasizes the responsibility of administrators, at all levels, to demonstrate moral and ethical leadership in the exercise of their duties. To achieve these ends the association provides, through programs and services, opportunities for the professional development of its members, whether they be employed by colleges, universities, specialized institutions, or professional associations.

Guidelines for Contributors

The purpose of the **Journal of Higher Education Management** is to promote and strengthen the profession of college and university administration the **Journal** provides a forum for:

- (a) a discussion of the current issues, problems and challenges facing higher education;
- (b) an exchange of practical wisdom and techniques in the areas of higher education leadership, policy analysis and development, and institutional management; and
- (c) the identification and explication of the principles and standards if college and university administration.

Manuscripts should be written for the college or university administrator who has the general responsibilities of educational leadership, policy analysis, staff development, and/or institutional management. Practical as well as scholarly-oriented submissions are welcome.

All manuscripts should be submitted electronically to the Editor-in-Chief at DKING@MAIL-AAUA.ORG. They must be submitted as MSWord documents. One page should be headed with the title of the article and should contain only the complete identification and contact information for all authors. The actual manuscript should contain no identifiable information other than the title of the article. Manuscripts must conform to the latest standards of the **Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association**.

Manuscripts are blind reviewed and are publishable only upon the favorable recommendation of at least three reviewers. The **Journal** charges no publishing or page-cost fees.



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